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ENCYCLOPÆDIA METROPOLITANA;

OR,

UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY OF KNOWLEDGE,

On an Original Plan:

COMPRISING THE TWOFOLD ADVANTAGE OF

A PHILOSOPHICAL AND AN ALPHABETICAL ARRANGEMENT,

WITH APPROPRIATE ENGRAVINGS.

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VOLUME XV.



[MISCELLANEOUS AND LEXICOGRAPHICAL, Vol. 2.]

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ENCYCLOPÆDIA METROPOLITANA;

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Fourth Division.



MISCELLANEOUS AND LEXICOGRAPHICAL.

ASCARIS. *ASCARIS*, in Zoology, a genus of the class *Vermes*; order *Rigidula*. Generic character; body elongated, round, often attenuated at the extremities; three valves at the anterior extremity. Mouth terminal, minute, covered by the valves.

The numerous species of which this genus is composed, inhabit the intestines of various animals, living upon the mucus which lines their internal *oesophagus*. The three valves at the mouth, which are to be considered as a distinctive generic character, appear to perform the office of lips, to assist the animal in fixing itself to the surface, and in sucking its nourishment. They are found not only in the intestines of man, and of the higher classes of animals, but in those also of reptiles, and even of other worms. The sexes are distinct and the female is oviparous. The most important species, because the only one which infects the human body, is *Ascaris lumbricoides*, the *A. vermicularis* of Linnæus being referred to the genus *Oxyuris*. *Ascaris lumbricoides* is not less than from 6 inches to nearly a foot in length, of a whitish colour, shining, and somewhat hard and rigid in its structure.

ASCEND. *Ascendo*, from *ad*, and *secundo*, (of uncertain etymology) to go up to. In *Wiclif*, To stigh up. To go, come, move upwards, to climb, to mount, to rise, to become higher, more elevated, superior.

By nature he knew eche *ascensions*
Of the equinoctial in thilke soon;
For whan degrees lifene were *ascended*,
Than crew he, that it might not ben amended.
Chaucer. The Nonnes Preestes Tale, vol. ii. p. 176.

Envy and vanity Dido built tway
To invest grathin in hunting furth to wend,
To marrowr als fast as Titan dale *ascend*,
And outh the world gon his beuses aped.
Douglas's Eneidos, book iv. p. 104.

Ascens oow, and wretched Dido che
To the forest a hunting maide to wende
To marrowr, as soon as Titan shall *ascend*,
And with his beames hath overspied the world.

Surrey.

He kept his patient a ful gret del
In hours by his myrke naturel.
Wel coude he fortuneth the *ascendent*
Of his limges for his patient.

Chaucer. The Prologue, vol. i. p. 18.

He loketh the conjunctions,
He loketh the recepciones,
His signes, his house's, his *ascendant*,
And draweth fortune of his *ascend*.

Gower. Con. Am. book vi.

I made a sermoun of alle thingis that Ihesus bigan to do and to teche into the dai of his *ascensions*, in which he commendide bi the hosti goost to hies apostles whiche he hadde chosen.

Wiclif. Trilog. of Apocals. ch. i.

He commanded his brother, L. Maslin, from the south-west to get up the hill, as the place would permit with safetie, giving him in charge that if he met with any dangerous places, steep and hard of *ascend*, that he should not wrestle with the difficulties of the ground, nor strive against things, which to force and overcome were impossible.

Holland's Lory.

The stairs were then let down, whether to dare
The scind by *erie ascend*, or *aggrate*
His end exclusion from the doors of bliss.

Milton's Par. Lost, book iii.

On the morrow being the third dai of January, and Saturday, in a fayre playne on black beth, more werr the foots of shotters hyl then the *ascendent* of the hyl called black beth hyl, was pitched a riche cloth of gold.

Hall. Henry the VIII.

Here's a prophet that I brought with me
From forth the streets of Fomfret, whom I found
With many hundreds trading on his heeles:
To whom he sung in rude harsh sounding rimes,
That ere the next *ascension* day at noon,
Your Highness should deliver up your crowne.

Shakespeare's King John, fol. 15.

He hath deserved worthily of his country, and his *ascend* is set by such rare degrees as those, who having borne ample and courteous to the people.

Shakespeare's Coriolanus, fol. 10.

ASCEND. The cartilaginous kind, (of fishes) which, by what artifice they pierce themselves, ascend and descend at pleasure, and continue in what depth of water, they list, is as yet unknown to us.
—
ASCENSION. *Ray on the Creation.*

So likewise in the year we observe the cold to augment, when the days begin to increase, though the sun be then ascending, and returning from the winter tropic.

Brown's Fulger Errors.

Sweet voices, mixed with instrumental sounds
Ascend the vaulted roof, the vaulted roof rebounds.

Dryden's Fables.

Arcturast. Madam, you have a strange ascend gaid,
You see me like a counter, spurr'd and rein'd;
If I fly out, my ferrency you command,
Then too, and gently stroke me with your hand.
Dryden's Juvencus Zeke.

Who can observe the vapours to ascend, especially from the sea, meet above in clouds, and fall again after condensation, and not understand this to be a kind of distillation in order to clear the water of its grosser salts, and then by rains and dew to supply the fountains and rivers with fresh and wholesome liquor.
Williston's Religion of Nature.

This (Land, Bishop of London) was the man who acquired so great an ascend over Charles, and who led him, by the facility of his temper, into a conduct which proved so fatal to himself and to his kingdom.
Hume's History of England.

In the first fire-engines, a boy was constantly employed to open and shut alternately the communication between the boiler and the cylinder, according as the piston either ascended or descended.
Smith's Wealth of Nations.

That predominant love of righteousness and hatred of iniquity, maintaining an absolute ascendancy in the mind, at all times and upon all occasions, which the Fanatic attributes to his heavenly King, has belonged to none that ever wore an earthly crown.
Horsley's Sermons.

— Fire fill'd his eyes;
Turning, he bade the multitude without
Ascend the rampart; they his voice obey'd,
Part climb'd the wall, part pour'd into the gate.
Corneil's Rodo, book xii.

Themistocles now entered. At his look
Which carry'd strange ascendancy, a spell
Controlling nature, was the proud abash'd.
Clarendon's Athenian, book xiv.

The Acts of the Apostles continue the history of our religion after our Lord's ascension. *Porter's Lectures, v. 1.*

ASCENDANT, is that portion of the heavens which ascends above the horizon in the east. In astrology it signifies the horoscope, that is, the star ascending above the horizon at the time the question is put, or the person is born; and in the latter case it is supposed to have an influence on his character and destiny. From this arises the signification which the word bears in a moral sense, as such a one has the ascendancy over another, meaning that he possesses a certain superiority, from some cause not to be defied. Ascendant is also used in genealogical inquiries, denoting ancestors, those ascending, in contradistinction to the descending line.

ASCENDING, is used in anatomy, astronomy, botany, and music; all which see. In the first it is applied to the vessels which carry the blood upwards. In the second, to those stars, or degrees, rising above the horizon, in any parallel of the equator. In botany it denotes such leaves, &c. as grow first horizontally and afterwards are inclined upwards: and ascending harmony in music is modulating by thirds.

ASCENDING, in astronomy is right and oblique. Right ascension of the sun, or a star, is that degree of the equinoctial, counted from the beginning of Aries, which rises with the sun, or star, in a right

sphere. Oblique, is an arc of the equator intercepted between the first point of aries, and that point of the equator which rises together with a star in an oblique sphere.

ASCENSION DAY, commonly called Holy Thursday. A festival of the church of England in commemoration of the day on which our Saviour ascended into Heaven. It is the fortieth day after Easter Sunday, and the Sunday but one before Whitsunday. On this day (says Wheatley) our blessed Saviour publicly ascended, with our human nature, into heaven, and presented it to God, who placed it at his own right hand, and, by the reception of those first fruits, sanctified the whole race of mankind.

ASCENSIONAL DIFFERENCE, is the difference between the right and oblique ascension of any point in the heavens; or it is the space of time any of the planets rise or set before or after the sixth hour, from the time of their coming to the meridian. See ASTRONOMY.

ASCENSION, Isle of. An island between Africa and Brazil, so called from having been discovered on Holy Thursday, in the year 1508. It is about ten miles in length, six in breadth, and sixty in circumference, mountainous, sandy and barren. From the quantity of ashes and heaps of black cavernous stone, which resembles the common lavas of Vesuvius and Iceland, there can be no doubt of its being volcanic. "It is a barren place (says captain Beekman, who visited it in 1715) not inhabited, and seems as if it had been formerly on fire, a great part of the rocks being burnt to a pumice." Captain Cooke touched there in 1775. He says out a shrub or plant is to be seen for several miles, and nothing to be found but stones and sand, or rather slugs and ashes. A high mountain at the south-east end of the isle, called the Green Mountain, seems to be left in its original state, and to have escaped the general destruction. Its soil is a kind of white marl, which yet retains its vegetative qualities, and produces a kind of paraisio, spurge, and one or two grasses, a supply, however scanty, which is sufficient to provide for a considerable number of goats. The island is chiefly valuable on account of an excellent harbour, which is much frequented by the homeward bound ships from India, who take in turtle and sea-fowl. These are found in great abundance, particularly the former, which are peculiarly large and fine, and to be taken from January to June, when they come thither for the sole purpose of depositing their eggs. See Beekman's *Voyage to Bornoe*, 8vo. London, 1718, p. 200. Cooke's *Voyage round the World*, 4to. 1777, p. 273.

ASCERTAIN, } Fr. *ascertainer*; from *ad*, and
ASCERTAINMENT, } *certum*, from *cerno*, *cernere*; from the Greek *κρνω*, to separate, to distinguish, to decide. To be or make sure or certain; to be or make surely or certainly know; to determine, to establish.

My hands to heaven I hold, and pray'd, and gifts and off'rings
pure,
In fees to them I threw; and all my duty done with care,
And thus I ascertain them, and bless declare the case.
Kneller, by Theo. Pharr, book iii.

In which time, and some after, whereof the time is not duly
ascertained, dyed the forerunner kypse Lowry married night
doyner, when he had repyned, after moost weyners, vill yetes,

ASCEN-
SION.
—
ASCER-
TAIN.

ASCE- lewyge after him a son, named Charlys. the whike after, was
TAIN- turnamed symole. *Fabyan.*

Necessary it is that both good and badde knew it. The faithful to be assured that their final redemption is at hande, to their consolation. The faithfull to have knowledge that their judgement is not farre off, that they may repent and be saved.

Blake's Image.

As soon as men cease to range the woods and plains in common, like their fellow animals, if they ever did so, as soon as societies were formed, and in those societies a division of property was made, nature, that led them to assign, led them to ascertain possessions.

Bolingbroke's Essay on Human Knowledge.

Fools only engage on a sudden, without ascertaining the strength of their enemy.

Sir William Jones' Hicopodion.

He tells us, that the positive ascertainment of its limits, and its security from invasion, were among the causes for which civil society itself has been instituted.

Burke on the Revolution in France.

To what common use or want of the insect kind, a provision so universal (i. e. the antennæ) is subservient, has not yet been ascertained; and it has not been ascertained, because it admits not of a clear, or very probable comparison, with any organs which we possess ourselves, or with the organs of animals which resemble ourselves, in their functions and faculties, or with which we are better acquainted than we are with insects. We want a ground of analogy.

Foley's Theology.

ASCETERIUM, a name sometimes given in old writings to a monastery. The college of the funeral, or undertakers, founded by the emperor Anastasius, was so called. This consisted of eight monks and three acolythists, whose occupation was one of most active employment, namely that of continually burying the dead.

ASCETICK, *n.* } *Ascetikos*, from *ascia*, to ex-
ASCETICK, *adj.* } ercise. It is applied by the Greek
ASCETISM. } fathers to those who exercise
themselves in, who employ themselves in, who
devote themselves to the contemplation of divine things
and for that purpose, separate themselves from all
intercourse with the world.

Anthony de Corro, was born at Sevil in Spain, educated there from his childhood in the Roman Catholic religion, and was at length an ascetic, but whether a monk or friar, I know not.

Wood. *Athenae* *Chroniclers*.

Our calling therefore doth require great industry; and the business of it consequently is well represented by those performances, which demand the greatest intention, and laborious activity: It is styled exercise; agonistic and æsthetic; exercise.

Barrow's Sermons

He (Bishop Burnet) resolved to live in a more retired manner, than he had done hitherto; and abstracting himself from all mixt company, confining himself wholly to study and the duties of his function, he entered into such an *austere* course, as had well nigh put an end to his life.

The Life of Bishop Doane.

The *Ascetics*, who obeyed the absurd and rigid precepts of the gospel, were inspired by the savage enthusiasm, which represents man as a criminal, and God as a tyrant. They sectionally renounced the business and the pleasures of the age; abjured the use of wine, of flesh, and of marriage; chastised their body, mortified their affections, and embraced a life of misery, as the price of eternal happiness.

The truth is, we have seen, and yet do see, religious societies, whose religious doctrines are so little serviceable to civil government, that they can prosper only on the ruin and destruction of it. Such are those which teach the sanctity of celibacy and abstemiousness.

Ascaric. the term was originally applied to a series

that appeared about the second century, and made professions of uncommon sanctity and virtue, which they supposed to consist in self-denial and mortification. They considered it an act of great merit to deny themselves the use of those things which were esteemed lawful for all other Christians. To enjoy, and hold it as an indispensable duty to undergo continual abstinence, and to subject themselves to the most severe discipline. Their object was, by raising the soul above all external objects and all sensual pleasures, to enjoy a nearer communion with God on earth, and after the dissolution of their mortal bodies, to ascend to the supreme centre of happiness and perfection, unretarded by the impurities and imperfections which debase mankind in general. (Moshem Eccl. Hist. cent. ii. part 2.) The appellation was also given to those who were more than ordinarily intent on the exercises of prayer and devotion, and hence St. Cyril, of Jerusalem, calls the prophetess Anna, "who departed not from the temple, but served God night and day," *ἀσκήτων ἡλικήριον*, "a most religious ascetic." In the present day, by *Ascetics* we understand those who retire from the conversation and pleasures of the world, and pass their time in religious mortification, although in the primitive ages such as pretended to this title were men of active life, living in society, and differing from the rest of mankind only in their exact adherence to the rules of virtue and forbearance inculcated in the gospel.

ASCHARIANS, *v.* ASHARIANS.

ASCHBILJA. r. Sevilla.

ASCIDIA, in Zoology, a genus of the class Tunicata; order Dasytaria. Generic character; body enveloped in a double tunic; fixed to marine bodies at the base. Exterior tunic somewhat coriaceous, forming an irregular ovate, or cylindrical sac, perforated above by two unequal foramina, one lower than the other. The interior, or proper, tunic, enclosing the body, not entirely filling the external sac, to which it is united only at the foramina.

The animals of this group were by Lamarck considered as analogous to those inhabiting bivalve shells, and have by subsequent naturalists been generally arranged with the mollusca. Cuvier appears to have supported this opinion; and in order more completely to demonstrate the analogy, compares the external tunic with the shell of the acéphalous mollusca. But there surely can be no real analogy between substances so essentially distinct: the one an unorganised testaceous covering, serving only the purposes of protection and muscular attachment; the other presenting all the indications of a truly organised structure, and appearing, as Lamarck observes, even vascular, on its internal surface. The comparative anatomy of the animals is not less distinct, when followed out, into a more detailed investigation. Lamarck has, therefore, very properly arranged them in separate classes. The species of *Ascidia* are rather numerous, and several of them are natives of the shores of Great Britain.¹

ASCITEÆ, a piratical tribe, on the southern coast of Arabia. Their vessels were rafts, fixed on inflated skins, (whence their name from *ascos* a bladder); their arms, poisoned arrows; their food, the berries of the pale urus (a species of zizyphus); they were naked, ferocious virates. The Arabian geographers observed

ASCITE.
—
ASCRIBE.

that their language differed from that of their neighbours; for there can be little doubt that the pirates on the borders of Mahrah and Hadramaut, mentioned by Idrisi and Abd' l Feid, were the Ascites of Ptolemy. See his *Geography*, Pliny, vi. 29. *Abulfeda Arab. et Geogr. Nabuc.* p. 92, 97. *Vincent's Periplos*, ii. 313.

ASCITES, from *ascos*, a water-bottle, in medicine, dropsy of the belly; so called, because the protuberance of the belly resembles that of a bottle. It is divided into two species, *ascites abdominalis*, when there is a regular and equal intumescence of the abdomen; and *ascites sacculus*, when the ovaries, &c. are the seat of the disease, and the swelling, at least in the beginning, is partial. The cure is difficult, since the disease is often only the symptom of a decaying constitution; evacuations are the chief palliatives, and paracentesis (*exsuscationes*, to perforate,) or tapping, relieves for a time, and, in some cases, permanently. For particulars of this disease, see *MEDICINA*.

ASCITITIOUS. See *ASCITICUS*.

ASCLEPIA, a festival of Æsculapius, the god of physic. It was observed particularly at Epidaurus, where it was celebrated by a contest between the poets and musicians; whence it was termed *lepis æscyr*, the sacred contention.

ASCLEPIAD, a verse, consisting of a spondee, two choriambi, and a pyrrichius, used by the Greek and Latin poets, and said to have been so called, from Asclepiades, an ancient poet. Horace, book i. ode 1, book iii. ode 30, and book iv. ode 8, are written in this measure.

ASCLEPIAS, in *Botany*, a genus of plants; class *Pentandria*; order *Digynia*. Generic character; nectaries five, ovate, concave, standing out from a horn-like process. Folioles masses ten, pediculous.

English name, swallow-wort. This is principally an American genus.

ASCOTTE, in the county of Oxford; a curacy, (not in charge) of the certified value of £18. 6s. 8d.; dedicated to the Holy Trinity. Population in 1811, 392. Rates in 1803, £381. 13s. 6d. at 8s. in the pound. It is 5½ miles N. E. by N. from Banford.

ASCRIBE, } Ad and scribo, to write to;
ASCRIBABLE, } (Plane SCRIBO est, a *specifice*.
ASCRPTION, } (Vossius.) *Inculpendo literas*; by
ASCRPTION, } carving, cutting, gravings letters,
&c. See *To write*.

To write to, to write in addition, to write or place to the account of, to charge against, to impute, to attribute.

O ye traitours & maintainers of madness
Unto your folly I ascribe all my pains;
Ye have me deprived of joy and gladness,
So dealing with my lord and sovereign.

Chaucer. *Lamentation of Marie Magdalene*, fol. 319, c. 4.

But now they be so far from this separation, that they ascribe themselves into their fellowship and communion, & do charge one of the felonly profess themselves to be members of that body.

Cicero.

If any malignities therefore be in vs, let vs not ascribe it unto God, but unto our own selves: and if any good thing, if any true light, if any unfeigned wisdom be in vs, let vs ascribe it wholly unto God the author. *Urbis. S. James*, c. 1.

Thus then is Britanny burthened with many titles under one truth; and these are the ascriptions, causes, and exceptions, as far as we are able to gather.

Speed's *Hist. of Great Brittain*.

Hereupon the Athenians do ascribe that day for a most unfortunate day, and are very circumspect to do any matter of importance on it. *North's Plutarch*.

The greater part have been forward to reject it, upon a mistaken persuasion, that those phenomena are the effects of nature's adhesion of a vacuum, which seem to be more fully ascribable to the weight and spring of the air.

I do not hereby ascribe any thing to the magistrate that can possibly give him any pretence of right to reject God's true religion, or to declare what he pleases to be so, and what books he pleases to be canonical, and the word of God.

Tillotson's *Sermons*.

Ascribe, then nation, every favour'd tribe,
Excelling gratitude to the Lord ascribe;
The Lord! the rock on whom we safely trust,
Whose work is perfect, and whose ways are just.

Parrell. *The Gift of Poetry*.

Such pow'r have they as factious lawyers long
To crown ascrib'd, that kings can do no wrong.

Dryden's *Hind and Panther*.

To industrious study is to ascribe the invention and perfection of all those arts whereby human life is civilised, and the world cultivated with numberless accommodations, ornaments, and beauties.

Behold, Sir Balaam, now a man of spirit,
Ascribes his gettings to his parts and merit;
What late he call'd a blessing, now was wit,
And God's good providence, a lucky hit.

Pope. *Moral Essays*, ec. iii.

These extraordinary convulsions of the material world must be ascribed to the power by which God in the beginning created it, and still directs the course of it.

Hersley's *Sermons*.

ASCRIBE, A and skry, for cry, from Teut. *schreyen*, Skinner. Ger. *schreien*, to cry out, to vociferate. The French, more correctly, use *crier*; and the English, to *crie*. Wachter. *Schreien, exclamatio*, a crying out, a shrieking. Somner. Skry is of common occurrence in G. Douglas; and the Glossarist observes, that it is frequently used on the Scotch border for cry; as to skry a fair; that is, to proclaim it. Skry still exists in the compound *descri*, the French *descrier*, *descrier*, is rather applied as the English *descri*.

Je l'ing said on his, "Symon les vous defie;
Edward was hardie, je Londres gan he ascrie."

R. Branne, c. 217.

And taught him how they shuld ascribe,
All in a voice pur companie.

Guonar. *Can. A. book vii*.

Some of the French men came to Calice gate, and were ascried of the watche, and so rang alarme.

Grafton, vol. ii.

By day all the bridges were made, so that all the horsemen passed over, and ascried the country.

Id. ib.

Ruane toward Oxenford went folle shortly,
& in jist ilk town did he asrie a brie.

R. Branne, c. 42.

In the morning a certene number of gentlemen that were within the towne issued out to the number of two hundred persons, to make a sarge in the Scotches hoste.

Grafton, v. l.

ASCYRUM, in *Botany*, a genus of plants; class *Poladelphie*; order *Polypetidia*. Generic character; calyx of four leaves; petals four. Capsule of one cell, two or three valved.

English name St. Andrew's wort; an American genus, very nearly allied to *Hypericum*, or St. John's Wort.

ASEKI, a corruption of the Turkish word *khâs'-sehki*, or *khâsaki*, peculiar, privy, and applied exclusively to the most confidential servants of the

ASCRIBE.
—
ASEKI.

ASELLUS, vulturn; hence his favourite wife is called the *khás-sakl sultán*, the *sultane par excellence*.

ASELLUS, in *Zoology*, a genus of the class *Arachnides*; order *Tetracera*; family *Asellota* of Latreille. Generic character; tail formed of a single segment, with two bifid styles; the four antennae setaceous, apex of many articulations.

Asellus aquaticus, (*oniscus aquaticus*, Lin.) inhabits fresh water, and is considered as a sign of its purity. The female carries the young in a bag under the belly.

ASELE, or Aschele-Lapmark, a province of Swedish Lapland, bounded on the north west by Norway, on the east by the Lapmark of Umea, on the south by Angermannland, and on the south west by Jamtland. Long. 17° 0' lat. 64° 19' N. It was first colonized in 1673, when Charles XI. exempted from the militia, the poll-tax, and other burdens, all who would settle there; and these privileges were confirmed by the states of the kingdom, at the diet, 1720. The parish of Ascle measures about nine Swedish miles, and is chiefly inhabited by Swedish peasants, whose subsistence is derived from a few cattle and the produce of their nets, a resource which seldom fails. The inhabitants are large, laborious, active, and hospitable towards strangers. In consequence of frequent scarcities, and the high price of corn, they substitute the bark of the fir-tree, dried and moulded, from which they make a species of bread, when barley (which is their chief grain) is not to be procured; and even in times of greater plenty they mix it with their flour, but to preserve the custom, and to keep themselves free from disorders accompanying a sudden change of diet. There is one church in Ascle built under the reign of Christina, in 1643, for the conversion of the Lappish; service is performed once in fifteen days to a very small congregation, occasioned by the distance of their residences; and there is a government school for the education of six children. Ascle is troubled, during the summer with a species of goat, called *knort*, from which the people protect themselves by anointing the face with a mixture of fat and tar, as well as by burning pieces of a knotty tree in their houses, every night, which destroys the insect.

ASEFUN, a town on the western bank of the Nile, called Aphunias in the *Notit. Imperii*, and built on the site of Aphroditis-polis. (D'Anville; Hartmann.)

ASEFOLDBY, in the county of Leicester; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £15. 11s. 8d. Church dedicated to All Saints. Population in 1811, 367. Parish rates in 1803, £387. 19s. 11½d. at 6d. in the pound. It is 3½ miles W. from Melton Mowbray.

ASGARBY, in the county of Lincoln; a rectory, (uniting in 1737 to the rectory of Kirkby Lathorpe,) valued in the King's books at £10. 14s. 4½d. Patron, the earl of Bristol; church dedicated to St. Andrew. Population, in 1811, 59. Parish rates in 1803, £25. 0s. 14½d. at 10d. in the pound. It is 9½ miles S. E. by E. from Stamford.

ARGARBY, in the county of Lincoln; a prebend, valued in the King's books at £12. 10s. Patron, the bishop of Lincoln. Population, in 1811, 49. Parish rates in 1803, £65. 16s. 8d. at 3s. 3½d. in the pound. It is 5½ miles W. by N. from Spilsby.

ASH, n.

ASH, v.

A'SH, v.

A'SH-TUB, v.

A'SH-Y-PALN.

Ascen, pulvis, asce, cinis. Dust, ashes. Applied to dust produced by burning any substance.

ASH.

Philip left his engines without keeping a sight, but perceived by Sarazines, with fire burnt from down right. For he com on to morrow, want he wild had given. His engine fond he borne, broast & kille ashes dryen.

R. Browne, p. 176.

O no could aeto of Troy, and flambie bayth,
And extreme end of eustre folkis, here I
Draws you to witness, and dois testify,
I feel no stroke of any Greekish sword,
I asche sparit wappages, streich our pare,
Nor name onset eschewit of Grekis myrit.

Douglas. *Æneidos*, book ii. p. 53.

Ye Troyen ashes, and last flames of mine,
I cal in witness, that at your lost fall,
I feel no stroke of any Greekish sword.

Surrey.

Tho came this woful Theban Palamon
With botery herd, and ruggy asche heren,
In clothes blake, dryopped all with teares.

Chaucer. *The Knights Tale*, v. l. p. 114.

For when we may not doe, than wol we speken,
Yet in our asche cold is few yekes.

Chaucer. *The Roves Proluge*, v. l. p. 153.

Er's in our asche live their wosted fire.

Grey's *Elegy*.

Still she entreates, and prettily intreates,
For to a pretty ear she tunes her tale;
Still is he silent, still he low'r and frets,
Twist crimson shame and anger only pair.

Shakespeare's *Venus and Adonis*.

His ashy coat that bore a gloss so fair,
So often kin'd of the enamour'd air,
Wore all to rags, and fretted so with rust,
That with his feet he trod it in the dust.

Dryden's *Forme*. *The Owl*.

Forsooke next him place'd a managor night,
Whose leaden eyes sunk deep in swimming lead;
And joyless look, like some pale ashy upright,
Seem'd as he now were dying, or now dead.

F. Fletcher's *Purple Island*.

—But as when

The bird of wonder dies, the mayden phoenix,
Her ashes new create another byre,
As great in admiration as her selfe
So shall she leave her blessedness to one,
(When Hennes shall call her from this cloud of darkness)
Who from the sacred ashes of her honour
Shall star-like rise, as great in fame as she was,
And so stand fix'd.

Shakespeare's *K. Henry VIII.* fol. 232.

If the said (Turkish) ambassador were here among us, he would think that our modern gallants were also all mud, or subject to be mad, because they aske and powder their pericraniums all the year long.

Henslet's *Letters*.

—They fondly thinking to ally
Their appetite with gust, instead of fruit
Chew'd bitter ashe, which th' ascended taste
With spattering noise rejected.

Milton's *Par. Lost*, book x.

The third day had from heaven night's chalybe shade expell'd
away.

When housewife the ashe heapes which thence confound'd lay
In vnaul pottes they put; and mouldering mould thenceon do
fling.

Phar's *Æneidos*, book xi.

Now had the morning thine reuenc'd the light,
And thrice dispell'd the shadows of the night;
When those who round the watchtowers remain'd,
Perform the last sad office to the slain;
They rake the yet warm ashes, from below;
These and the bones unburied, in earth bestow,
These relate with their country rites the place;
And raise a monument of turf to mark the place.

Dryden's *Virgil's Æn.* xl. fol. 597.

ASH.

A sudden horror shot thro' all the chief,
And wrapt his senses in the cloud of grief;
Cast on the ground, with furious hands that spread
The scorching ashes o'er his graceful head;
His purple garments and his golden hairs,
Those he deforms with dust, and those he tears;
On the hard soil his grinning breast he threw,
And roll'd and grovel'd, as to earth he grew.

Pope's Iliad, book xviii. p. 237.

The clouds of sorrow fell on Peleus' son,
And grasping with both hands the ashes, down
He pour'd them on his head, his graceful brows
Disheveling, and thick the sooty show'r
Descending settled on his fragrant tress,
Thou stretched in ashes, at the vast extent
Of his whole length he lay, drench'd ring wild
With his own hands, and smiting off his hair.

Cooper's Iliad.

ASH, } Of uncertain etymology. Skinner
ASHEN, } suggests the Greek *asw*, to burn.—
Wachter, the Greek *asw*, to be strong.

There saw I eke the fresh bathhouse
In white stutley, that so sweet doth smell
Asher, fern, and oke, with many a young acorns
And many a tree now I can tell.

Chaucer. The complaint of the Blache Knight, fol. 271. c. 1.

The his echis soundis there and here,
For dynys rule of the schary stellis as.

Douglas' Enchiridion, book xi. p. 365.

And here with stroke of mighty axe the brittle ash doth sound.
Arden, by Thomas Tryon.

Now the tough ash the sounding arm ply. *Pitt.*

—He fell,
As when an ash on some hill top (it self too wond'rous well)
The steels hews down, and he presents his young leaves to the
spoyle:

So fell he, and his faire arms grow'd.
Chapman's Homer's Iliad, book xii.

As from some far-seen mountain's airy crown,
Subtil'd by steel a tall ash tumbles down,
And rolls his verdant tresses on the ground;
So falls the youth; his arms the fall resound.

Pope's Iliad.

—He fell, as falls the ash,
Which on some mountain visible afar,
Hears from its bottom by the woodman's axe,
With all its tender foliage meets the ground.
So labrous fell; loud rang his armour bright
With ornamental brass.

Cooper's Iliad.

Then exercise thy sturdy steers to plough
Betwixt thy vines, and teach thy feeble row
To mount on reeds, and wade, and upward led,
On ashes point to raise their lucky head.

Dryden's Virgil's Georg. II.

ASH TREE. See FRAXINUS.

ASH, in the county of Kent, a chapel of the certified value of £70; patron, the archbishop of Canterbury; chapel dedicated to St. Nicholas. Population, in 1811, 1635. Parish rates, in 1803, £1585. 6s. 7d. at 2s. in the pound. It is 2 miles east by north, about 3 miles from Sandwich, on the north side of the high road to Canterbury, many antiquaries have been dug up, from a spot supposed to have been a Roman burial place. A particular account of them will be found in Boy's Sandwich, 868-9. Some are engraved in the *Noria Britannica*; and Gough has given others in his *Camden*, l. 203.

ASH, in the county of Southampton, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £9. 11s. 5d. Church dedicated to the Holy Trinity. Population, in 1801,

95. Parish rates, in 1803, £254. 8s. 6d. at 5s. in the pound. It is 3½ miles E. N. E. from Whitechurch.

ASH, in the county of Surrey; a rectory, with the chapel of Trimley, valued in the King's books at £15. 18s. 11d.; patron, Winchester College. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population, in 1811, 553. Parish rates, in 1803, £579. 18s. at 12s. in the pound. It is 5½ miles, N. E. by E. from Farnham.

ASH-BECKING, in the county of Suffolk; a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £9. 18s. 6d.; patron, the King. Church dedicated to All Saints. Population, in 1811, 237. Parish rates, in 1803, £114. 12s. 3d. at 2s. 9d. in the pound. It is 2½ miles, east by south from Needham.

ASH, NORTH, in the county of Kent; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £9. 18s. 4d. Church dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul. Population, in 1811, 500. Parish rates, in 1803, £367. 16s. at 4s. 6d. in the pound. It is 3½ miles, north by west, from Wrotham.

ASH, PRIORS, in the county of Somerset. Population, in 1811, 155. Parish rates, in 1803, £37. 8s. 3d. at 2s. 6d. in the pound. It is 6 miles, north-west by west, from Taunton. This small church is a curacy in the deanery of Taunton, valued in 1295 at twenty shillings.

ASH WEDNESDAY, a solemn fast kept by the Christian church on the first day of Lent. It was anciently called the head of Lent, and was a season of extraordinary humiliation. Penitents had ashes sprinkled upon their heads and stood clothed in sackcloth, according to the rite mentioned, *Isaiah*, lviii. 5. In the Reformed Church the office of Communion, which is always read in the course of the service of this day, has been substituted in the room of this open penance.

ASH-WEED, in *Botany*, an English name for the *Agopodium Podagraria*, or Goot-weed.

ASHAME, } The word exists in all the northern
ASHAMEN, } dialects, and is interpreted by the
various Lexicographers, *Erubescere*—and perhaps the
meaning of the word may be to blush, to redden. It
is now applied to the feeling which occasions the
blush.

In Luke xvi. 3. *Erubescit apocryphus*, *Mendicare erubescit*. Gothic, *Bidyan Shama Mic*. Saxon, *Sca-meth* that is waddlige. Wicliif, I schame to beg. See SHAME.

He lier was an ashamed þa, and in weþe he þe rode
To his oþer doctre, þe quene of Carnewell, he can wonder,
And þatwende of þe vichyng dede of þy doger Gormecle,
And wende þe amendeþen to hal þe alur ys come wille.

R. Glouceter, p. 32.

Now then when all false folke be ashamed, which wene all
bestialitie and yearlyly thing, be sweeter and better to the bodie
then heavenly in the soule: this is the grace and the fruit that
I long have desired; it doth me good the way to merit.

Chaucer. Treatise of Love, book iii. fol. 218. c. 1.

Erubescere se not, *Phriscania*, that twyle tak is,

To be inclosed myde our field of ashis—

Schame se not to proude your limbe, said he?

Douglas' Enchiridion, book ix. p. 298.

And whanne he smide these thingis alle his alchurneries werre
ashamed; and al the people joyde in alle thingis: that wene glo-
riously don of him. *Wicliif. Ioh. c. xiii.*

An when he thus sayde, all his alchurneries were ashamed, and
all the people rejoyced on all the excellent dedes, that were done
by him. *Bible*, 1539.

ASH.
ASHAME.

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Peer not: for thou shalt not be ashamed, neither shalt thou be confounded: for thou shalt not be put to shame; nor thou shalt forget the shame of thy youth, and shalt not remember the reproche of thy widowhood aile more.

Green Bible. Polish. c. 17.

Then [qd. ie.] even this that you have said here, and make such game of, I caught with a stride, riding confidently as I did, and never from horseback did nor night; and no more ashamed I am and displeased with my self for that infirmity, than for these slanders which you have seen.

Holland's Liby.

Exceeding wrath was given at that blow,
And much ashamed 'd, that stroke of living arms
Should him dismay, and make him stoop so low,
Though otherwise it did him little harm.

Spencer's Færie Queene, book ii. c. v. s. 7.

If we would fairly compare the necessity of things, and wisely weigh the concernsments of this life and the other, in a just and equal balance, we should be ashamed to misplace our diligence and industry as we do.

Tillotson's Sermon.

— Since, I say, there be such excellent uses and fruits of the cross born by our Saviour, we can have no reason to be offended at it or ashamed of it; but such reason heartily should approve and humbly adore the deep wisdom of God, together with all other his glorious attributes displayed therein.

Berrow's Sermon.

Some men seem to be ashamed of those things which would be their glory, whilst others glory in their shame.

Mason on Self-Knowledge.

The modest speaker is ashamed and grieved
To engross a countenance's notice, and yet begs,
Begs a propitious ear for his poor thoughts
However trivial all that he conceives.

Cooper's Task.

ASHANTEE, or, as it is written by the earlier writers, ASHANTZ, is a large and powerful negro state, at the back of the Gold Coast, which has been rapidly augmented by the courage and enterprise of its sovereigns, and now exercises a paramount authority over a great extent of country. A war with the Fantis, their neighbours on the coast, which took place in 1806, terminated in the entire subjection of the latter, and brought them in contact with the servants of the African company, occupying Cape Coast Castle, and some of the other forts to the east of it. In consequence of a misunderstanding between the chief of that factory and the king of Ashantee, an embassy was sent to his court, at Kumasi, in 1817, and Mr. Bowdich, who attended the mission, published an account of his journey on his return: and has given much information respecting this and the neighbouring negro states.

The extent of this kingdom it seems difficult to estimate; but as it has subdued several of its neighbours, Akim, Assin, Dinkari, &c. and, since Mr. Bowdich left the country, Gaman, the capital of which he places at 110 miles N.W. of Kumasi, it must be very considerable. The northern boundary, according to him, is the river Kumbi, called by the Arabs Zamma, at the distance of 19 days' journey, north-west of Kumasi, and Kumasi itself he places in lat. 6° 35' north, and 2° 11' west, estimating it at about 100 miles from the coast: so that the distance from the sea in the northern frontier can hardly be less than 250 miles; and the breadth from Rio de Volta to the Accra is about 170: which gives no inconsiderable area for a negro state. The population, if Mr. Bowdich was not misinformed, amounts to about a million, and the king could bring 300,000 men into the field. His power, though liable to some check from the authority and influence of his chiefs, and the pre-

judices and superstitions to which savages are always enslaved, is highly despotic; and the indifference with which the lives of his subjects are sacrificed to his caprices, is such as is scarcely conceivable. Neither he, nor any of his family, can be put to death except by being drowned, in order that royal blood may not be shed. He inherits all the gold in his dominions; and whatever is accidentally found is his perquisite; hence if his subjects pick up any in the street, they are punished with death, as guilty of lese-majesty. These wise laws, however, they find means to evade by not turning informers, and dispersing their gold among their relations before their decease, instead of leaving it for his majesty to inherit. The monarch has no less than 3333 wives: a mystic number on which the salvation of the state is supposed to depend; but he is not bound to indulge them all with his company, and six only enjoyed that privilege when the British mission was at his capital. The rest were well secured and guarded: a precaution by no means superfluous in Ashantee, where the manners of the women are highly licentious. Owing to this cause, probably, the throne passes to the sister's son, as property does among the Nays on the coast of Malabar; and those fortunate dames, the king's sisters, are allowed to make choice of their spouses—never failing, as Mr. Bowdich was told, to show their taste by the personal charms of the hero whom they prefer. The wantonness with which the blood of the multitude is shed by their despotic master has been already noticed; but it is at his funeral that the horrors of this merciless system are fully developed. All the members of the royal family burst forth, as if they were mad, and fire promiscuously amongst the crowd of unhappy slaves who are driven forth by the chiefs to furnish marks for their superiors to aim at. The king's household slaves, to the number of an hundred or more, and 'women in attendance,' are sacrificed upon his tomb. Besides this, all the funeral sacrifices made during his reign, are repeated, "to amplify that for the death of the monarch," as Mr. Bowdich expresses it; and what such an "amplification" must amount to, we may judge, when he tells us that 3,000 victims were devoted to "water the grave" of the present king's mother. Something like this, on a smaller scale, is practised, several times in the year, at their public festivals, (called "customs" in the barbarous dialect of the English traders on the coast of Africa,) and Mr. Bowdich witnessed the terror and consternation which the return of those fatal seasons occasioned. It is but justice to add that the members of a second mission to Kumasi saw much less of this extravagant barbarity: and as Mr. Bowdich has evidently a powerful imagination, and must have trusted a good deal to the reports of others, it is probable that he was unintentionally led into exaggeration. The king has no power over the lives of the chiefs (Cabeceras) but he can strip them of their property at his pleasure. The people appear to be in a state of wretched vassalage, exposed to all sorts of oppression and extortion from the great; and it is surprising to find them, under such dissuatives so alert and industrious as they are. Here, as in almost every part of Africa, arts and civilization improve as we recede from the coast. Pottery, weavers, painters, and dyers, are found in sufficient numbers at Kumasi; and the art of working in gold and silver

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is understood; but Degdinhah, a Mohammedan state, the capital of which, Yandi, is placed by Mr. Bowdich in lat. 8° 38' N. long. 55° E., at a distance of 200 miles to the north-east of Kumasi, is represented as far exceeding it in wealth and civilization. The capital, though far from regular, was better built and more populous than any negro town which he had before visited. Its permanent inhabitants are estimated at 15,000. The houses have strong mud walls, neatly plastered and ornamented with a sort of Arabesque, and they are besides well thatched with palm-leaves. Many of them are built round a court with open galleries, or verandas, in the Moorish fashion. It is from their mussulman visitors, probably, that they have learned the arts of dying and working in leather. As the appearance of the houses led them to expect; carpenters, tanners, and other mechanics, were found working at their trades with considerable skill; while other members of the community were employed in cultivating the soil. On what tenure lands are held, and by what laws property is secured, we are not told. It is probable that a larger proportion of the lower orders are in a state of slavery than our informants suspected.

A considerable trade is carried on with the coast and the interior; and the king seemed to treat the foreign merchants with respect. The numerals of twenty-six different languages were collected in the capital, which shows how extensive their intercourse with other nations must be. The most remarkable among the foreign traders were Mohammedans, of a tawny complexion, clad something in the way of Moors and called Mallows, or as we suppose *Mallows*, that is, natives of Malla, a town far to the north, and conjectured by Mr. Bowdich to be the *Ilmasu* of former writers. His conjecture is strengthened by this circumstance, that the language of this people is certainly the same as that of Kuth'nah and Gûbir, as appears on a comparison of his vocabulary with those of Setteen and Captain Lyon, as well as one collected from a native of Gûbir. (*Annals of Oriental Literature*, No. III.) Malla, or Marra, is probably a Mohammedan state, near to Kashnah, and the Mallawa are plainly the Malays of other writers on the Gold Coast. (Smith's *Guinea*, 135, 137.) That it is the Mâli of Ibn Batûta, and Melli of Leo Africanus can hardly be doubted, for the Barbarous pronunciation Mâ, mû, just as the Attie mû, was the Doric mû; but the people of Kashnah speak like the Egyptians; and therefore say Mâla, not Mûla.

The articles of trade in Ashantee are principally European goods and the produce of their soil: that is, its mineral productions, for agriculture seems to be at a low ebb among them. Gold they have in great abundance, but are quite ignorant of the art of mining; merely sinking pits, a few feet deep, into which they let themselves down by ropes, and send up such earth as they judge, from its weight, to contain gold. They have native iron also, but are very clumsy in their mode of fusing and working it. Yams and leguminous vegetables are the principal articles of their diet; Indian corn (*Zorghum vulgare*) seems to be a late introduction—the paste made from it is called *meesah*, a name greatly resembling the *fragana* of the people of Kashnah, and *dakka* of the Arabs. A species of Jerusalem artichoke, called *coco*, ground nuts, (*Ar-*

chis hypogæa) and cabbages, are in constant cultivation. They grow their own cotton, and spin as well as dye and weave it. They have all the common tropical fruits, and peculiarly large shaddocks. The *Jacédich*, or fat apple, the pulp of which somewhat resembles that of the alligator pear, (*Laurus persea*) seems to be peculiar to this country. Horses are rare, and horned cattle are not numerous: deer, and different kinds of beasts of prey, the elephant and rhinoceros, are met with. The latter is held in a sort of veneration and awe by the natives. They have common poultry and game in abundance.

Their songs and music are as barbarous as might be expected from so savage a race. Their language seems to be very inartificial in its structure, and is reported not to be jahannous. It is one of the many dialects of a widely extended tongue; of which eight different specimens are given by Mr. Bowdich, who has added a copious vocabulary of the Fanti and Ashante languages. It is to be lamented that he has not fixed any standard for the orthography of his words, so that the pronunciation of them can only be conjectured; yet in unwritten languages, it is by similarity of sound alone that their affinities can be determined. This defect in Mr. Bowdich's work may, however, be in a great measure remedied by having recourse to the grammar of this and the Akkra languages, entitled "*En nyttig grammatisk Indledning til lærde håndtild gaudie wiesandte sprogt, Finske og Aterisk (from Gold Coast) med Guinea, efter den Danske pronunciation og Udtale*. Kjöbenhavn, 1764," by Christian Potter, a native of the Danish Castle of Christiansburg, and the preceptor of the Mulattoes born there.

It appears, from this writer's account, as well as that of Bosman and Barbot, that it was at the close of the 17th century that the people of Ashantee became known to the Europeans, on the coast, as a tribe of any consequence. In 1741 they overcame the Akkims, who had previously made their way to the coast by the overthrow of the Akwumbus and people of Akra, and thus had obtained possession of that lucrative intercourse with white men which has contributed so much to augment their power. It was not, however, till they had reduced the Fantes in 1806, and more completely in 1811 and 1816, that they were in possession of the uncontrolled authority over the nations on the coast, which they now enjoy; and the conquest of Gaman and Bentukû, 100 miles to the north-west of Kumasi, abounding in gold, has so augmented their territory and resources since the period at which our countrymen visited their capital, that they may prove troublesome neighbours, if not overawed by the force stationed at Cape Coast, and its dependent forts. (See Bowdich's *Narrative to Ashantee*, Lond. 1819. Hutton's *ditto*, Lond. 1821. Robertson's *Notes on Africa*, Lond. 1819. Adelsung's *Mithridates*, iii. 187, 229. Römer's *Guinea*, p. 92. 122. 130, &c. Isert's *Guinea*, p. 286. 397.

ASHARIANS, a Mohammedan sect; followers of Abûl Hasan al Ashari, remarkable for their rigid adherence to the letter of the Koran, peculiar modifications of the doctrine of necessity, and firm persuasion of the final benediction of all true Moslems (See Pococke's *Spec. Hist. Arab.* p. 20-1. 925. Sale's *Koran*, *Proleg. Disc.* p. 165, 410. D'Herbelot *Biblioth. Orient.*)

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ASHBORNE, county of Derby; a discharged vicarage, with the rectory of Mappleton, valued in the King's books at £5. 4s. 7d. Patron, the dean of Lincoln. Church dedicated to St. Oswald. Population, in 1811, 3539. Parish rates, in 1803, £446. 17s. 1d. nt. 6d. in the pound. It is 13½ miles N. W. by W. from Derby, and 140 N. W. by N. from London.

ASHBRITTLE, in the county of Somerset; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £19. 3s. 11½d. Church dedicated to St. John Baptist. Population, in 1811, 508. Parish rates, in 1803, £323. 19s. 11½d. It is 5½ miles W. from Wellington.

ASHBURNHAM, in the county of Sussex, a vicarage, valued in the King's books at £8. 13s. 4d. Patron, the dean and chapter of Canterbury. Church dedicated to St. James. Population, in 1811, 572. Parish rates, in 1803, £734. 16s. at 8s. in the pound. It is 5½ miles west by south, from Battle. In the vestry of the church at Ashburnham are preserved the shirt in which Charles I. was beheaded, stained with a few drops of his blood, the watch which he gave on the scaffold to his faithful follower, John Ashburnham, Esq. his white silk drawers, and the sheet which was thrown over his body. They were bequeathed, in 1743, by a descendant of the above John Ashburnham, to the parish clerk and his successors ever, for public exhibition.

ASHBURTON, in the county of Devon; a vicarage, (with the chapels of Bickington, and Buckland, in the Moor,) valued in the King's books at £38. 8s. 11½d. Patron, the dean and chapter of Exeter. Church dedicated to St. Andrew. Population, in 1811, 3053. Parish rates, 1803, £1421. 11s. 7d. at 6s. in the pound. It is 20 miles, south-west, from Exeter, and 19½ miles W. S. W. from London. This town sends two members to Parliament. It is an ancient borough by prescription. This is one of the Stanbury Towns. Great quantities of serge are manufactured in it.

ASHBURY, in the county of Berkshire; a discharged vicarage, with Chapel-wick, valued in the King's books at £11. 18s. 1½d. The rector of the sinecure presents to the vicarage; but as to Chapel-wick, Magdalen College names three, and the rector must present one of them. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 643. Parish rates, in 1803, £519. 13s. 1½d. at 3s. in the pound. It is 6½ miles N. W. by W. from Lambourn. The rectory of Ashbury is valued in the King's books at £30. 12s. 6d. Patron, the archbishop of Canterbury.

ASHBURY, in the county of Devon; a discharged rectory, valued in the King's books at £5. 13s. 4d. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 73. Parish rates, in 1803, £49. 12s. 7d. at 7½d. in the pound. It is 5½ miles S. W. by S. from Hatherleigh.

ASHBY, in the county of Lincoln, a rectory with Fenby, valued in the King's books, at £14. 10s. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population, in 1811, 125. Parish rates, in 1803, £68. 9s. 7d. at 3s. 11½d. in the pound. It is 6½ miles S. by W. from Great Grimsby.

ASHBY, in the county of Lincoln; a discharged rectory, valued in the King's books at £7. 10s. 2½d. Church dedicated to St. Helen. The resident population of this parish, in 1801, 114. Parish rates, in

1803, £139. 12s. 7d. at 6s. 4d. in the pound. It is 1½ mile E. from Spillaby.

ASHBY, in the county of Lincoln, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £6. 8s. 4d. Patron, R. King, Esq. Church dedicated to St. Hybald. Population, in 1811, 154. Parish rates, in 1803, £123. 5s. 4d. at 1s. 4½d. in the pound. It is 6 miles N. by W. from Stenford.

ASHBY, in the county of Norfolk, a rectory, with the curacy of Hillington, valued in the King's books at £6. Church dedicated to St. Mary. The resident population, in 1811, 196. Parish rates, in 1803, £46. 11s. 6½d. at 1s. 2½d. in the pound. It is 8 miles S. E. from Norwich.

ASHBY, in the county of Norfolk, a rectory, with Obey, valued in the King's books at £10. Patron, the bishop of Norwich. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 52. Parish rates, in 1803, £30. 0s. 5d. It is 2½ miles N. from Acle.

ASHBY, in the county of Suffolk; a discharged rectory, valued in the King's books at £5. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1801, 42. Parish rates, in 1803, £24. 8s. 4d. at 1s. 10½d. in the pound. It is 5½ miles N. W. from Lowestoft.

ASHBY CASTLE, in the county of Northampton, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £17. 9s. 7d. Patron, the earl of Northampton. Church dedicated to St. Mary Magdalen, or St. Nicholas. Population, in 1801, 123. In 1803, no rate was made for this parish. It is 6½ miles E. S. E. from Northampton.

ASHBY, COLD, in the county of Northampton, a vicarage, valued in the King's books at £6. 0s. 5d. Church dedicated to St. Dennis. Population, in 1811, 968. Parish rates, in 1803, £510. at 7s. 6d. in the pound. It is 10 miles N. N. W. from Northampton.

ASHBY, FOLVILLE, in the county of Leicester, in the parish of Ashby Folville; a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £9. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 384. The parish rates, in 1803, £197. 11s. 6d. at 3s. 8d. in the pound. It is 6 miles S. W. by S. from Melton Mowbray.

ASHBY, MAONA, in the county of Leicester, a vicarage, valued in the King's books at £7. 18s. 11½d. Patron, the earl of Aylesford. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 260. Parish rates, in 1803, £291. 0s. 11d. at 4s. 6d. in the pound. It is 4 miles N. by E. from Lutterworth.

ASHBY, MAARA, in the county of Northampton, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £4. 13s. 9d. Church dedicated to All Saints. Population, in 1811, 390. Parish rates, in 1803, £262. 12s. at 4s. in the pound. It is 3½ miles W. by S. from Wellingborough.

ASHBY, PARVA, in the county of Leicester, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £5. 7s. 6d. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population, in 1811, 150. Parish rates, in 1803, £165. 7s. 6d. at 4s. 6d. in the pound. It is 3 miles N. by W. from Lutterworth.

ASHBY, PEGGBOURNE, in the county of Lincoln; a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £8. 3s. 3d. Patron, the dean and chapter of Lincoln. Church dedicated to St. Andrew. Population, in 1811, 91. Parish rates, in 1803, £64. 3s. 3½d. at 1s. 8d. in the pound, on the rack rental. It is 5½ miles N. W. from Spillaby.

ASHBY,
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ASHBY, *St. Leonard's*, in the county of Northampton; a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £6. 13s. 4d. Church dedicated to St. Mary and St. Leonard. Population in 1811, 239. Parish rates in 1803, £249. 16s. 3d. at 2s. in the pound. It is 4 miles N. from Daventry. William Catesby, the favourite of Richard III., is buried in the church of this parish.

ASHBY DE LA ZOUCA, in the county of Leicester; a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £14. 10s. 4d. Patron, the earl of Huntingdon. Church dedicated to St. Helen. Population in 1811, 3403. Parish rates in 1803, £1416. 11s. 1½d. at 6s. 3d. in the pound. It is 18 miles N. W. by W. from Leicester, and 114 miles N. W. by N. from London. Here is a free school; the petty sessions for the hundred of West Goscombe are occasionally held here. It is the birth-place of bishop Hall; and near it is a celebrated mineral spring, called Griffydum.

ASHCOMBE, in the county of Devon; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £18. Patron, the King. Population in 1811, 972. Parish rates in 1803, £133. 10s. 7½d. It is 3 miles E. from Chudleigh.

ASHDON, in the county of Essex; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £38. 3s. 4d. Patron, Catus College, Cambridge. Church dedicated to All Saints. Population in 1811, 909. Parish rates in 1803, £582. 0s. 6d. at 4s. in the pound. It is 4 miles N. E. by E. from Saffron Walden.

ASHELDHAM, or **ASHELDON**, in the county of Essex; a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £16. 13s. 4d. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Lawrence. Population in 1811, 143. Parish rates in 1803, £146. 9s. 7½d. at 3s. 8d. in the pound. It is 4 miles S. S. W. from Bradwell, near the sea.

ASHEN, or **FEYN**, in the county of Essex; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £23. Patron, the King, as duke of Lancaster. Population in 1811, 920. Parish rates in 1803, £180. 12s. at 4s. in the pound. It is 5½ miles N. N. W. from Castle Hedingham; and 9½ miles S. W. by S. from Clane, in the county of Suffolk.

ASHENAGUR, properly **HAASHNAGAR**, (from the Sanscrit *Ashthanagara*), a central district of Afghanistan, or Paktikabba. It derives its name from the eight townships of which the nation originally consisted, and which are supposed to correspond with the eight following districts:—1. Nuh Shehrak; 2. Chkandak, including Pirang and Hesar; 3. Rixzar; 4. Othman-zel; 5. Taran-zel; 6. Omar-zel; 7. Shdr-pil; 8. Tanggeh, or Barkah-zel. The town of Haashnagar is reckoned by all the Afghans the place of their original settlement in Afghanistan. It corresponds with the situation of the country of the Asmacani, on the west of the Indus, who were attacked by Alexander. It is to the N. E. of Peshawar, near the river of Swind, and is called Mashangur in Major Rennell's Map of the Hends of the Indus. (See Rennell's *Memoir*, p. 158, 173; *Asiatic Researches*, xi. 383; *Jehdu-numa*, p. 239.)

ASHENDEN, in the county of Buckingham; a curacy (not in charge), of the clear yearly value of £11. 8s. Patrons, the dean and canons of Christ Church, Oxford. Chapel dedicated to St. Mary. Popu-

lation in 1811, 319. Parish rates in 1803, £237. 0s. 3½d. at 2s. 6d. in the pound. It is 8 miles W. from Aylesbury; and 5½ miles N. from Thame, in the county of Oxford.

ASHEK, the son of Jacob and Zilpah, servant to Leah. He had four sons and one daughter; and from him one of the twelve tribes of Israel derived its name. To the tribe of Asher a most fruitful country was allotted, with Phenicia to the west, Mount Libanus to the north, Carmel and the tribe of Issachar to the south, and the tribes of Zebulun and Naphtali to the east; but, either from its weakness, its negligence, or its sins, or from all these causes combined together, it never obtained the whole portion originally allotted to its possession.

ASHES, a term applied to the residue left after the combustion of any substance. For the production and application of the ashes of vegetable and animal matter, see the article *CHEMISTRY*; and for their properties in manuring land, that of *AGRICULTURE*.

ASHFIELD, in the county of Suffolk; a curacy, with Thorpe. The chapel, which is now in ruins, was dedicated to St. Mary. Population in 1811, 248. The money raised by the parish rates in 1803, was £250. 3s. 3d. at 5s. 3d. in the pound. It is 5½ miles W. by S. from Framlingham.

ASHFIELD, GREAT, in the county of Suffolk; a vicarage (not in charge) of the certified value of £16. Patron, lord Thurlow. Chapel dedicated to All Saints. Population in 1811, 394. Parish rates in 1803, £229. 13s. 3½d. at 4s. in the pound. It is 6½ miles N. N. W. from Market Stow. It is the birth-place of lord chancellor Thurlow.

ASHFORD, in the hundred of Braunton, county of Devon; a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £8. 13s. 9d. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population in 1811, 101. Parish rates in 1803, £41. 19s. 5½d. at 2s. 3½d. in the pound. It is 1½ miles N. W. from Barnstaple.

ASHFORD, county of Kent; a vicarage, valued in the King's books at £18. 4s. 3d. Patrons, the dean and chapter of Rochester. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population 1811, 2539. Parish rates in 1803, £1066. 14s. 10½d. at 3s. 6d. in the pound. It is 30 miles S. E. by E. from Maidstone, and 8½ miles E. S. E. from London. Here is a free grammar school.

ASHILL, in the county of Norfolk; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £19. 13s. 6½d. Church dedicated to St. Nicolas. Population in 1811, 547. Parish rates in 1803, £432. 1s. 7½d. at 4s. 9d. in the pound. It is 3½ miles N. W. from Watton.

ASHILL, in the county of Somerset; a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £6. 0s. 10d. Patron, the prebendary thereof. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population in 1811, 399. Parish rates in 1803, £139. 9s. at 1s. in the pound. It is 3½ miles N. W. by W. from Ilminster. Here is a medicinal spring, called Skipperham Well.

ASHINGDON, or **ASHNODON**, in the county of Essex; a discharged rectory; valued in the King's books at £8. 13s. 4d. Church dedicated to St. Andrew. Population of this parish in 1811, 102. Parish rates in 1803, £307. 0s. 1d. at 5s. 3d. in the pound. It is 2½ miles N. by W. from Rochford. The victory obtained by Canute over Edmund Ironside was won in this parish.

ASHINGTON, in the county of Somerset; a dis-

ASHEN-DEN.
ASHING-TON.

ASHING-TON. charged rectory; valued in the King's books at £6. 3s. 4d. Church dedicated to St. Vincent. Population in 1811, 71. Parish rates in 1803, £37. 15s. 7½d. at 2s. in the pound. It is 2½ miles E. S. E. from Ilchester.

ASHORAN, in the county of Sussex; a rectory, with the chapel of Buneton; valued in the King's books at £8. 5s. Church dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul. Population in 1811, 198. Parish rates in 1803, £268. 14s. at 11s. in the pound. It is 4½ miles N. W. from Steyning.

ASHKOKO, the Ethiopic name of the *Stryx Syriacus* (v. *Mammalia*) is figured by Bruce (vol. v.), and was supposed by Ludolph to be a rabbit. (*Lex. Amharic. Lat.*)

ASHLEWORTH, in the county of Gloucester; a discharged vicarage; valued in the King's books at £10. 2s. 11d. Patron, the bishop of Bristol. Church dedicated to St. Andrew. Population in 1811, 476. Parish rates in 1803, £300. 9s. at 3s. in the pound, on the rack rental. It is 5½ miles N. by W. from Gloucester.

ASHLEY, in the county of Cambridge; a rectory, with the vicarage of Sylverley; valued in the King's books at £9. Patron, the earl of Guildford. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population in 1811, 306. Parish rates in 1803, £231. 13s. 4d. at 5s. 4d. in the pound. It is 4 miles E. by N. from Newmarket.

ASHLEY, in the county of Northampton; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £17. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population in 1811, 315. Parish rates in 1803, £405. 17s. 6d. at 11s. in the pound. It is 4½ miles W. by S. from Rockingham.

ASHLEY, in the county of Southampton; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £7. 16s. 3d. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population in 1811, 94. Parish rates in 1803, £65. 9s. 8½d. at 3s. in the pound. It is 3 miles S. S. E. from Stockbridge.

ASHLEY, in the county of Stafford; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £10. 2s. 8½d. Church dedicated to St. John Baptist. Population in 1811, 616. Parish rates in 1803, £211. 15s. 9d. at 3s. in the pound. It is 6 miles N. W. from Eccleshall.

ASHLEY, in the county of Wilts; a discharged rectory, valued in the King's books at £9. 16s. 5½d. Patron, the King, as duke of Lancaster. Church dedicated to St. James. Population in 1811, 66. Parish rates in 1803, £39. 9s. 11½d. at 10d. in the pound. It is 5 miles N. from Malmesbury.

ASHMANHAUGH, in the county of Norfolk; a discharged curacy, of the clear yearly value of £10. Chapel dedicated to St. Swithin. Population in 1811, 122. Parish rates in 1803, £62. 4s. 9½d. at 8s. 9d. in the pound. It is 3 miles E. by N. from Coltishall.

ASHMORE, in the county of Dorset; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £7. 19s. 9½d. Church dedicated to St. Nicholas. Population in 1811, 196. Parish rates in 1803, £283. 5s. at 3s. in the pound. It is 3 miles S. E. from Shaftesbury.

ASHOLT, in the county of Somerset; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £7. 12s. 3½d. Church dedicated to All Saints. Population in 1811, 150. Parish rates in 1803, £134. 1s. 9d. at 4s. 7d. in the pound. It is 6½ miles W. by S. from Bridgewater.

ASHORE, on shore. *A. S.* *asron*, to shear, to cut, to divide, to separate. See *SHORE*.

And when God shall send us safer to the Bay of S. Nicholas at an ashore, you shall see a share with the first boat that shall depart from the ship, taking with you such letters as you have to deliver to the agent there.

Hochberg. English Voyages, v. i.

Accordingly, on the 5th of April, 1680, we went ashore on the isthmus, near Golden Island, one of the Sancholes, to the number of between 3 and 400 men, carrying with us such provisions as were necessary, and toys wherewith to gratify the wild Indians, through whose country we were to pass.

Dampier's Voyage.

For now the flowing tide

Had brought the busy river to the city;

The more she looks, the more her fears increase,

At never sight; and she's herself the less;

Now driv'n ashore, and at her feet it lies,

She knows too much, in knowing whom she sees.

Her husband's corpse.

[He] Then with his dire associates through the deep,

For spoil and slaughter guides the savage power.

His dogs will rend ashore.

Gloucester's Legends, book xii. p. 77.

Storms rise t' o'erwhelm him: or, if stormy winds

Rise not, the waters of the deep shall rise,

And needing none assistance of the storm,

Shall roll themselves ashore, and reach him there.

Copier's Poems.

ASHOVER, in the county of Derby; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £24. 3s. 1½d. Church dedicated to All Saints. Population in 1811, 2377. Parish rates in 1803, £542. 3s. 0½d. at 1s. 3½d. in the pound. It is 6½ miles N. W. by N. from Alfreton. Ashover was the residence of Anthony Babington, who was executed in the reign of Elizabeth for a conspiracy against her life. There are some Druidical remains in its neighbourhood; and in the church is a Saxon font of great antiquity.

ASHOWE, in the county of Warwick; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £2. 2s. 1d. Patron, lord Leigh. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population in 1811, 182. Parish rates in 1803, £159. 5s. 9d. at 5s. 6d. in the pound. It is 4½ miles N. N. E. from Warwick.

ASHPRINGTON, in the county of Devon; a rectory, with the chapel of Painsford; valued in the King's books at £29. 1s. 8d. Church dedicated to St. David. Population in 1811, 519. Parish rates in 1803, £303. 9s. 11d. It is 3 miles S. E. from Totnes.

ASHREIGNEY, or *Rine's Asn*, in the county of Devon; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £24. Church dedicated to St. James. Population in 1811, 752. Parish rates in 1803, £389. 5s. 2½d. It is 4 miles W. by S. from Chulmleigh.

ASHTLEAD, in the county of Surrey; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £13. 15s. 5d. Patron, the bishop of Winchester. Church dedicated to St. Giles. Population in 1811, 548. Parish rates in 1803, £454. 16s. 6d. at 4s. 6d. in the pound. It is 2 miles S. W. by S. from Epsom.

ASHTON, in the county of Devon; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £11. 10s. 2½d. Population in 1811, 221. Parish rates in 1803, £113. 3s. 11d. at 4s. 6d. in the pound. It is 4½ miles N. by W. from Chudleigh.

ASURON, in the county of Northampton; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £10. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population in 1811, 370. Parish rates in 1803, £127. 18s. at 1s. in the pound. It is 7 miles S. from Northampton.

ASURON, Cold, in the county of Gloucester; a

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ASHORE.
— **ASHTON,**
COLD.

ASHTON, rectory, valued in the King's books at £17. 1s. 8d. Church dedicated in the Holy Trinity. Population in 1811, 968. Parish rates in 1803, £157. 8s. 9d. at 2s. 6d. in the pound. It is 9½ miles E. by S. from Bristol.

ASHTON, STEEPLE.

ASHTON UNDER EDGE, in the county of Gloucester; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £10. 2s. 3½d. Patron, lord Harrowby. Church dedicated to St. Andrew. Population in 1811, 120. Parish rates in 1803, £109. 9s. 5½d. at 2s. 4d. in the pound. It is 1½ miles N. N. W. from Chipping Campden.

ASHTON, KEYNES, in the county of Wilts; a vicarage, with the chapel of Leigh, valued in the King's books at £16. Church dedicated to the Holy Cross. Population in 1811, 828. Parish rates in 1803, £689. 19s. 9d. at 3s. 6d. in the pound. It is 3½ miles W. from Cricklade.

ASHTON, LUND, in the county of Somerset; a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £10. 17s. 11d. Church dedicated to All Saints. Population in 1811, 1073. Parish rates in 1803, £415. 11s. 9½d. at 4s. 3d. in the pound. It is 2½ miles S. W. by W. from Bristol. There are two Roman encampments in this parish, and a mansion house, with a front by Inigo Jones.

ASHTON UNDER LYNE, in the county palatine of Lancaster; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £26. 13s. 4d. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population in 1811, 19,053. Parish rates in 1803, £4620. 19s. 3d. at 5s. 3d. in the pound. It is 7 miles E. from Manchester. In this parish is still continued a singular custom, called *riding the black lad*. On Easter Monday an effigy is paraded on horseback through the streets, then hung up at the cross and shot at. Tradition regards this custom as a memorial of some tyrannical act of Sir Ralph Ashton, who, in 1483, exercised great authority in this neighbourhood as vice constable of England.

ASHTON UPON MERRAY, in the county palatine of Chester; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £13. 4s. 7d. Church dedicated to St. Martin. Population in 1811, 1819. Parish rates in 1803, £234 1s. 11d. at 7s. 9d. in the pound. It is 9 miles W. N. W. from Stockport.

ASHTON, STEEPLE, in the county of Wilts; a vicarage, with the chapel of Sevington, valued in the King's books at £17. 2s. 6d. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population in 1811, 1453. Parish rates in 1803, £638. 0s. 4d. at 6s. 5d. in the pound. It

is 3½ miles E. by S. from Trowbridge. The lofty and celebrated steeple of this church, from which the parish derives its name, was destroyed by lightning in 1670; and the workmen who were employed in repairing it were dispersed, and their work beaten down by a second storm in the same year. Superstition attributed these circumstances to the interference of heaven, and the steeple has never been rebuilt. Some remarkable specimens of the Madreporine-stone have been found in this parish.

ASHURST, in the county of Kent; a discharged rectory, valued in the King's books at £3. 4s. 9d. Patron, the duke of Dorset. Population in 1811, 131. Parish rates in 1803, £147. at 8s. in the pound. It is 4½ miles W. from Tunbridge Wells.

ASHWERT, in the county of Sussex; a rectory, not in charge. Patron, the earl of Thanet. Population in 1811, 408. Parish rates in 1803, £361. 2s. 5½d. at 4s. in the pound. It is 3 miles N. from Steyning.

ASHWATER, in the county of Devon; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £26. 6s. 8d. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population in 1811, 677. Parish rates in 1803, £220. 10s. It is 6½ miles S. E. by S. from Holsworthy.

ASHWELL, in the county of Hertford; a vicarage, valued in the King's books at £22. 3s. 6½d. Patron, the bishop of London. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population in 1811, 754. Parish rates in 1803, £479. 19s. 6d. at 3s. 3d. in the pound. It is 4½ miles N. N. E. from Baldock. Ashwell is of Roman origin; near it is a large encampment, called Arbury Banks.

ASHWELL, in the county of Rutland; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £20. 16s. 3d. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population in 1811, 194. Parish rates in 1803, £209. 13s. 5d. at 2s. 4d. in the pound. It is 3½ miles N. by W. from Oakham.

ASHWELL, TROUSE, in the county of Norfolk; a discharged rectory, valued in the King's books at £6. 13s. 4d. Church dedicated to All Saints. Population in 1811, 345. Parish rates in 1803, £288. 11s. 6d. at 6s. in the pound, on the rack rental. It is 3½ miles S. E. by S. from Wymondham.

ASH-WYKEN, in the county of Norfolk; a rectory, with leziate, valued in the King's books at £6. 13s. 4d. Patron, earl Spencer; church dedicated to All Saints. Population in 1801, 71. Parish rates in 1803, £88. 10s. 2d. at 1s. 1½d. in the pound. It is 2½ miles N. from Richmond.

ASHTON, STEEPLE.
ASH-WYKEN.

ASIA.

ASIA.

ASIA, one of those primary divisions of the globe, called the four quarters; and in size, the largest next to America. It is the most remarkable of any; having been the first peopled, and consequently being that from which arts and civilization were diffused over the rest of the earth: in Christians it presents additional claim for attention as the scene of sacred history. In extent it exceeds Europe and Africa taken together. For fertility of soil and mildness of climate, a large portion of it is deservedly celebrated; and, if blessed with an enlightened government, it would be the most desirable residence on earth: but its inhabitants have seldom, if ever, enjoyed that advantage; and the bounty of nature has generally been counteracted by the avarice and oppression of their rulers. Within the tropic, the productions of this continent are among the most rare and valuable; but the climate is distinguished by that combination of excessive heat and moisture which is so destructive to health. As we approach the frigid zone, on the other hand, an excessive degree of cold prevails, as prevents almost any trace of vegetation, and perpetuates the rigours of winter through the whole year. Even, if the inhabitants of those regions were not withheld by their wandering habits from agricultural pursuits, it might be doubted, whether their short-lived summers would be sufficient to bring the fruits of the earth to maturity, and whether the soil could be made to produce a sufficiency for their subsistence.

Boundaries.

Asia is surrounded by the sea, excepting where the Isthmus of Suez separates the Arabian Gulf from the Mediterranean, and in the space intervening between the Sea of Azof and the Frozen Ocean. An imaginary line, drawn from the mouth, and along the course of the Don till it approaches the Volga, then following that river till it comes near the Uralian Chain, which terminates nearly opposite to Nova Zembla, is the north western boundary of this quarter of the globe; and it is so distinctly marked by the mountains and rivers, the direction of which it follows, that it might almost be called a natural boundary. From Cape Severo-vostochnoi, in Siberia, to the southern extremity of Malacca, the continent of Asia extends over nearly 76 degrees of latitude, or 4560 geographical miles: and its greatest breadth, from East Cape, near Behring's Straits, to the Dardanelles, amounts to about 7500 geographical miles.

Physical division.

This vast space has been divided by nature into two distinct regions,—the northern and the southern; separated from each other by a great central area, flanked on all sides by mountains; some of which are perhaps the loftiest on the surface of the globe. From these heights, as from a common centre, all the largest rivers of Asia flow, in every direction, to the surrounding ocean, or some of the great internal seas. From these heights also the subordinate chains of mountains diverge like so many ramifications of one vast chain. The climate of this central region is such as might be looked for at so great an elevation above the level of the sea; and Tibet, that portion of it respecting which we have the most accurate accounts,

ASIA.

appears to be one of the coldest countries within the temperate zone. To the north, the descent towards the ocean is probably extremely gradual, and the temperature is proportionally lower; so that the cold on that side of this mighty barrier is more severe than the distance from the equator would lead us to expect; while, to the south, as soon as the distance is sufficient to prevent the air from being affected by the sternal snows on the Tibetan Alps, the heat is greater than in most other countries under the same parallel. To the east the descent appears to be such as is best calculated to maintain a moderate temperature; while on the west, the mountains are more diversified by a variety of inferior chains, and we know that greater inequalities of temperature prevail. This appears to account in some degree for the cold which reigns in Tataria and the northern parts of Asia; for the excessive heat of Hindustan; for the temperate climate of China, and for the opposite extremes an often experienced in Afghanistan and Persia. This great central range of mountains, and its more considerable branches, boundaries which have ever formed the natural divisions between different countries and states, anciently separated Scythia from India; and Persia from Syria and Asia Minor; as they now form the line of demarcation between Tataria and Hindustan, the Persian and the Turkish empires.

Mountains.

"In every continent," says M. Walckenaer (*Compend. Geogr. p. 406.*) "that chain of mountains in which the culminating points of the highest level are found, always follows the direction of the greatest dimensions of the continent; and the inferior chains or heights, where we find the culminating points of the second or third rate levels, also follow the direction of the greatest dilatations of the land terminating that continent." Thus, in Asia, the greatest dimensions of the continent are from east to west; and we find, that between the 70th and 100th degree of east longitude, and 30th and 50th of north latitude, there is a comparatively level area from the different sides of which all the largest rivers flow, in opposite directions, to the sea. This, therefore, is the highest level in this continent; and its culminating points are, there is reason to believe, the most elevated spots on the surface of the earth. From it, as from a central point, we will commence our review of the physical geography of Asia. This elevated area, which has been not improperly termed the Table-land of Asia, is little known, as it has been inaccessible to Europeans since the revival of science.

The western part of it is mountainous; but the eastern is a vast desert, called Kobi by the Tatars, and Shamo by the Chinese; an extent of several thousand miles not watered by a single stream; differing, probably, from the African deserts as much in temperature, as it resembles them in its total want of water. The Altian mountains are the northern boundaries of this level: to the east is that range, which gives rise to the great rivers that water China; and to the south, the Himalaya separates this lofty, frozen, level from the plains of Hindustan. On the west it is

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The islands of Asia likewise are mountainous. Adam's Peak in Ceylon, is the loftiest summit in the island; and the favourite subject, as such remarkable peaks commonly are, of traditions and fables. But

the insular mountains are more remarkable, as being in several instances volcanic. There is one near Brabant, in Java, which had a violent eruption in 1686; and Gúmong ápi, in the Banda Isles, is one of the most active volcanoes known. Ternaté, the chief of the Moluccas, is nothing more than a volcanic cone; on its sides are large pits of melting sulphur, and it still occasionally emits flames from its summit. The Isles of France and Bourbon are also of volcanic origin; and the crater of the latter was visited, while in a state of eruption, by M. Borg de St. Vincens, who has given an interesting description of the phenomena which he witnessed. Whether there are any volcanoes in the unexplored parts of the continent of Asia, is yet doubtful; though accounts given by Chinese and Manchur writers make it probable that there are several.

Of the rivers descending from these mountains, Rivers.

those which flow to the north have the most circuitous and extended course. On the east side of Siberia we meet with the Lena, which rises near the Lake Baikal, and after running for a considerable distance in a north eastern direction, takes a more northerly course near Yakutsk, and enters the Frozen Ocean opposite to the Borzhassia lakes, having travelled over nearly 1900 miles. The Yenisei, issuing from the Khailak, or Altaiian mountains, is carried by a more direct course of about 1400 miles into the same sea. The Ob, or Oby, the largest river in the Russian empire, rises from the Altaiian or the Kalmuks, or Ozero Teletzkol of the Russians, in lat. 51° N. and long. 87° E.; and, soon after it has entered the Arctic Circle, falls into the Obshkaya Juba, or gulf of the Ob, after having run nearly 3000 miles. At a considerable distance above Tobolsk, nearly in lat. 63° N. it receives the waters of the Irish, another large river, which takes its rise from the northern barrier of the central plateau, in lat. 46° N. and long. 99° E. nearly. The Saghalia, or Amur, which rises in the country of the Kalkas, in lat. 49° N. and long. 108° E. is formed by the junction of the Kerton and Argun; it flows through Chinese Tartary, and empties itself into the sea of Okhotsk, opposite to the great island of Choka, or Saghalia. It receives the waters of many tributary streams, the largest of which is the Sangari, from the south west. Its course can scarcely be less than 1800 miles.

China, which, from the great length of some of its rivers, must abound in extensive plains, has some streams nearly equal to the largest of those already mentioned. They rise in the eastern declivity of the central table land; the Hwang-ho, or Yellow river, watering the northern, and the Yang-tsé-kyang, or Great River, the central parts of the empire. The Mékang, or River of Kambôja, and the Irawadi, or Ava River, also descend from the same plateau, by courses long and devious, till they reach the lower country, when they advance in a direct line to the Indian Ocean. But of all the streams springing from that elevated region, none are so celebrated as those which follow next in order; the Brahmaputra, or Berhampooter, the Ganges, and the Indus. Of these, the source of the Ganges only is positively known; the two others have a longer course, and take their rise in Tibet; that of the Indus having been found, by Mr. Moorcroft, in 31° 30' N. and 80° 35' E.; but of their progress after they reach the plains we are not ignorant; as the Berhampooter waters the eastern parts of

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Besides these, which may be called "the mighty waters" of Asia, there are others, and those not insignificant streams, descending from the inferior ranges of mountains. The Tigris and Euphrates flowing to the south, and the Araxes to the east, have their sources in the same mountainous region, and are all considerable rivers, watering a large extent of country. Near the eastern coast of the Mediterranean, the Jordan and the Orontes, rising from Mount Libanus, fertilize the vales of Syria. Anatolia, though not provided with any very large rivers, has an abundance of smaller streams; and the Halys, now called Kizil Irmak, which nearly divides the peninsula into two equal portions, rises from Mount Taurus, and runs into the Black Sea, in lat. 41° 34' N. and long. 36° 11' E. The whole course must be upwards of 350 miles.

Sea and islands.

If, in tracing the separate seas, or portions of the ocean into which these rivers flow, we set out from Asia Minor, we meet, in the first place, the Euxine, or Black Sea, the northern boundary of Anatolia; a large basin, separated from the rest of the Mediterranean by the narrow strait, called the Canal of Constantinople, the Bosphorus of the ancients. The Sea of Marmora, or Propontis, (which is itself connected with the Egean Sea, or Archipelago, by another and similar strait, the Dardanelles, anciently named Hellespont;) has been supposed, not without plausible grounds, to have been anciently an inland sea, as well as the Black Sea and Mediterranean. Its most considerable islands are those called the Prince's, near Constantinople, which are large enough to produce some grain, and have a good many inhabitants; but in the Archipelago, the islands, as is well known, are numerous, fertile, and populous. The largest and most productive are those which belong to Asia; and Candia and Cyprus, more particularly deserve to be noticed. Crossing the Isthmus of Suez, that narrow neck of land, which separates the Mediterranean from the Red Sea, and following the coasts of Arabia till we reach the Persian Gulf, no island of any importance occurs till we come to the cluster, called the islands of Bahrain, on the Arabian side of that arm of the sea. They have been for centuries celebrated for their pearl-fishery, and the piratical character of their inhabitants. It may be said generally that the remaining islands in that gulf are wretched, barren spots, inhabited by fishermen as wretched, unless the feebleness of the neighbouring government suffers them to obtain by piracy the wealth which nature has denied to their soil. On leaving the Persian Gulf we come again into the Indian Ocean, and meet with no islands along the coast, except Bombay and Anjenga; the first of

which is now united with the main land, and will be fully described in another article. The crowded groups of islets, called Laccadives and Maldives, not far from the southern point of the peninsula, bring us to Ceylon, a large and productive island, remarkable for the abundance of cinnamon which it yields. The Andamans, on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, are the first link in that long chain of islands which occupies so large a portion of the Indian Ocean, and which has been conveniently termed the Indian Archipelago. It has been divided by geographers into a number of different groups, the first of which, the Sunda Islands, contains Sumatra, Borneo, and Java. Borneo is of great extent, but is scarcely known at all beyond the coasts; and Sumatra is very little more so; but Java, having been long in the possession of the Dutch, has been completely explored. The next group, called the Moluccas, is the most celebrated of all; as containing those islands to which the Dutch, for a long period, exclusively restricted the cultivation of the clove and nutmeg. Beyond them lies Papia, or New Guinea, of which even the coasts have not yet been completely ascertained. The clusters, called Solomon's Islands, Queen Charlotte's, and the New Hebrides, bending round in a south easterly direction, bring us near to the two islands of New Zealand, the most southern of these seas; and immediately to the south of New Guinea is New Holland, of which the area is larger than the whole of Europe. At a considerable distance, to the east of the New Hebrides, lie the Friendly Islands; the first in that vast assemblage, commonly called "the South Sea Islands," which were discovered by Europeans, having been seen by Tasman in the middle of the 17th century. To the north of New Guinea are the New Carolinas and the Marianas, or Ladrones, so named by the Spaniards who discovered them, from the thievish propensities of their inhabitants. The Philippines, or Manillas, lie to the west of the latter, immediately north of the Moluccas; and Mindanao, or Magindanao, the largest of them, is populous and productive. Proceeding northward, close to the coast of China, we have Formosa, immediately above Luzon, the second of the Philippines in point of magnitude. The sea, comprehended between Borneo and Formosa, on one side, and the eastern peninsula of India, with the southern part of China, on the other, is commonly called "the Chinese Sea;" but to the east of this Archipelago lies the Pacific Ocean. Following up the Chinese sea, another group occurs at some distance, to the east of Formosa, called the Sieb-kieh, or Lutchu Islands. Of them and their hospitable inhabitants we have a pleasing account in Captain Basil Hall's Voyage. Beyond them are Nifon and the other islands, which form the kingdom of Japan, connected by a line of small islets, called the Kuriles, with the southern extremity of Kamtschatka. Within them, and the coast of Tartary, lie Yesso and Saghalien. The Aleutian, or Fox Islands, are a chain of islets, extending in a curved line from the neighbourhood of the Kamtschatka coast to the opposite extremity of America. These are all the islands of any magnitude which belong to Asia, unless we include Nova Zembla, at the north-western extremity of Siberia.

In the above enumeration of the rivers and islands, Seas we have named most of the different seas by which Asia is bounded. Its early civilization was, doubtless,

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ASIA. greatly promoted by the many gulfs and bays, as well as navigable rivers, which it possesses. In this respect, the difference between Asia and Africa is very striking; and while the one was the cradle of arts and civilization, the other is still, with some small exceptions, the seat of ignorance and barbarism. But Asia has also some considerable internal seas, such as are not known to exist in any other part of the globe. Of these, the Caspian is the largest. It separates the dominions of Russia from those of Persia and the independent Tatars. It is nearly in the form of an ellipse, of which the major axis is now well known to extend from north to south; though, scarcely a century ago, it was represented as passing from east to west. Its greatest length is about 10° of latitude, or 600 geographical miles. Its width varies from 100 to 900 geographical miles. It has been supposed to have had a communication anciently with the Black Sea; but a more accurate knowledge of the countries between the Don and the Volga, has shewn the fallacy of that supposition. That it once extended northwards considerably beyond its actual limits, can hardly be doubted, from the shells and sand of the Steppes which surround Astrakhan. On the eastern side, its former union with the lake Aral appears still more probable; for though the ground now rises between them, this has probably been occasioned by alluvion from the large rivers which flow into the latter. These are about 150 miles asunder at the points where they approach the seacoast; but a salt lake, or lagoon, intervenes mid-way, and the adjoining deserts abound in marine productions. The lake Aral is about 850 miles in length, and 70 or 80 in breadth. The wild and desert state of the surrounding country has hitherto prevented it from being carefully examined. Another considerable body of water in the very heart of this continent, is the Lake Baikal, which extends, bending somewhat in the shape of a crescent, from long. 104. E. for nearly 300 miles. Its greatest width is between 30 and 40. Its waters are fresh, in which respect they differ from those of the Caspian and the lakes in its neighbourhood.

Before we pass from the consideration of the waters of Asia to another part of our subject, we may observe, that there are several narrow seas and straits within the limits of this quarter of the globe. The Red Sea, or Arabian Gulf, is an arm of the Indian ocean, stretching between lat. 12° and 30° N. in a north westerly direction, full of shoals, and difficult of navigation. It is about 1200 miles in length, and never more than 100 in breadth; and is connected with the ocean by the Straits of Bâb-el-mandeb, about 30 geographical miles in width, but reduced to a much narrower passage by intervening rocks and islands. The Persian Gulf, or Gulf of Ormus, is another arm of the same ocean, deriving its name from Hormuz, or the Persian Coast; a great emporium in the 16th century, and once in the possession of the Portuguese. The strait by which it communicates with the Indian sea is only 24 miles wide. Ceylon is separated from the coast of Coromandel (Chôla-mandala), by the Straits of Manar, the narrowest part of which is not above eight or ten miles in width. The islands of Ramissarum (Râmâswara) and Manar, at the opposite sides of this strait, are connected by a singular ridge of rocks, called by the Musselmans, Adam's Bridge. The Straits of Malacca, between that peninsula and Suma-

tra, are in some places not more than 24 miles across. Between that island and Java are the Straits of Sunda, about 30 miles across, but much obstructed by intervening islets; they are, however, often passed by our China ships. The islands of Japan are separated from Corea by a strait, which is about 40 geographical miles in width. But the most remarkable of the Asiatic straits is that which was discovered by Behring, a Dane, in 1728, and bears his name. It separates Asia from America, as was ascertained by the immortal Cook, who named it after its original discoverer. Behring does not appear to have seen the American coast; a circumstance easily accounted for by the fogs continually occurring in those high latitudes. From East Cape, on the Asiatic side, to Cape Prince of Wales, in America, there are about 30 geographical miles; but two islands intervene, and narrow the passage. It has been lately explored by Lieutenant Von Kotzebue.

Though Asia is for the most part mountainous, it Plains. has, at intervals, plains of vast extent, in several places destitute of water, and bearing a strong resemblance to the sandy wastes so common in Africa. Between Syria, Jezirah, or Mesopotamia, and the central mountains in Arabia, the whole country answers to this description. In Persia, the plains, intervening between the parallel ranges of hills, are all ill supplied with water; and whole districts on the eastern side of that kingdom, are incapable of cultivation. These deserts extend beyond the Indus to the western provinces of Hindostan. To the north east of the Caspian and Lake Aral, there is a wide expanse of sand not admitting culture; and the elevated central level noticed above, is represented by the Manchh and Chinese writers, who call it the Desert of Kuhl, or Shamo, as one vast mass of arid sand, incapable of supporting any vegetation.

Through so wide a range of country, and with such Climate. a constant change of elevation, the climate must be perpetually varying. It may be said, generally, that in the south western part it is temperate, even including Arabia, which is within the tropic; but, in the south eastern, excessive heat prevails; while throughout the northern half of the continent, excessive cold predominates. The difference of elevation has so great an effect on the temperature, that the central parts of Anatolia are colder in winter than the provinces of France which are 10 degrees of latitude farther north. Nor is this difficult to be accounted for, since Mr. Browne found the city of Erzurum to be 7000 feet above the level of the sea. (Whishaw's *Memoir of Tennant*, p. 30.) This extraordinary height of level, combined with the accumulation of snow on the summits of the neighbouring mountains, will also account for the extremes of heat and cold experienced in Persia and Tatar; while in India, as there are no chains of mountains to the south of Himalayan of any considerable height, there is nothing to temper the power of the sun, and the full effect of the approximation to the equator is felt. This seems to be still more the case in a great part of the Berman empire; but China, which is more mountainous, has a cooler climate. The productions of the earth, under equally favourable circumstances with respect to soil and irrigation, ^{Gen.} will vary nearly as the climate; in Asia, therefore, we find almost every kind of vegetable in the highest perfection. The middle and western parts produce

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all the sorts of grain common in Europe, with our fruits and culinary vegetables, in abundance; the southern and tropical regions afford gums and spices, oils and extracts, roots and berries, which are unknown in colder climates. In minerals, so mountainous a country cannot be deficient; and if little or nothing of the precious metals has been obtained from it in modern times, this is owing rather to the ignorance and mismanagement of its rulers, than to any real failure in the veins which were anciently productive. The rivers of Asia Minor washed down fragments of gold; and silver mines were worked on Mount Sipylus within the last century. The gold of Arabia is frequently mentioned in Scripture; and gold dust is still collected from the streams of Káhl and Kandahár. Silver and copper mines are actually worked in the neighbourhood of Tokht; tin is found in great quantities, in the island of Banca; lead and iron seem to be most plentiful; but neither the continent nor islands are yet sufficiently known to allow of our forming any estimate of the mineral wealth of Asia. Of precious stones, the diamonds of Golconda and Samh halpúr, and the pearls of Bahrein and Muskat are well known; and rubies, sapphires, turquoises, with most other gems are brought from the same countries; some stones, as corundum, are seldom found elsewhere.

Population. We learn from sacred history, that Asia was the cradle of the human race; and that fact, combined with the fertility and climate of the country, would lead us to look for a more crowded population there, than in any other quarter of the globe. But war, with its concomitant evils, and still more the depressing action of despotism, are such powerful checks to the increase of population, that the number of the inhabitants in most of the Asiatic states is far less than in territories of equal extent in Europe. Yet, wherever the well-being of the people has been secured by a wise and beneficent government, as in British India, their numbers and increase greatly exceed the proportion of less favoured countries. In China, the government of which is far from deserving so favourable a character, freedom from foreign war, and from any change of political institutions for several centuries, has produced a redundant population; if the accounts which we have of that country are to be credited. M. De Guignes, the younger, has however endeavoured to shew that preceding writers have been grossly misled by the exaggerations of the Chinese. Nothing better than a very uncertain conjecture can be formed as to the actual number of the inhabitants of Asia; and for hundred millions, the common estimate, is probably below their real amount. The greater part of them appear to have been derived from three different stocks; families separated and distinguished from each other before the commencement of any authentic history, except that of Moses. Javan and his descendants, Togrymah, Riphath, Ashkenaz, Elisah, Dodanim and Turashah, are supposed to signify the inhabitants of Asia Minor. The Canaanites and Amalekites were the people of Syria and Arabia Petráa. Arabia was occupied by Ham and Cush. Persia is called Elam, and the countries between the Euxine and Caspian, Tabal. The posterity of Shem occupied the central, Japbet the northern, and Ham, a small portion of the southern part of Asia. To the Hebrews, the Indians, or the Tatars, all the principal nations of Asia must be ultimately referred, as is plain from their make

and features, as well as from their languages; but there are some large tribes, such as the Malays and aboriginal negroes of the Asiatic islands, and many smaller ones, as the mountaineers of Caucasus and northern Siberia, which cannot be referred to any of those three sources. For the present state, political institutions, and history, of the different Asiatic nations, we must refer our readers to their respective articles. A brief review of the different changes which the geography of Asia has undergone in ancient and modern times, is all that can be added in this place.

Though Moses has enumerated the different parts of the earth known to his countrymen, and Asia was that division of it with which they were best acquainted, yet it is but a very small portion of the whole that his account comprehends. The names, moreover, which he assigns to the kingdoms and territories mentioned, are so different from those given by the other ancient writers, that great obscurity hangs over the whole of his geography, except that which relates to the land of Canaan itself, and the immediately contiguous states. He appears to have been acquainted with Asia Minor and Armenia to the north; Media and Persia to the east, and Arabia to the south; but to have had only an indistinct notion of nations still farther north, such as Gog and Magog; who may be placed in accordance with more modern Asiatic traditions, on the peaks and cliffs of Caucasus. Riphath recalls to our recollection the Rhiphaean mountains, while Rosh reminds us of the Rossi of the middle ages, and Russians of the present day. The western, central, and southern chains of mountains were well known to the ancients. To those of Asia Minor, Syria, and Armenia, we still give their ancient names. Of the Indian mountains, Paropamisus, now Hindú Kush, was the most western; and Imaon, or Hemodus, was the whole of the vast central range, called Himádrí, in Sanscrit, from Hima, snow; whence its other names, Himáláya (abode of snow) and Himáchal, are also derived.

But descending to a later period, when geographical knowledge, like the other branches of science, was further advanced, we find the more northern parts of this quarter of the globe unknown to the Greeks, the most enlightened people then existing. So imperfect were their notions on the subject, that Herodotus, after mentioning the opinion of some writers, who considered the Tanais (or Don) as the common boundary of Europe and Asia, adds, that others, with whom he himself agreed, had fixed on the Phasis, or Colchis, as the limit of these two divisions. The Arabs marked the continuation of the line; and the mountains to the north of India were the utmost boundary of the knowledge which the Greeks then had of that part of Asia. The Ganges and the Indian Ocean were the eastern and southern limits; and the Red Sea, with the isthmus between it and the Mediterranean, brought them back to the western and nearest side. But many geographers included Egypt in Asia; making the Catathamus, or western boundary of the valley of the Nile, the line of separation from Africa; while others fixed upon that river itself as the limit. Long after the age of Herodotus, Strabo and Ptolemy and other geographers supposed that the northern end of the Caspian Sea communicated with the ocean; but that historian was better acquainted with the truth, and

ASIA. knew that it was a distinct link; he however considered the country to the north of it as belonging to Europe. That part of Asia which was tolerably well known to the ancients, was divided by them into the hither and further Asia (*Citerior* and *Uterior*). The former contained only Asia Minor, considered by them as a peninsula terminated by a line drawn from Sinope to the common boundary between the mountainous and the lowland Cilicia (*dispersa* and *Campestris*). The latter contained the remainder of Asia. Its great divisions were Colchis, Iberia, and Albania, between the Euxine and Caspian seas; now called Mingrelia, Georgia, and Daghestan. Armenia, which still retains its ancient name. Media, and Parthia, the northern part of modern Persia. Margiana and Bactriana; the Herri, Balkh, and Bokhara of the Turks and Turans. Syria, Mesopotamia, and Assyria, at present called *Bilad-ush shâm*, *Diyr bekîr*, and *Aljoninrah*. Hyrcania, Persia, and Susiana, the Irak and Fars of the present day. Judea, Babilonia, and Chaldæa; the southern part of Syria and Peshalik of Bagdad. India, the country between the Indus and the Ganges. And Scythia, the remoter regions to the north east, which were merely known by name.

The conquests of Alexander and his successors added greatly to the knowledge of the eastern parts of Asia; and the embassy of Megasthenes, sent by Seleucus to Sandracottus, or Chandragupta, a prince who resided in Patalibothra, or Pataliputra, on the Ganges, made the Greeks acquainted with a considerable tract of country previously unknown. But the arts of peace are more favourable to the progress of knowledge than war and conquest; and commerce, which flourished under many of the earlier Roman emperors, led their subjects into the remoter parts of Asia, by land, and to the western peninsula of India, by sea. Even in the second century, we find that the Sine or eastern Indians were known to Ptolemy; as well as Taprobane, or Ceylon, and Jambodia, the Java dwipa of the Indians, or Java of our maps. The barbarism which was gradually induced by the evil and ecclesiastical despotism established in the Constantinopolitan empire, and the fatal effects of fanaticism, so widely spread over Europe and Asia in the middle ages, went far towards extinguishing the small portion of knowledge derived from more enlightened days: and the nations of Europe at the time of the crusades, knew far less of the geography of Asia than their forefathers had done several centuries before. But those wars, by establishing an European dynasty in Syria and some of the adjoining countries, renewed the intercourse between the east and west, and gave a different turn to the views, pursuits, and policy of the Christian states. A residence in the east produced a taste for arts and luxuries which were unknown in the west; and the Christian merchants were induced to encourage the risk of distant journeys in kingdoms never before explored, for the purpose of furnishing their countrymen with the productions of other climates and more civilized nations. The monks also, and other ecclesiastics, animated by a desire to reclaim heretics, and convert unbelievers to what they believed to be the true faith, exposed themselves to greater hazards; and contributed, when they had the happiness to return home, to enlarge the narrow views then entertained by the learned in Europe, of the extent and productions of Asia. Thus

ASIA. in the thirteenth century, Ascelin and Jean de Plan-carpin were sent by the Pope to the court of the victorious Moghols; and William de Rubruquis was despatched on a mission to the same princes, by St. Louis, King of France. On their return, they published a narrative of their travels, and were the first Europeans who gave any distinct account of the Tatarian empire. But Marco Polo, a Venetian merchant, with some of his near relations, were the most fortunate, and probably the most intelligent travellers of that and the following century. They spent six and twenty years in travelling, either as merchants, or as agents of the Great Khan of the Tatars, and explored, in the course of that period, many parts of the east, never before heard of in Europe. Gazarât, Bengal, and Japan, are mentioned in Marco Polo's book for the first time. He also visited Java, Ceylon, and several of the Asiatic islands, as well as the coast of Malabar and the Gulf of Cambay. He was warmly patronized by the Tatar sovereign whom he served, and was led, by his connection with that prince, to a more extensive acquaintance with the north of Asia than had yet reached the west. The publication of his travels, therefore, forms an epoch in the history of our knowledge of Asia; and though the ignorance and credulity of his age sometimes betrayed him into absurdities, his narrative is still a very amusing and instructive work. His accounts, however, of the magnificence and wealth of the Asiatics were not received without distrust by his contemporaries, and, a few centuries afterwards, when the same nations were found reduced, by internal discord or foreign invasion, to a far less flourishing condition, it became the fashion to consider Marco Polo as little better than a romancer. A more accurate knowledge of the history and dominions of the Moghols in that age, has now restored him to his deserved credit; and his work, elucidated as it has been by the learning and acuteness of Mr. Marsden, is one of the most curious monuments we possess of the state of Europe and Asia in the middle ages. In the beginning of the next century, a Franciscan friar, named Oderico of Friuli, went by the way of Trebizonde, through Persia and India, to China, where he staid three years, and returned by the route of Tibet; which, from the spiritual government of the Lama, he took for the country of Prester John. He either made the same observations as Marco Polo, or copied his narrative; for their agreement with each other is so striking, as to give room for a suspicion of plagiarism: he however added something to that which was previously known concerning the countries which he visited. This can hardly be said of Sir John Mandeville, another traveler of the same century, who was either the dupe of persons who played upon his credulity, or, what is more probable, as bold a fabricator of wonderful adventures as Mendes Pinto or Vincent Le Blanc. In the fifteenth century improvements in navigation at once effected that which then seemed hopeless; and the nations of Europe found an easy way to the remote east, without encountering the dangers of a tedious journey by land, through tribes of fanatics continually at war with each other, and bearing an inveterate hatred to the Christian name. The discovery of the passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope, opened to the people of the west stores of knowledge which were entirely hidden from the Greeks and

ASIA. Romans; and an hundred years more had not passed, before the coasts and islands of Asia were known as far as the southern extremity of Japan. But it was not till Russia had been civilized by the genius of Peter the Great, that the north eastern angle of this continent was thoroughly explored; a task, which no one but a powerful sovereign could have undertaken; and which was at length executed by navigators and travellers sent by his successors, for the express purpose of visiting the remotest parts of their dominions.

The great revolution produced by Mohammed, and the wars for conquest and extermination which he occasioned, soon effected a corresponding revolution in the names and boundaries of the states into which Asia was divided. The Greek Empire gradually gave way to the arms of the victorious Moslems; and the dominion of the Khalifs for a time rivalled that of their Constantinopolitan predecessors; but the Khlifs were in their turn humbled by the Tartarian conquerors Jengiz and Témur. Tartar princes occupied the thrones raised on the ruins of the Khalifate, and were themselves finally absorbed by the overwhelming power of the Turks, who, in the middle of the thirteenth century, overran the western part of Asia, and in the middle of the fifteenth finally subverted the Eastern Empire. (See Bajazet, Orkhan, Toghrul Bey, Mahomet, &c.) Hence arose the great divisions of Asia, existing at the present day, and, after referring our readers for a more particular account of these countries, to the articles belonging to each, we shall terminate this by a brief enumeration of the different states into which Asia is now divided, beginning from the west and proceeding eastward.

The whole space from the Uralian mountains to the sea of Kamtschatka, and from the Arctic Ocean to the parallel of 50° north lat., forms the Asiatic part of the Russian Empire. Its general name is Siberia, and it is inhabited by Tartars, Mongols, and Mantchirs, with a few Tribes in the north derived from a different stock.

ASIA MINOR, a name first used in the middle ages, is bounded by the Euxine, Propontis, and Mediterranean seas, and by the river Euphrates: lying between 36° and 44° north latitude, and between 25° and 45° east longitude from Greenwich, being 1000 miles from west to east, and nearly 500 from north to south. The Romans divided that extensive district of Asia, into *Asia cis* and *trans* Taurum. The country, westward of Taurus and the River Halys, was sometimes dignified with the exclusive title of Asia. The whole province includes the ancient kingdoms of Troy, Lydia, and Phrygia, the maritime countries of the Pamphylians, Lycians, and Carians, and the Grecian colonies of Ionia: the kingdoms of Bithynia and Pontus, reaching from Constantinople to Trebizond; Cilicia, on the confines of Syria; Cappadocia and Galatia, inland territories. Under the Greek Empire, the districts along the Mediterranean, were called *Asiatic*, and those along the Euxine, were distinguished by the appellation *Pontica*. A line drawn obliquely from the Propontis was the common boundary.

ASIDA, in Zoology, a genus of insects, of the order *Coleoptera*, family *Psephenidae*. Generic cha-

The country, between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, the Canal of Constantinople and the Tigris, forms the Asiatic part of the Ottoman empire, consisting of Anatolia, Syria, and Diyar-Bekr, or Mesopotamia. (See Turkey in Asia.) To the south of the latter country, Arabia, consisting of independent states or sovereignties held in subjection to the Grand Seignior; and to the east of the Tigris, as far as the Indus, between the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf, Persia. To the east of the Caspian, as far as long. 100° east, between Asiatic Russia and Persia, are the independent Tartars; some of whom, on the Persian confines, are held in an imperfect subjection to the Shah, or king of that country. Between the meridian mentioned above and the Sea of Japan lies the Eastern or Chinese Tartary, inhabited by the Mantchirs, who conquered China in the middle of the seventeenth century, and whose original country now forms the northern part of that Empire. On its south-western boundary it is separated from India by Tibet. That country also is now a dependency of China, and lies on the north side of the Himalaya Mountains, the Alps of Hindostan. To the south and east of China is placed the peninsula of India beyond the Ganges, occupied by Cochinchina on its western coast, and the Berman Empire in its central and western parts. On the west of the Berman Empire, is India on this side of the Ganges, comprehending Kashmir Hindustan and the Deccan: of which the two latter are now either directly or indirectly under the dominion of Great Britain. So likewise in Ceylon, at the southern extremity of India; while the Molucca islands are subject to the Dutch, and the Manilla to the Spaniards. Sumatra, with the exception of one or two small European settlements, is governed by its native chiefs. For the names of the writers from whom the best information respecting the different parts of Asia may be obtained, we must refer our readers to the articles in which those subjects are separately treated.

ASIA.
ASIDE.

character—Sides of the corselet arched, bordered, narrowed before; anterior edge concave. Antennae thicker towards the extremity.

ASIDE, on slide. See SIOX.

Estellus beris on liche.
Hys right hand for to smile in all his might.
The treble sound the dist cum, gun provide
To censure vultures, and none lap on side.

Drayton, p. 142.

With hands on high Estellus throws the foe,
But thence watch'd the motion from below,
And all'd aside, and shou'd the long descending blow.
Dryden.

This dail, of whom I made mention,
When he was crown'd almost to the town,
He all his woe and in his moustache pride.
He was woe, as he cut his eye aside,
Where that tier kniel in the light way
A conspurator of ladies, woe and woe,
Eche after other, died in clothed black.
Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, v. l. p. 37.

This knight beleeved his redill,
And as he woe have passed by,
She cleped hym, and had him aside.
And he his horn head aside
Thou turned, and to his he rode.
Gower. Con. An. book i.

ASIDE.
—
ASK.

And he took him *aside* from the people and putteth his finger into his ears and he ate and touched his tongue.

Wyclif. Mark ch. 7.

And when he had takē hym *asyde* from the people, to put his fingers into his eares, and dyd apyt, and toucht his tongue.

Bible, 1539.

This battayll was sore foughte, for hope of lyfe was set on side on every part and takyng of prisoners was perferred as a grete offence.

Helit. Henry VI.

That glorious form, that light unsufferable,
And that far-beaming blaze of majesty,
Wherewith he went at heav'n's high council-table
To sit the midst of Trinal Unity,
He laid *aside*.

Milton. Ode on the Nativity.

Thus (she purs'd) I discipline a Son,
Whose onelock'd fury to revenge wou'd run:
He champs the bit, impatient of his lash,
And starts *a-side*, and flounders at the curb.

Dryden's Hind and Panther.

Reader, whoever thou art, whatever be thy character, station, or distinction to life, if thou art afraid to look into thine heart, and hast no inclination to self-acquaintance read no further; lay *aside* this book; for thou wilt find nothing here that will flatter thy self-esteem; but perhaps something that may shate it.

Mason on Self-Knowledge.

ASILICI, in Zoology, a family of insects of the order *Diptera*—it includes the genera *Astilus*, *Dasygogon*, *Laphria*, *Dioctria*, *Gonyptus*.

ASILUS, in Zoology, a genus of insects, of the order *Diptera*. Generic character.—Antennae of the length of the head—the first articulation longer than the second, the last elongated conical, terminated by a style, having a ring at the base.—(LATREILLE.)

The insects of this genus prey upon those of the dipterous and lepidopterous orders. The larvæ feed on the roots of plants, and consequently inhabit under ground, where the metamorphosis takes place.

ASILUS CARABICIFORMIS, a British species, is figured in Samouelle's compendium, it frequents commons and heaths.

ASINUS, the Ass. See HORSE.

ASIRACA, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order *Hemiptera*, family *Clavicornie*. Generic character.—Antennæ as long or longer than the corselet; the first joint not shorter than the second, compressed, angulate.

Asiraca Clavicornis, (Delphax clavicornis Fab.) is a native of England and France—inhabits grassy places.

ASITIA, from a privative, and *airos*, food, in Medicine the same as *Anorexia*, loss of appetite without loathing of food. It is opposed to *Apositia* which signifies inversion of food.

ASK, } Goth. *Socjan*, to seek, to ask, to ques-
A'sake. } tion, Luke i. 63. Mark ix. 14. 6. A. S.
Secan, *Asecan*; perhaps *Ascan*, *Ascian*, to seek, to ask. To seek, Skinner thinks is from to see.—The German *sehen*, to see, and *suchen*, to seek, Wachter considers as differing only in their application. To seek, to question, to inquire, to require, to demand. To beg, to petition.

Heo *aschede* at Corintum, how heo so hardi were,
To hooste up þe kyng's hord, botte he leas hem gen,
Corintum saide, þat he noble woman *asche* heor,
To hoosto and to wyne hys mete, æt helbe soles and game.

R. Gloucester, p. 16.

And geif þow wolt geif þer rypp me *asche* and wryte of me,
Alþo ende of lone and þe grond ich wolt sege þe.

Id. p. 38.

ASK.
—
ASKANCE

What did kyng Eshbrut? wyltosen any somone,
And wyltosen *askyng* of erles or barons,
His hied him *asker* mygh.

R. Brivane, p. 16.

With that she freygerneth compaignie
And mith Florent, on leue it length
All that to myn *askyng* length.

What all women most desire:

This wiff I *ask*, and in thership

Where thou hast most knowledge

Take counsaile of this *askyng*.

Greene. Cos. Am. book i.

But halsew ye the lord crist in youre hartes, and coormore be ye redi to satisfacion to erl man *askyng* you remon of that feith and hope that is in you, and that with menches and faue.

Wyclif. 1 Peter, c. iii.

Bot sanctifye the Lorde God in youre hertes, be ready alwayes to geue an answer to eury mō that *asketh* you a reason of y^e hope that is in you, and that with menches and faue.

Bible, 1539.

God heareth the godly geolug to the *askers* to fyth wycism and ether gyth.

Expansion of Daniel, by Jap.

—How now, Sir John Hume!

Seal up your lips, and give no words but mums,

The business *asketh* silent secrecy.

Shakespeare's Henry VI. Part II. fol. 123.

And I beseech you come agayne to-morrow,

What shall you *ask* of me that I'll deye.

That honour (say'd) may vpon *askyng* glie.

Shakespeare's Twelfth Night, fol. 268.

Callisthenes, the philosopher, that followed Alexander's court and hated the king, being *asked* by one, how one should become the famousst man in the world, answered, by taking away him that is.

Seneca's Apophlegma.

Henry the Eighth made a law that all men might read the Scriptures, except servants, but no woman, except ladies and gentlewomen, who had leisure, and might ask some body the meaning.

Selden's Table Talk.

—Tillher he plays,

Unlusted to meet there whatever power,

Or spirit of the nethermost abyss,

Might in that noise reside, of whom to ask

Which way the newest coast of darkness lies

Bordering on light.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ii.

Ask not the cause, why solen spring

So long delays her flowers to bear;

Why warbling birds forget to sing,

And winter storms invert the year?

Chloris is gone.

Dryden's Song.

We own it to be highly proper, that men should ask themselves, why they believe: but it is equally proper for them to ask, why they disbelieve.

Sicker's Sermons.

Ask of the learn'd the way; the learn'd are blind;

This bids to serve, and that to shun mankind;

Some place the bliss in action, some in ease,

Those call it pleasure, and contentment these.

Pope. Essay on Man.

ASKA'NCE, } Probably (says Tooke) the parti-
ASKA'UNCE, } ciples *Achained* *Aschuians*. In Dutch,
ASKA'UNT, } *Schuijn*, wry, oblique. *Schuiuen*, to
ASKA'INT. } cut wry. *Schuijn*, sloping, wry,
not strait. Tooke, v. i. p. 471. Mr. Tyrwhit has a note upon the word in the following lines from Chaucer, v. ii. p. 452. *Asquint*, probably has the same origin.

And wrote away the names, as he stoold,

Of alle folk that yare ben any good,

Askenace that he wold for hem crye.

Chaucer. The Boece's Tale.

Amid this loy befall a vory chance,

That, welayw, the stranger thought full dre,

The fare she had; for as she lookte a *shance*,

Under a stole she spied two stonyng eyes

In a rounde head, with sharp eares; in France

Was never moure so feard, for the vanyus

Had not yene such a beat before.

Wyllt.

ASKANCE
—
ASKHAM.

While thus their work went on with lucky speed,
And reared ramblers their bowed fronts advance,
The accident for to man, and mortal seed,
His wistful eyes upon them bent askance.

Feijaf's Tasso, book iv.

We poor parcel-saluted souls here on earth, profess to bend
our eyes directly upon the same holy end, the honour of our
Maker and Redeemer; but, alas, at our best we are drawn to
look against at our own aims of profit or pleasure; we profess to
sing loud praises unto God; but it is with harsh and jarring
notes.

Bp. Hall's Christ Mystical.

'Twas told me you were rugged, and coy, and sullen,
And now I finde report a very liar:
For thou art pleasant, grameome, panning courteous,
But slow in speech: yet sweet as spring-time flowers,
Thou cannot not blossom, thou cannot not looke a scower,
Nor late the lip, an angry wench will,
Nor hast thou pleasure to be croasse in talk.

Shakespeare's Twining of the Shrew, fol. 216.

Whom the grand foe with scornful eye askance
Thus answered.

Milton's Par. Lost, book vi.

Grant that the sun had happen'd to prefer

A seat accout but one diameter,

Lost to the light by that unhappy place,

This globe had lain a frozen lonesome mass.

Blackmore's Creation

—As ravins pass by,

With look askance, they shake their heads and cry,

Lo! this is for whom the shepherd dy'd.

Gay's Poems, p. 555.

The little warriors doff the targe and spear,

And loud enlivening strains provoke the dance,

They meet, they dart away, they wheel askance;

To right, to left, they thrice the flying mass.

Brettell's Minstrel.

—Paric-fir'd he stood,

His wry-fold shield behind his shoulder cast,

And hemm'd by numbers with his eyes askant,

Watchful retreated.

Cowper's Idiot, book xi.

ASKERSWELL, in the county of Dorset, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £9. 2s. 6d. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population, in 1811, 181. Parish rates, in 1803, £45. 18s. 4d. It is 5 miles E. from Bridport.

ASKEW, in the Danish skiere, is wry, crooked, oblique. *Skieeer*, to twist, to wrest. *Skieret*, twisted, wrested, Tooke, i. 470.

And with that word all suddenly

She smother'd, as it were a skie,

All cleane out of the ladies sight.

Goetz, book iv.

Some bears his spears, his helmet soon, the rooster Taurus wears
Since him he slew, the mournful bands of Troians do come,
And Tyrrhen captains, Archads eke, with weapons torn'd asce,
describ'd, by T. Wygn, book xi.

With that, out of his bouget forth he drew

Great store of treasure, there with him to tempt;

But he on it look'd scornfully askew.

As much disdainful to be so misdeem'd.

Spencer's Faerie Queene, book iii. c. xx. s. 22.

This said, her spear she push'd against the ground,

And, mounting from it with an active bound,

Flew off to heaven: the bag with eyes askew

Look'd up, and mutter'd curses at the fiend.

Addison's Ovid Met., book ii.

ASKHAM, in the county of Westmoreland, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £6. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population, in 1811, 466. Parish rates, in 1803, £194. 18s. 4d. It is 13 miles W. by N. from Appleby, and 14 miles S. from Penrith, in the county of Cumberland.

ASKHAM, BAYAN, or East Askham, in the county ASKHAM. of York, a vicarage, of the certified value of £8. Church dedicated to St. Nicholas. Population, in 1811, 332. Parish rates, in 1803, £166. 9s. 1d. at 2s. 8d. in the pound. It is 4 miles W. S. W. from York.

ASKHAM, RICHARD, or West Askham, in the county of York, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £4. 13s. 4d. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 199. Parish rates, in 1803, £70. 10s. 9d. at 1s. 5d. in the pound. It is 5½ miles S. W. by W. from York.

ASLACKBY, or ASLAKBY, in the county of Lincoln, a vicarage, valued in the King's books at £12. 10s. 7½d. Church dedicated to St. James. Population, in 1811, 383. Parish rates, in 1803, £378. 6s. 6d. at 1s. 4d. in the pound, on the rack rental. It is 2½ miles S. from Folkingham. Here was formerly a commandery of the Knights Templars.

ASLACTON, in the county of Norfolk, a curacy (not in charge) of the certified value of £10. 5s. Chapel dedicated to St. Michael. Population, in 1811, 247. Parish rates, in 1803, £338. 2s. at 8s. 6d. in the pound. It is 4 miles W. S. W. from St. Mary Stratton.

ASLACTON, in the county of Nottingham, a curacy. Chapel dedicated to St. John of Beverley. Population, in 1801, 171. Parish rates, in 1803, £124. 14s. 4d. at 2s. 5d. in the pound. It is 1½ miles E. from Nottingham. Aslacton was the birth place of Cranmer.

ASLAKE, A. S. *Aslacan*, to loosen, to untie, to remit, to abate, to dissolve, to slake or slacken. *Somner*.

And on his bare knees adown they fell,

And wold have kist his feet ther as he stood,

Till at the last, askelchd was his mood;

(For pitee remeth none in grauil berie.)

Chaucer. The Knightes Tale, v. l. p. 70.

But such as of they golde they only idoll make,

Noe treasure may the rayns of their hungry hande askelch,

Burrows.

But, afterwards, your paynes harde

With in a day or twaine

Shall some askelch; and ye shall take

Comfort to you sayne.

The Not-Browne Mayd in Percy's Reliques, v. ii.

Henceforth his ghost freed from repining strife,

In peace may passen ouer Lethe lake,

When murthering slayns, purg'd with enemies life

The black infernal furies down askelch.

Spencer's Faerie Queene, book i. c. lii. s. 36.

ASLANT, on slant. See SLANT.

There is a willow grove where a brooke,

That shew his hore leures in the glassie strome,

Shakespeare's Hamlet, fol. 276.

When in the ring the rustle robe he threw,

The damsel's pleasures with his conquests grew;

Or when askew the ruihel thrats his head,

His danger smites the breast of every maid,

But chief of Marian.

Gay's Shepherd's Week.

Through his bright disk the stormy weapon flew,

Transpier'd his twisted mail, and from his side

Drove all the skin, but to his nobler parts

Found entrance none, by Pallas turn'd askew.

Cowper's Idiot, book xi. p. 195

ASLEEP, on sleep. See SLEEP.

ASLEEP.
—
ASOPUS.

Jo he hadde byn bove ydo, he fet on *aspe* rygt yren.
Hym joughe Jo yuaghe in lps slep toke byn lps chauce.
R. Gloucester, p. 14.

Jo he come vnto in pe ase, and he aslepe wat,
At tyme of mynynght of yw yrt, byn mette agreuous cna.
Id. p. 202.

This false knight vpon delate
Hath taried till thou wert aslepe,
As he that will time kepe
His deadly workes to fulfill
Gower. *Con. Am. book ii.*

—Danger! I drede me
That thou ne wilt lye
To kepe that thou hast to kepe
When thou shouldest wake, thou art a slepe.
Chaucer. *The Ren. of the Rose*, fol. 135, c. 1.

—He on his side
Laying half-ris'd, with looks of cordial love
Hung over her enamour'd, and beheld
Beside him, which whether waking or asleep,
Shot forth peculiar graces.
Milton's *Par. Lost*, book v.

For asenys as that horribill feyallycht
Hud cte his fil, and to drink wine him gylf
Sowp't in slepe, &c.
Douglas, p. 85.

For, gong'd with flesh, and drunk with human wine,
While fast asleep the giant lay supine;
Snoring loud, and belching from his maw
His ingested foam, not morose raw!
We prey, we cut the hole, and then surround
The monstrous body, stretch'd along the ground.
Dryden's *Virgil*, *Æn.* 3.

Many people think that they are in pleasure, provided they are
neither in study nor in business. Nothing like it; they are doing
nothing, and might just as well be asleep.

Chatterfield's *Letters*, cxcix.

ASLOPE. On Slope, or Slip. See SLIP.

For many times I have it seen
That many have begyled been
For trust that they have set in hope
Which fell from afterward asleep.
Chaucer. *The Ren. of the Rose*, fo. 137, c. 1.

Notwithstanding he would y^e point should be lame & more favourably
handled, not even fully plain & directly, but that y^e matter should be
touched a slope craftely, as though not spared in y^e point to speak
at the trough for fear of his displeasure.

Sir Thos. More's *Works*, fo. 58. c. 1.

The nobles of France ran with great ire vpon theyr entaynes,
thyrkyng to have oppressed them at the frist beate; but the
Flemynge, with theyr archbushers and theyr longe maynyn pykes
set a slope before theym, woldyd so theyr horses, that they laye
treinlyng one in the others neckes.
Folien, p. 410.

—On mee the curse aslope
Glanc'd on the ground, with labour I must curse
My bread, what harm? I'll send him back to war;
My labour will maintain me. Milton, *P. L.* book x.

Where porters' houghs roll from carts asleep,
Or brewers down steep cellars stretch the wep,
Where counted billets are by carmen tost,
Stay thy rash step, and walk without the post.
Gay, *Trivia*, book ii.

ASMONÆANS, in *Jewish History*, a name of the
Maccabees, the descendants of Mattathias. See MAC-
CABEES. The name is variously derived: by Josephus
from Asmonæus, who was the father of Mattathias.
By Noldius (*Hist. Hebræa*), from Mount Asamon,
in the middle of Galilee, near the city Taiporia.
By Roland (*Polestrina*), from a Hebrew word
Chasmonim, signifying Princes.

ASOPUS, in *ancient Geography*, a town of Laco-
nica, situate on the Sivas Læconicus. It has a port
in a peninsula, with Bosæ to the east, and the mouth

of the Euratos to the west. The citadel alone is now
standing, which is termed by sailors, Castel Ranspano.
Asopus is also the name of various rivers of antiquity:
one in Boeotia, which, rising near Platæa, separated
the Thebans and Platæans; another in Asia Minor,
flowing into the Lycus near Laodicea; another of Si-
conica rising in Arcadia, and discharging itself into
the gulph of Corinth.

ASP. } *Aspe, Aspen, Tremulus*, (Somner.)
A'SPEN. } Shaking, trembling. So called, because
the leaves shake or tremble with the least breath of
air. Wachter and Skinner prefer the Greek *Asperus*,
to palpitare, to tremble, to quiver.

This Hyperæsthes cast her eyes down,
And quoke as doeth the lertie of aspe greene,
Deed wext her brow, & like as ashen to seene
Chaucer. *The Legend of Good Women*, p. 210, c. 2.

This Rouspours in his stropps high he stood
Upon this frere his herte was no wood,
That like an aspen leaf he quoke for ire.
Chaucer. *The Rouspours Prologue*, v. l. p. 292.

For if they myghte be suffred to begin ones as the congregacyon
to fal in dysputing, those aspe leues of theis woud woude leues
wagging.
Sir Thos. More's *Works*, fo. 769. c. 1.

Her tongue still chate of this and that,
Then aspen leaf it wags more fast;
And as she talks she knows not what,
There issues many a truthfull blast.
Hamphrey Gilford in *Ellis*, vol. ii. p. 209.

He to him rought a dancier sharpe and kreene,
And gave it him to leade his hand dnt quene,
And tremble like a beane of aspe greene.
Spencer's *Fairie Queene*, book c. ix. c. 51.

So Philomel, perch'd on an aspen sprig,
Weeps all the night for her virginity;
And sings her sad tale to the merry twig,
That dances at such joyfull melody.
Geo. Fletcher's *Poems*.

Where near the village rose the elm-crown'd hill,
And while leav'd aspens trembled o'er the sill.
Scott's *Poems*, p. 469.

ASP, or ASPEN-TREE. See POPULUS.
ASP, } Greek deriv. Tr. ASP. Of uncertain
A'SPEN. } etymology. See Vossius.

Their throats is an open aspiculure, wth their tongues they have
disseamed: the poison of aspes is vnder their hyppes.
Bible, 1538. *Homages*, chap. iii.

For like the stings of aspes, that kill with smart,
Her spiteful words did prick and wound the inner part.
Spencer's *Fairie Queene*, book iv.

This is an aspicæ trade
And these aspe-leaves have slime vpon them, such
As th' aspicæ leaves vnder the scales of Nyle.
Shakespeare. *Anthony and Cleopatra*, fo. 368.

The deadly killing aspe when he smeth
This world of creatures sheweth his poison'd teeth.
Dryden. *Nash's Flood*.

Why did I 'scape th' enormous asp's rage,
And all the fury monsters of the desert,
To see this day?
Addison. *Cato*.

ASPALATHUM, from a primitive, and *cræu*, I
draw out; because its thorns are not easily extricated.
In Pharmacy, calambac wood. It is brought from
the East Indies. Taste resinous and bitter. It yields
a resinous extract to spirits of wine, and a cordial oil
when distilled with water. It is used in medicine as
a vermifuge; and in smaller doses in cases of cholera.

ASPALATHUS, in Botany, a genus of plants;

ASOPUS.
—
ASPALA-
THUM.

ASPALATHUS. — ASPLECT. class *Diosiphia*; order *Decandria*. Generic character. Calyx five-cleft, the superior division largest. Legumen ovate, awless, generally containing two seeds.

This genus is principally found at the Cape of Good Hope.

ASPALL, in the county of Suffolk, a curacy. Population, in 1811, 94. Parish rates, in 1803, £51. 12s. 8½d. at 1s. 7½d. in the pound. It is 6½ miles S. by E. from Eye.

ASPARAGUS, in Botany, a genus of plants; class *Hexandria*; order *Monogynia*. Generic character. Corolla six-partite, erect, three inner petals reflexed at the apex. Berry of three cells, two-seeded.

This genus contains several species, the principal of which is the following:—

A. officinalis, (Common Asparagus, vulgarly Sparrow-grass.) Stem herbaceous, cylindrical, erect, leaves setaceous, stipule in pairs.

This plant, in its native state, is met with, although rarely, on the sea-shore of the south of England. When cultivated it is well-known as one of the most highly prized vegetables of the kitchen-garden. The root is perennial, but the stalks or shoots are annual. When asparagus is raised from seed, it requires three years growth before it produces shoots of a proper size; but, after it has arrived at that age, it affords an annual supply for many years, continuing to rise for six or eight weeks during the summer: after which the stalks run up and flower, and the seeds are perfected in the autumn. The plantations of asparagus should be renewed every ten or twelve years, as the shoots by that time begin to degenerate.

ASPARAGUS-STONE, in Mineralogy, a yellowish-green variety of phosphate of lime, found principally near Cabo de Gato, in Spain: its name is derived from its colour. See MINERALOGY. Lime, phosphate.

ASPATRIA, or ASPATRICK, in the county of Cumberland; a vicarage, valued, in the King's books, at £10. 4s. 6d. Patron, the bishop of Carlisle: Church dedicated to St. Kentigern. Population, in 1811, 919. Parish rates, in 1803, £157. 16s. at 1s. 5d. in the pound. It is 8 miles N. from Cockermouth.

ASPECT, *v.* } *Aspicia*, *aspectum*, from *aspice*, *aspicio*, to look and *aspicio*, *aspicio*, from *aspicio*, to look and *aspicio*, to view. Sir William Temple chooses to render the Latin *Aspicio*, *Aspicio*, *Aspicio*. The verb is unused. Any thing looked at, seen, viewed; the appearance, face or countenance; the point of view.

O mighty god, that all hast wrought,
And all might have seen to sight:
Now know I, but all of thee,
This world hath no properties,
In thy aspects ben all alike,
The poor man and the rich.

Geoffrey, *Can. Am.*, book 1.

And all his blissful Visions were arrayed
Faint in her smooth bosom of human flesh
Disposed wide, and with aspects purged
To help self Troylus of his woe.

Chaucer, *Troilus*, book II. fo. 161. c. 2.

No joy of sight that under heaven doth have
Can comfort me, but her own joyous sight;
Whose sweet aspect both God and man can move,
In her unsated pleasure to delight.

Edmund Spenser in *Elife*, vol. II.

The image of a wicked heinous fault
Lives in his eye: that close aspect of him,
Do show the mood of a much troubled breast.

Shakespeare, *King John*, fo. 15.

That this destruction (the Basilisk killing at a distance) should be the effect of the first beholder, or depend upon priority of inspection is a point not easily to be granted.

Brown's *Falgar Errors*.

Strictly taken, the heart is seated in the middle of the chest; but, after a careless and inconsiderate inspection, as according to the recent sense of palpation, we shall not quarrel, if any affirm it is seated toward the left.

Brown's *Falgar Errors*.

Thou fearest, as a man: I cannot blame thee: but thou must overcome thy fear, as a Christian; which thou shalt do, if from the terrible aspect of the messenger, thou shalt cast thine eyes upon the gracious and amiable face of the God that sends him.

By *Hall's Balm of Gilead*.

Plebeus, chap. 19, saith they are most prone to this burning lust, (love) that have Venus in Leo in their horoscope, when the Moon and Venus be mutually aspected, or such as is of Venus complexion.

Burton's *Anatomy of Melancholy*.

His words here ended, but his mock aspect
Silent yet spoke, and breath'd immortal love
To mortal men.

Milton, *Par. Lost*, book III.

Less bright the Moon,
Not opposite in level'd west was set
Her mirror, with full face borrowing her light
From him, for other light she needed none
In that aspect, and still that distance keeps
Till sight.

Milton, *Par. Lost*, book VII.

The throng is in the midst: The common crew
Shout out, the hall admitteth the better few.
In knots they stand, or in a rank they walk,
Serious in aspect, earnest in their talk.

Dryden's *Fables*.

Why may there not be in the Divine mind something like a projection of the future history of mankind, as well as of the actual and various aspects of the greater bodies of the world.

Wolsten's *Religion of Nature*.

The British have a lively animated aspect; the Picts, though never so beautiful, have dead, unvarnished countenances.

Spectator, No. 41.

When there happens to be any thing ridiculous in a visage, and the owner of it thinks it an aspect of dignity, he must be of very great quality to be exempt from ridicule.

Spectator, No. 17.

Now to this use and purpose of informing us what is abroad round about us in this expectable world, we shall find this structure and mechanism of the eye, and every part thereof, so well fitted and adapted, as not the least curiosity can be added.

Ray on the Creation, p. 208.

Happy in their mistake, these people whom
The northern pole aspects, whom frost of death
(The greatest of all human fears) ne'er moves.

See *W. Temple's Works*, v. III. 303.

Wak'd by the crowd, show from his bench arose
A comely full-opend porter, swain with smile:
His calm, broad, thoughtful aspect, breath'd repose;
And in sweet torpor he was plung'd deep,
Ne could himself from careless yawning keep!

Thomson, *Casle of Indolence*, canto I.

They arriv'd
Where well-nigh all the mightiest close around
Tybides stood, in aspect lion-like,
And terrible in strength as forest bears.

Corper, *Iliad*, v. 94.

ASPECT, in Astronomy, is the situation of the stars and planets in respect one to another. Or, in astrology, it denotes a certain configuration and mutual relation between the planets, arising from their situations in the zodiac; by which it is supposed that their powers are mutually either increased or diminished, as they happen to agree or disagree in their

ASPECT.

ASPECT. active or passive qualities. These aspects are usually five in number, viz.

ASPERN. The sextile \times , when two stars or planets are 60 degrees from each other.

The quartile \square , when 90 degrees distant.

The trine Δ , when 120.

Opposition \updownarrow , when 180.

Conjunction \odot , when both are in the same degree.

Kepler defines Aspect to be an angle formed by the rays of two planets meeting on the earth, capable of exciting some natural power or influence. Wolfius, more accurately, calls it "the meeting of luminous rays, emitted from two planets to the earth, either posited in the same right line, or including an angle, which is an aliquot part, or some number of aliquot parts, of four right angles, or of 360 degrees."

ASPEDEN, in the county of Hertford; a rectory, valued, in the King's books, at £15. 5s. 2d. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 367. Parish rates, in 1803, £316. 18s. 7d. at 4s. 6d. in the pound, on the rack rental. It is three-quarters of a mile S.W. from Buntingford.

ASPEN-TREE. See **PORULUS**.

ASPERGILLUM, in *Zoology*, a genus of the class *Conchifera*, order *Dinmoria*, of the system of Lamarck. Generic character. A tubular testaceous sheath, gradually decreasing anteriorly; apex pervious; enlarged at the other extremity into a closh, which has on one side two valves incrustated into its substance. The terminal disk convex, pierced with scattered sub-tubular foramina, and having a fissure in the centre.

Animal unknown.

A beautiful species of this genus, *A. Jaronum*, (Serpula penis of Linné), has long been known to collectors under the name of the water-pot shell. It is only since the introduction of the modern and more philosophical principles of arrangement, that the true nature of this singular production was ascertained, and its proper situation assigned. Cuvier supposes that the animal, which has never been examined, is analogous to the *Terebella*, and places it in the class *Annulata*, and order *Tubicolæ*. But Lamarck very properly observes, that the shell properly so called is bivalve and equivale, and forms a portion of the calcareous tube which envelopes the animal. He therefore gives it its situation in the system, near the *Fustulana*, and in the family immediately preceding the *Pholades*.

ASPERN, a market town of Austria, on the north side of the Danube, on a small arm of which river the town is built. It is chiefly known for a bloody conflict between Bonaparte and the Archduke Charles, on the 21st and 22d of May, 1809. On the first day the Austrians had the advantage, and retained possession of the town, which was the chief object of contest. On the second they succeeded in destroying the bridges which Bonaparte had constructed between the island of Lobau and another smaller island, which divided the course of the Danube in this point; so that the French were separated from their artillery and ammunition, their heavy cavalry, and a large corps d'armée which were advancing from the right bank of the river. Bonaparte in consequence was obliged to abandon the field of battle, and effected his retreat to Lobau. It was the first reverse he had sustained in Germany. The loss on both sides was enormous. Of the Austrians nearly 21,000 were

killed and wounded. Of the French, 7,000 were hurled on the field, and upwards of 5,000 wounded were left in the hands of the enemy. Many hundred corpses daily flowed down the Danube, and nearly 30,000 wounded were distributed in Vienna and its suburbs. In this battle, Lannes, a favourite officer of Bonaparte was killed. Napoleon's the bulletio was described to be much affected by his death.

ASPERSE, } *Asperge*, from *ad*, and *Spargo*, to scatter, to sprinkle.

To scatter or sprinkle over; to cast or throw upon; to cast blame or censure. And consequently to blame, to censure, to calumniate.

We had so long groined, we had so long erred to God for a Prince; that except he had in the most desired birth of the same, asperred the death of your most dear mother: we should by our immoderate felicitie have stept, and provoked him to take you bodie from us.
Edw. Fain the Kynges Maister.

If thou dost breake thy virgin-knot, before

All sanctimonious ceremonies may

With full and holy right, be ministered,

No sweet asperious shall the heavens let fall

To make this contract grow.

Shakespeare. Tempest. fol. 14.

Not doubting but under the fortitude of the most ingenious and generous spirits, this may not only cure, but shed a benevolent shelter from those many envious and injurious detractions, which the ignorant may asperiously cast thereon.

St. Paul. Drake Revised.

As new opinions broached are cause of much discord, so are also wrongful and calumnious asperious cast upon the innocent.

Sp. Hall's Peace-maker.

It fell out, as an unhappy advantage to some men malice against me, that when they had impudence enough to say any thing to my charge, this bloudy opportunity should be offered them, with which I must be asperred.

For he who tempts, though in vain, at least asperes

The tempted with dishonour foul, suppos'd

Not incorruptible of faith, not proof

Against temptation. Milton's Par. Lost, book ix.

Jup. I will not leave thee lyable to scorn,

But vindicate thy honour from that wretch

Who wou'd by base asperious blot thy virtue.

Dryden's Amphitryon.

Legions of ignis spirits were believed to take often possession of the bodies of men, from whence nothing could drive them but asperions of holy water.

Bolingbroke's Essay on Human Knowledge.

—He set his voice

At highest pitch, and thus asper'd the king.

Cowper's Iliad, book ii.

—He sent him thence

To Lycia, with the blackest crimes asper'd

In tablets closely seal'd, which he should show

To queen Astia's father, there, and die.

Cowper's Iliad, book vi.

ASPERUGO, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character. Calyx five cleft, unequal with alternate smaller teeth. Corolla (short), infundibuliform, its orifice closed with convex connivent scales. Seeds or ovules covered with the conduplicate and compressed calyx. Hooker Flor. Scot. 61.

The *A. procumbens*, or German madwort, is occasionally met with in waste places, both in England and Scotland.

ASPERULA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Tetrandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character. Corolla monopetalous, infundibuliform. Seeds two, globose.

The *A. odorata*, or sweet-scented Woodruff, a com-

ASPERN.

ASPERU-

LA

ASPHAL-
TITES
LACUS.

mon plant in this country, is remarkable for its delightful scent when dried.

ASPHALTITES LACUS, a lake of Judæa, so called from the asphaltum produced by it. It is called also the Sea of the Plain, and the Salt Sea. (*Deuteronomy* iii. 17. *Joshua* iii. 16.) The first because the Jordan, after irrigating a spacious plain, the *pays riches* of Josephus, loses itself in this lake. The second from the quality of its waters. Besides these names, it has more commonly that of the Dead Sea, from an opinion held by St. Jerome and others, that no fish would live in it. (Hieron. *Comment. ad Es.* 47. Diodorus Siculus ii. 48.) Sometimes too it is called the Sea of Sodom, and the Sea of the Desert; because, according to Josephus (*Ant.* i. 10.) it occupies part of the valley of Siddim, in which the city of Sodom stood before its destruction.

Almost all the ancient geographers have described this lake. Josephus, Julius Africanus, and Pausanias notice it after personal visits. Josephus makes it the southern boundary of Canaan, (*Ant.* ix.) and assigns its distance from Jerusalem to be 300 stadia, (xv. 9.) He speaks of its water as salt, and of its shores as barren; that heavy bodies would float upon them, and that men thrown into them, though bound, would swim. He believes the Pentapolis of Sodom and Gomorra not to have been sunk beneath the site of this lake, but to have been overwhelmed by fire in the neighbourhood of it; and he mentions their shadows (*scias*) as yet visible (*de bello v.*)

Julius Africanus states, that all living bodies swim, and dead bodies sink in this lake; that burning torches in like manner float, and when extinct fall to the bottom. Pausanias confirms the first of these assertions, and remarks that the Dead Sea, as he calls it, is affected in every respect differently from other waters, (v. 7.)

The scriptural account of the overthrow of the offending cities, in no way leads to a belief of their submersion in water. On the contrary, every word in every passage of the Old or New Testament allusive to this terrific event, speaks of fire as the agent. Yet Maundrell mentions persons of credibility, who told him that they had seen columns, and ruins of buildings under the surface of the lake; and D'Herbelot cites Daoura, as one of the five cities, the remains of which are still visible. (*Bibliothèque Orientale*, vol. xvi.)

The lake is at present called Almotanah, and Bahret Lout by the Arabs, and Ula Deguisi by the Turks. Its water is much saltier than that of the ocean, and its specific gravity is 1.211, according to Malte Brun, that of fresh water being 1.000. Its figure approaches to a semicircle, the convexity of which is to the west. It is said to be 24 leagues in length, and four or five in extreme breadth. Hitherto only one European, has succeeded in making the circuit of it; and Nau, who in his travels had recorded this expedition of Daniel, Abbot of St. Saba, states on his authority, that "the Dead Sea, at its extremity is separated as it were into two parts, and that there is a way by which you may walk across it, being only mid leg deep, at least in summer; that there the land rises, and bounds another small lake of a circular or rather oval figure, surrounded with plains and mountains of sand, and that the neighbouring country is peopled by innumerable Arabs." M. Seetzen, in

the year 1805-6, passed round the southern extremity of this lake; but a short account only of his route, a quarto of forty-seven pages of correspondence with M. de Ziehl, printed by the Palestine Association in 1810, has yet appeared. M. Burckhardt was unable to reach its borders. He was informed in its neighbourhood, that no visible increase of its waters takes place during winter, as the greater part of the torrents which descend from the eastern mountains are lost in the sandy plain before they reach the lake. Some Arabs assured him that there were spots in a ford about three hours north of Safey, (the extreme southern point of the lake,) in which the water is quite hot, and the bottom of red earth. This ford may be crossed in three hours and a half; the water here is generally not more than two feet deep, and it is probable there are hot springs in the bottom. It is so strongly impregnated with salt, that the skin peels off the legs of those who wade across it. Besides the river Jordan, the lake receives six lesser streams; and as it has no visible outlet, and there is no apparent increase of its waters, it was long conjectured that a vent was found through subterraneous channels. But evaporation only is sufficient to account for the phenomenon.

Most of the marvellous properties of this lake are now exploded. It was once considered an *ærenum*, but birds are observed to fly over it uninjured. No living creature was supposed to exist in its waters; but the exuvie of fish are often cast upon its shores. The apples of Sodom which grew on its banks, have been described both by Josephus and Tacitus, (*Hist.* v. 8.) Later writers have also mentioned them in similar terms, among whom we may cite the veracious Maundrell, "and there besydan grown trees, that barren full fair apples, and faire of colour to behold; but whose breketh them, or cutteth them in two, he schalle fynde within them coles and cyndres." Milton has made fine use of this legend, after the transformation of Satan and his bad angels into serpents, when they are tempted to eat the apples growing on trees resembling the forbidden tree of knowledge.

—Greedily they plucked
The fruitage fair to sight, like that which grew
Near that bituminous lake where Sodom burned;
This, more delusive, not the touch, but taste
Deceived; they, fondly thinking to allay
Their appetite with gait, instead of fruit
Chewed bitter sobs.

Par. Lost. v. 506.

Reland, Neret, and Maundrell reject the whole account as a fable; but Hæuselquist, the botanist, asserts the apples of Sodom to be the production of the *Solanum melongena* of Linnæus. This is found, he says, in great abundance round Jericho, and in the neighbourhood of the Dead Sea. The dust with which it is sometimes filled, is the work of an insect, (*Tentredo*), which pulverizes the whole of the inside, leaving the rind entire and unchanged in colour. M. Seetzen does not agree with this conjecture; he saw at Kerek a species of cotton which he was told was produced from a fruit resembling a pomegranate growing on the borders of the Dead Sea. It is this pulpy fruit which he is induced to think is the *melon odonemum*. Viscount Chateaubriand saw a thistle fruit growing on a thorny shrub, which, before it is ripe is filled with a corrosive, and saline juice,

ASPHAL-
TITES
LACUR.
—
ASPHAL-
TUM.

and when dried yields blackish seeds resembling ashes, and tasting like bitter pepper.

The asphaltum or bitumen produced by this lake, floats upon its surface, and is stated to rise from the bottom of the water in huge lumps, which explode as soon as they are affected by the external air. It abounds in the neighbouring mountains, and resembles black pitch, from which it is only to be distinguished by its fætid and sulphureous smell.

ASPHALTUM, *Bitumen Judaicum, or Jews Pitch*. One of the varieties of bitumen, (see MINERALOGY.) It is a brittle, blackish substance, having a smooth conchoidal fracture; it melts when heated, and readily burns, giving out a dense, black smoke. The Egyptians employed it in embalming their dead, and the scarilots of mummies made with this substance, remain perfectly unaltered to this day. Strabo and Diodorus mention this substance; the former, lib. xvi., gives an accurate description of its properties, and, in particular, refers its evolution from the earth to the action of subterraneous fire; he quotes Eratosthenes for its use as an ingredient of the mortar with which the walls of Babylon were built. Pliney makes mention of its similar application, lib. xiv. ch. 15; he enumerates the places where it is produced, and after describing its medicinal virtues, he states that it is farther employed for painting or colouring statues. The ancients were well aware of its acrid relation to Naphtha, and recount some strange stories dependent upon its highly combustible nature. At present it enters into varnishes, being soluble in some oils and, eminently so in rectified Petroleum or Naphtha.

Asphaltum is found in Switzerland and at Avlonia, in Albania. It is abundant on the surface, and on the shores of the Dead Sea in Judea, where these lumps are collected by the Arabs for sale.

The most abundant deposits of this substance are in the islands of Barbadoes and Trinidad; in the former it is found as an highly bituminous earth, but being in a state of great impurity, is only used as a coal for fuel. In the latter island is a complete lake of this substance. On one side of the island, a cape or headland projects considerably into the sea, and upon this cape, at an elevation of 80 or 100 feet above the level of the sea, the tar lake, as it is called by the English, is situated. Its strong and disagreeable smoke is perceptible at a considerable distance out at sea; and on a nearer approach, the surface appears smooth as a mirror. The circumference of the lake is a circuit of about three miles, its depth is unknown; but in hot weather the surface becomes softened to the depth of an inch, so as to preclude the possibility of walking upon it. At other times it is covered with insuperable fissures, which are continually closing in one part, and re-opening in some other, so as to render it probable that the whole mass is floating. These fissures are eight or ten feet deep, and contain clear water, abounding with small fish.

The bitumen is collected by breaking lumps from the mass with hatchets, and is principally employed, when mixed up with grease, for a coating, in place of tar, on the bottoms of ships.

Some portions adjoining to the land are scoracious, and all this part of the island is said to possess strong indications of the agency of fire. See Strabon's *Geog.* Pliney *Hist. Nat.*—*Phil. Trans.* 1789.—Nicholson's

Journ. vol. ii. p. 804.—Hagbes's *Natural History of Barbadoes*. Linnæan *Transact.* vol. viii.

ASPHODELUS, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Hexandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character. Corolla six-partite. Nectary of six valves covering the germen.

A beautiful genus of the lily tribe, well known to cultivators.

ASPHYXIA, from a *privation*, and *σφίξις*, a pulse, in *Medicine*, the state, during life, in which the pulsation of the heart and arteries cannot be perceived. Medical writers usually divide this suspended animation into *Lipothymia*, *Apoplexia*, *Syncope*, *Submersio*, *Suspensio*, and *Congelatio*. The following is the mode of treatment in all cases of apparent death, from these causes, recommended by the Royal Humane Society.

Prevention of Death, Cautions.—1. Never to be held up by the feet.

2. Not to be rolled on casks, or other rough usage.

3. Avoid frictions with salt, or spirits, in all cases of apparent death.

Restoration of Life.—*What thou doest, do quickly*.—*The Drowned*.—1. Convey carefully the body, with the head and shoulders raised, to the nearest convenient house.

2. Strip and dry the body; clean the mouth and nostrils.

3. Place young children between two persons in a warm bed.

4. An adult.—Lay the body on a blanket or bed, in a warm chamber, in winter: to be exposed to the sun in summer.

5. To be gently rubbed with flannel; a heated warming-pan, covered, lightly moved over the back and spine.

6. If no signs of life appear, the warm bath; warm bricks, &c. applied to the palms of the hands, and soles of the feet.

7. To restore breathing, introduce the pipe of a pair of bellows (when no apparatus), into one nostril, the other nostril and the mouth closed; inflate the lungs, till the breast be a little raised; the mouth and nostrils must then be let free:—repeat the process till life appears.

8. Where a bellows, or any proper apparatus cannot be had; immediately attempt to excite the natural inspiration and expiration, by pressure on the breast, ribs, and muscles of the body, merely by the hands, so as to press out as large a portion of air as possible, and then removing and applying the pressure alternately, in order to imitate the natural breathing, and promote the introduction of atmospheric air, in proportion to the quantity pressed out from the air-cells of the lungs. This process has proved highly successful; and as any person may apply it, as well as a medical professor, it should not be delayed a moment.

9. Electricity early employed by a Medical Assistant.

Intense Cold.—Rub the body with snow, ice, or cold water.—Restore warmth, &c. by slow degrees, and, after some time, if necessary, the plans to be employed for the resuscitation of drowned persons.

Suspension by the Cord.—1. A few ounces of blood may be taken from the jugular vein, and cupping-

ASPHODELUS.
—
ASPHYXIA.

ASPHYXIA. glasses may be applied to the head and neck; leeches also to the temples.

2. The other methods of treatment, the same as recommended for the apparently drowned.

Suffocation by Noxious Vapours, or Lightning.—Cold water to be repeatedly thrown upon the face, &c. drying the body at intervals.—If the body feels cold, employ gradual warmth, and the plans for the drowned.

Intoxication.—The body is to be laid on a bed, &c. with the head a little raised: the neckcloth, &c. removed, obtain immediately Medical Assistance, as the modes of treatment must be varied according to the state of the patient.

General Observations.—1. On signs of returning life, a ten-spoonful of warm water may be given; and, if the power of swallowing be returned, warm wine or diluted brandy; to be put into a warm bed, and if disposed to sleep, will generally awake restored to health.

2. The plans above recommended are to be used for three or four hours. It is an absurd and vulgar opinion to suppose persons are irrecoverable because life does not soon make its appearance.

3. Electricity and bleeding never to be employed, unless by the direction of the Medical Assistants.

The following most extraordinary case of Asphyxia is related by Dr. Cheyne, in his *English Malady*, p. 307.

"*Case of the Hon. Colonel Townshend.*—Col. Townshend, a gentleman of excellent natural parts, and of great honour and integrity, had for many years been afflicted with a nephritic complaint, attended with constant vomitings, which had made his life painful and miserable. During the whole time of his illness, he had observed the strictest regimen, living on the softest vegetables, and lightest animal foods, drinking asses milk daily, even in the camp; and for common drink Bristol water, which the summer before his death he had drunk on the spot. But his illness increasing, and his strength decaying, he came from Bristol to Bath in a litter, in autumn, and lay at the Bell-inn. Dr. Baynard, (who is since dead,) and I, were called to him, and attended him twice a day for about the space of a week, but his vomitings continuing still incessant and obstinate against all remedies, we despaired of his recovery. While he was in this condition, he sent for us early one morning: we waited on him with Mr. Skrine, his apothecary, (since dead also); we found his senses clear and his mind calm, his name and several servants were about him. He had made his will and settled his affairs. He told us he had sent for us to give him some account of an odd sensation he had for some time observed and felt in himself; which was, that composing himself, he could die or expire when he pleased, and yet, by an effort or some how, he could come to life again; which it seems he had sometimes tried before he had sent for us.

"We heard this with surprise, but as it was not to be accounted for from now common principles, we could hardly believe the fact as he related it, much less give any account of it, unless he should please to make the experiment before us, which we were unwilling he should do, lest in his weak condition, he might carry it too far. He continued to talk very distinctly and sensibly above a quarter of an hour about this (to him) surprising sensation, and

insisted so much on our seeing the trial made, that we were at last forced to comply. We all three felt his pulse first; it was distinct, though small and throesly;

and his heart had its usual heaving. He composed himself on his back, and lay in a still position some time; while I held his right hand, Dr. Baynard laid his hand on his heart, and Mr. Skrine held a clear looking-glass to his mouth. I found his pulse sink gradually, till at last I could not feel any, by the most exact and nice touch. Dr. Baynard could not feel the least motion in his heart, nor Mr. Skrine the least soil of breath on the bright mirror he held to his mouth; then each of us by turns examined his arm, heart, and breast, but could not, by the nicest scrutiny discover the least symptom of life in him. We reasoned a long time about this odd appearance as well as we could, and all of us judging it inexplicable and unaccountable, and finding he still continued in that condition, we began to conclude that he had indeed expired the experiment too far, and at last were satisfied he was actually dead, and were just ready to leave him. This continued about half an hour, by nine o'clock in the morning, in autumn. As he was going away we observed some motion about the body, and, upon examination, found his pulse and the motion of his heart gradually returning; he began to breathe gently, and speak softly; we were all astonished to the last degree, at this unexpected change, and after some further conversation with him, and among ourselves, went away fully satisfied as to all the particulars of this fact, but confounded and puzzled, and not able to form any rational scheme that might account for it. He afterwards called for his attorney, added a codicil to his will, settled legacies on his servants, received the sacrament, and calmly and composedly expired about six o'clock that evening. Next day he was opened (as he had ordered,) his body was the soundest and best made I had ever seen; his lungs were fair, large, and sound, his heart big and strong, and his intestines sweet and clean; his stomach was of a due proportion, the coats sound and thick, and the villous membrane quite entire; but when we came to examine the kidneys, though the left was perfectly sound and of a just size, the right was about four times as big, distended like a blown bladder, and yielding as if full of pap; he having often passed a wheyish liquor, after his urine, during his illness. Upon opening this kidney, we found it quite full of a white chalky matter, like plaster of Paris, and all the fleshy substance dissolved and worn away, by what I called a nephritic cancer. This had been the source of all his misery; and the symptomatic vomitings from the irritation on the consentient nerves, had quite starved and worn him down. I have narrated the facts as I saw and observed them, deliberately and distinctly, and shall leave the philosophic reader to make what inferences he thinks fit. The truth of the material circumstances I will warrant."

It is to be regretted that Dr. Cheyne did not inquire, or neglected to record, the patient's own sensations (if he had any), during this singular state of suspended animation.

ASPIDIUM, in Botany, a genus of plants; class *Cryptogamia*, order *Filices*, or *Ferns*. Generic character: Sori, roundish, scattered. Indusium, umbellicate, or opening on one side.

ASPHYXIA.
—**ASPIDIUM.**

ASPI-
DIUM.
—
ASPIRE.

The root of the *A. Filix Mas*, or Male-fern, a common plant in this country, has been recommended for the cure of worms.

ASPII, in *Ancient Geography*, a people of India, conquered by Alexander in a battle on the river Euphrates. Neither this people nor this river are mentioned by any other author except Arrian. Major Rennell conjectures that the Aspii inhabited one of the divisions of Cabul. Rennell's *Memoir*, 172. D'Anville, ii. 99.

ASPIRE, } *Aspiro*, from *ad*, and *Spiro*,
ASPIRANT, } which Tooke considers to be the
ASPIRATE, n. } A. S. *Spirian*, ('Teut. *Spereuen*.
ASPIRATE, adj. } Belg. *Spereu*). "To search out
by the track, or trace, to inquire
and make diligent search,"
(Somner). In Scotch, to *sperre*,
sperir, *sperre*. *Spirian* after—is—
to aspire after.

To search after or pursue eagerly, ambitiously; to
pant through eagerness of search, or pursuit; (and
thus applied to the breath.)

To pant after, to desire eagerly, to be ambitious,
to reach or attain.

To *aspire* is to breathe strongly.

But clouded of tois retired,
Do choke aspiring minds,
Which turn to raise of late repent,
By course of changed wisdoms.

A Sonnet by Q. Elizabeth in Percy, v. li.

Now have I learn'd with much ado, at last,
By true disdain to kill desire;
This was the mark at which I shot so fast;
Unto this bright I did aspire.

Sir Walter Raleigh to Ellier, v. li.

There, lavish nature, in her best attire,
Fours forth sweet odours and alluring sights;
And art, with her contending, doth aspire
To excel the natural with made delights.

Edmund Spenser, Ib.

That shall come to pass, if we shall, as it were setting mortalitie
apart, desponsedly *aspire* unto that contrivance of heaven with all our
whole heart, the exuberance whereof shalldeth them that obey
the gospel.

Udal, 1 Peter, chap. 3.

And that it so may to God's honour and the profit of some good
folke, I hartely beseeche our lord, without the *antiparagis*
and helpe of whose speciall grace no labourer of man can profite, and
to whom therefore he all thanks referred, which liveth and
reigneth in eternall glory.

Sir Thos. More's Works, fol. 357. c. 2.

By chance feeding in Seydois that Britania in Grece, with a
circumfused *aspiration*, doth signify metelles, also returns be-
longing to the common treasure, I than conceyred this opinion.

Grafton, v. i.

Ayer is the thirde of elementes,
Of whose kinde his *aspirations*
Taket every liniaire creature
The which shall vpon erth endure.

Gower, Con. d. book vii.

— All his host
Of rebel angels, by whose aid *aspiring*
To set himself to glory above his peers,
He trusted to have equal'd the Most High,
If he oppos'd.

Milton's Par. Lost, book i.

O how should we long for that triumphant day! and with most
ardent *aspirings* pray; "thy kingdom come in its full power and
glory!"

Boat's Works, v. 4.

Th' *aspirer* once utters'd unto the top,

Cuts off those means by which himself got up.

Daniel's Poems, book ii.

And expressed in his whole life to perfect and exemplary
a virtue, and yet so much sweetness and gentleness towards those
aspirers to it, that the most short of it, that the Jews them-
selves could say of him, that he had *done all things well*.

Boyle, Seraphic Love.

Forth went they, through blacke blood and armes and presently

aspire'd

The guardhouse Thracian regiment, fast bound with sleepe, and
tied.

Chapman, Homer, li. 2.

Such wot'y oracles young boys do love,
Out from their noisy shells, and much admire
The swimming world, which tenderly they row
With easy breath till it be waded higher:
But if they chance but roughly once *aspire*,
The painted bubble instantly doth fall.

Gen. Fletcher's Poems, p. 71.

Those (consonants) are still *aspirated*, which seem to be
mixed with (H), and are usually so written & & X. But in propriety
of speech, if *aspiration* be defined to be an impetus of
breathing, then these consonants cannot so fully be said to be
aspirated, but rather *increased* by compression of the breath in
framing of them.

Willms. Real Character.

But if my heavy blood restrain the flight
Of my free soul, *aspiring* to the heights
Of nature, and unclouded fields of light;
My next desire is, void of care and strife,
To lead a soft, secure, inglorious life.

Dryden's Virgil, Georg. 2.

E're yet th' *aspiring* off-spring of the grain

O'retops the ridges of the furrow'd plain.

Dryden's Virg. Georg. 1.

In this *aspiring* flight she rais'd herself so high, that though I
will not say, she left the earth beneath her very sight, yet I may
say, that she soared quite out of ours.

Boyle's Occasional Reflections.

The advent'rous barren the bright locks admird;
He saw, he wadh'd, and to the prize *aspire'd*.

Pope, Essay of the Locks.

I require then of our young *aspirant* to the name and honours
of an English senator, that his mind be early and thoroughly
seasoned with the principles of virtue and religion.

Hurd.

With this he mingled the Attic contractions, the broader Doric,
and the feebler Æolic, which often rejects its *aspirate*, or takes off
its accent; and completed this variety by altering some letters
with the licence of poetry.

Pope, Preface to Homer.

She lives for no other purpose but to preserve the neatness of a
house and gardens, and feels neither inclination to pleasure, nor
aspiration after virtue, while she is engrossed by the great em-
ployment of keeping gravel from grass, and valuing from dust.

Johanna. The Rambler.

The prudent boast of the most *aspiring* philosopher is no
more, also that he provides his little play-fellows the greatest
pastime with the greatest innocency.

Goldsmith on Politic Learning.

Who can endure the primness of those minute *gravis*, who, be-
cause the truly inspired, in the ravings of the fit, are tossed with
the flame and fury of enthusiasm, must, therefore, with a tame,
fright fancy, be laying claim to the same fervent and fiery rap-
tures. The fate of these *aspirants* to divinity is that *deceivably*
luculity, n. v. *luculity* (ennu and videretur insinuat esse, non baruchianum,
and insinuat.)

Hurd, Notes on the Art of Poetry.

ASPIRATE, in Grammar, from *aspire*, to breathe.
It is a character or accent importing that the letters
over which it is placed ought to be strongly pro-
nounced. This accent to the Greek is called *spiritus*
aspir, and supplies the place of the letter h before the
vowel over which it is placed, as in *αλφ*, the sea, pro-
nounced *hals*.

ASPLENIUM, in Botany, a genus of plants; class
Cryptogamia, order Filices, or Ferns. Generic char-
acter: Sori linear, transverse, scattered. Indusia
arising from the lateral veins, and opening towards
the central nerve or rib.

ASPIRE.
—
ASPLE-
NIUM.

ASPLEY
GUISE.
— ASPRE.

Several species of this genus, are common in this country.

ASPLEY GUISE, in the county of Bedford; a rectory, valued in the King's books at £15. 16s. 10d. Patron, duke of Bedford. Church dedicated to St. Botolph. Poor rates in 1803, at 2s. 6d. in the pound, £247. 14s. 4d. Population in 1811, 827. The village is 2 miles N. W. from Woburn, 43 from London; and the rectory in 1796, was consolidated with that of Husbourn Crawley.

ASPORTATION, *Asporto*, from *ad*, and *porto*, (*φέρω*, a burden, from *φέρω*, I bear), to carry.

There must not only be a taking but a *carrying away*, *explet et asportant* was the old law-latin. A bare removal from the place in which he found the goods, though the thief does not quite make off with them, is a sufficient *asportation*, or *carrying away*.

Blackstone, v. iv.

ASPRE, } *Lat. Asper*, unfit for cultivation,
ASPRELY, } *εὐπρόσ ὁ μὴ εὐκρίβητος*. Scaliger
ASPRENESS, } and Vossius. Or more immediately
ASPRATE, } from *Asperos*, without seed, unpro-
ASPRITY, } ductive of seed. And therefore ap-
ASPREOUS, } plied to that which is harsh, tough,
rugged, craggy; to that which is sharp, biting, bitter,
moose.

For both to that one man, and also to that other, the like difficulty is the matter, to that one man of increase of his glorious renown, and to that other man, to conserve his sapience, that is to say, to the asperness of his estate, for therefore is it called virtue, for that it sustains and enforceth by his strength, so that it is not overcome by adversities.

Chaucer. Boecius, book iv. fol. 234. c. 2.

For if Cresside had erst complained sore
The gun she plain a thousand times more

Chaucer. Troilus and Cresside, book iv. fol. 180. c. 3.

The Carthagenians perceiving divers young Romans, thence themselves into the sea, and swimming unto the ships, enforced their enemies to stryke on land, and there assaulted them so *asprely*, that the capitaine of the Romans, called Lucatius, might easily take them.

Elyot, p. 62.

We should not muche mede with wordes and reasoning, to extenuate and minish the vyggour and *aspretye* of the paynes, but the greater and the more bitter that the passion were, the more ready was of olde tyme the fervor of faith to suffer it.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 1218. c. 1.

Now is every kind of roughness, though sensible enough, inconsistent with whiteness; there being cases wherein the physical superficies of a body is made by the same operation both rough and white; as when the level surface of clear water being by agitation asperated with a multitude of unequal bubbles, does thereby acquire a whiteness; and as a smooth piece of glass, by being scratched with a diamond, is in the asperated part of its surface discoloured the same colour.

Boyle on Colours.

For I might urge, that he seems not consonant to himself about the red, which, as you have seen in one place, he represents as somewhat more *aspreous* than the blue; and in another, very smooth.

Id.

I can scarce believe, that our blind man could tell all the colours he did, merely by the ribbons having more or less of *asprety*; so that I cannot but think, notwithstanding this history, that the blind man distinguished colours not only by the degrees of *asprety* in the bodies offered to him, but by forms of it, though this (latter) would perhaps have been very difficult for him to make an intelligible mention of.

Id.

The example of our Saviour is accommodated for all men; especially comforting them in the hardest and roughest parts of the way leading to him, the scellivies and *aspreities* of duty.

Burrow's Sermons.

ASPRE.
— ASS.

I hope it is no very cynical *asprety* not to confess obligations where an benefit has been received, or to be unwillling that the publick should consider me as owing that to a patron, which Providence has enabled me to do for myself.

Johnson. Letter to Lord Chesterfield.

In all cases where religious errors are to be confuted, temperate discussion, in the true spirit of Christian charity, is the mode we ought invariably to pursue; without giving way to any personal invective, any *asprety*, either of language or of conduct, towards those who have the misfortune to differ from us in opinion.

Porteus's Tracts.

Dread son of Saturn! why these words to me?

Far less *asprety* might serve to chide

My first enquiry; for I ever left

Till now, thy secret counsel to his course.

Corpus's Riad, book I.

ASPREDO, in Zoology, a genus belonging to the family *Siluridae*, order, *Malacopterygii* *Abdominales*, class *Pisces*. Generic character—head flat, the eyes placed above, body large, tail long; the gill flap immovable, in place of the gills a simple slit in the skin, on the external margin of the head; pectoral fin strongly denticulated; a single weak dorsal fin; the oval very long and extending to the tail.

This genus is very remarkable as being the only one of the osseous fishes known, which has the gill flap incapable of motion, the pieces of which it is composed being soldered together to it, they are bearded with six or eight small tentacula, and are natives of India, there are but very few species.

ASPREMONT, a small town of the Netherlands, in the duchy of Limburg, south of Liege, from which an ancient noble family takes its title.

ASPY, v. } Used as we now used *espy*. See
ASPY, n. } *Espr*.

Was he grandeur were alle y shawe, but he bi leved no mo,
But wende for) into Engolond, and asprely yv and don
For to seke an one place, to make an broad toth.

R. Gloucester, p. 23.

In due season, as she always *asprely*
Every thing to execute conveniently

The one lower first feadly she cied

The second she offred the cuppe *asprely*.

Chaucer. The Rem. of Laure, fol. 323. c. 2.

Tite that hadde he with me while he was bethene was compellid to be circuncidid, but for false brethren that weren brought in whiche hadden entrid to *aspre* oore freedom which we kan in crist have to bryng us into seruage.

Wiclif. Galatians, c. 2.

For Jon seide to Eroude it is not lewful to thee to have the wyf of thi brother, and Eroude kide *aspre* to him, and wolde he him and myghte not.

Id. Mark, ch. vi.

ASS, } *Lat. Asinus*, of uncertain etymology.
ASININE, }
ASSLERE, } *V. Vossius*.

Je comen of je oede bouht jam hors fleuch,

Or mules or asin route, or haf bion meir leue.

R. Brunne, p. 175.

And said awake full wonderliche and sharpe

What slumshrest thou, as in a litargie.

O art thou like an *ass* to the lurge

That leweth noon, when men y' stirrings ply?

But in his minde, of that no merdrie

May sinke him to gladen, for that he

So droll is, in his bestialite.

Chaucer. Troilus, book I. fol. 156. c. 1.

If thou wert the fox, the lion would suspect thee, when peradventure thou wert accus'd by the *ass*: if thou wert the *ass*, thy sinness would torment thee: and still thou livest but as a breakfast to the wolf.

Shakespeare. Titus of Athens, fo. 33.

ASS.
—
ASSAFETIDA.
TIDA.

Should I make't my study,
And lay all ways, yea, call mankind to help,
To take his burden off, why, this one act
Of his, to let his wife out to be courted,
And, at a price, proclaim his *concubine* nature
So loved, as I am weary of my title to him.

B. Jonson. The Devil is an Ass.

For indeed, I had much rather, since truly I may do it, shew
their mistaking of *Pheto*, under whose lion's skin they would
make an *ass-like* braying against *purty*, than go about to over-
throw his authority; whose the wiser a man is, the more just
cause he shall find to have in admiration.

Sidney's Arcadia, vol. ii. p. 39.

As when a dull mill *ass* comes scuro a goodly field of corn,
Kept from the birds by children's cross; the boys are overborn
By his insensible approach, and simply he will eat,
About whom many wads are broke, and still the children beat;
And still the self-providing *ass*, doth with their weakness heave,
Not stirring till his pouch be full; and scarcely then will sterve.

Chapman's Hind the Jewess, p. 152.

As the slow beast with heavy strength *in*de'd,
In some wide field by troops of boys pursu'd,
Tho' round his sides a wooden trumpet rain,
Crops the tall harvest, and lays waste the plain;
Thick on his hide the hollow hammers rattle,
The patient animal maintaining the ground,
Scarcely from the field with all their efforts chas'd,
And stirs but slowly when he stirs at last.

Pope. Homer's Hind.

As when (the boys *en*peru'd) a sluggish *ass*,
Whose tough sides *ent* have shiver'd many a staff,
Enters the harvest, and the spiny ears
Crops persevering; with their rods the boys
Still ply him hard, but all their puny might
Scarcely drives him forth when he has brow'd his fill.

Gay's Hind, book ii.

ASSACANI, or ASSACINT, in *Ancient Geography*,
a people of India, subdued by Alexander. Arrian
(iv. 3.) uses the first name. Curtius (viii. 10.) the
second. The last historian relates, that in an assault
on Mazaga, the metropolis of this nation, Alexander
was wounded in the leg; and that, when the blood
stiffened upon him, he asked his courtiers, how, if he
was the son of Jupiter, it happened that he felt pain?
On the surrender of the city, the queen mother,
Cleophes, who was regent during her son's minority,
captivated Alexander by her beauty, and bore a son
to him, who, according to Justin (xii. 7.) succeeded
to the throne. The canton and city, at present called
Ash Nagur, have guided later geographers to the
position of the Assacani. D'Anville calls the modern
province Kakamar (ii. 99.), which Major Rennell places
in the country of Souhad.

ASSAFETIDA, in *Pharmacy*, is a gum resin pro-
cured from the root of a large umbelliferous plant,
growing in the mountains of several provinces of
Persia, and on the borders of the Persian Gulph.
Its taste is acrid, and continues long upon the tongue.
When chewed, it becomes plastic, and soon dissolves
in the saliva into a white milky fluid. Its smell
(as its name imports) is extremely strong and fetid;
and when analysed it is found to consist of an essential
oil or resin, and a gummy substance.

ASSAFETIDA is regarded as a powerful antispasmo-
dic, crurative, and antelmintic medicine, and is
of particular service in hypochondriac affections, when
the bowels are torpid and the digestion deranged.
It has also been used with effect in spasmodic asthma,
and in the spasmodic state of the whooping cough.
It is useful likewise in flatulent colic, though, on ac-
count of its heating quality, it should be avoided in all
cases where fever is present. See Murray's *Appar.*
Med. Bergii Mat. Med.

ASSA'ILL,
ASSA'ILABLE,
ASSA'ILANT, s.
ASSA'ILANT, adj.
ASSA'ILER,
ASSA'ILMENT.

Fr. Assailler. Barb. Lat. *Ad-*
assillare. Lat. *Assillare*, to leap to
or against; from *ad* and *assillo*;
from the Greek *ἀσσυλον*, to leap.
To leap, spring, or run against;
to set upon, to fall upon, to
invade, to attack.

ASSAIL.

Je kysse made hym wroynghen, and no wonder yf was,
For strange men in hys own leude duyn such leasur,
For a *seculer* ys loved, and to robberye drawe,
And robberye ys better, and ys gaue, and hys men shewe.
He wille with all ys power, and *assail* hym a newe

G. Gower, p. 16.

Bot Alfrede his brother gude to be bataille.
He was over hardy, for Daren he gan assaille.

R. Branner, p. 23.

How may this be (qd. I) for often han shrewes me assailed,
and mofel boldnes therein have I founden, and some semeth best,
to be somewhat in kind.

Chaucer. The Test of Love, book ii. fo. 396. c. 4.

And when that he was exultant,
He goth, and hath the feld assailed,
And though, and take all that he fende.

Spenser. Con. Art. book ii.

They that be coll, beere eleven double coll, because they
beere armist defousing, to defend their own coll; and armist
offensive to assail the coll manner of other. *Golden Booke.*

Diem does this *assail* offend, not to the life lose of the
Engleishmen, whiche take more hartie of the delictors than they
gat hurt of the *assailants*.

Hall. Henry F. fo. 77. c. 1.

This *assail* dured long, and the Scoties lost many of their
men, for they shewerth themselves very hardy, and carryed
wood and timber to have filled the ditcher, to the intent to bring
their engines to the waller, but they within defendid them so
valiantly, that the *assailants* were faine to drawe back.

Grafton, vol. i.

For what a filthy thing is drunkenesse and gluttony! The
greatest *assails* of chastity and shamelessness; and enemies of
honest name.

Instructive of a Christian Woman, by F. Jones.

Then know'st, that Banquo and his Pleas live.

LADY. But in them, nature's cunning not sterner.

MACH. There's comfort yet, they are *assailable*.

Shakespeare's Macbeth, fol. 141.

I opened it (not without fear and *assailment* of my senses)
knowing that it must have some serious occasion which could
move her to write unto me, being absent, seeing shee did it so
rarely, even when I was present.

Shelton's Trans. Don Quixote, ed. 1652.

Bas. Sit downe a-while,

And let us once againe *assail* your rage,

That are so fortified against our story,

What we two nights have secue.

Shakespeare's Hamlet, fol. 152.

On either side

Disparted Chaires were built *assail'd*,
And with rebuoming urge the hearts *assail'd*,
That scord's indignation.

Milton. Per. Lust, book 3.

And as an ev'ning dragon came,
Assail'd on the perched roosts,
And nests in order rag'd,
Of tawie villatic rule.

Milton. Samson Agonistes.

New pang of mortal fear me mids assail.

We tug at ev'ry oar, and hoist up ev'ry sail;

And take th' advantage of the friendly gale.

Dryden. Assail.

All heeds he reads, and ell he reads assail,

From Dryden's Fables downe to Dryden's Tales.

Pope. Essay on Criticism.

His most frequent *assailment* was the head-ache, which he
used to relieve by inhaling the steam of cotton, which he fre-
quently required.

Johnson's Lives of the Poets, Pope.

ASSAR,
—
ASSASSIN

————— He would not stoop
To conquer those by jocular exploits,
When truth and soberness must'd in vain.
Crowder's Poems.

ASSAR, in *Geography*, a river of Abyssinia, forming the southern boundary of the territory of Arrossi. Bruce describes this river, in the spot at which he forded it, to be 170 yards broad and two feet deep. It runs with great rapidity from the mountains of the Agowa, and loses itself in the Nile. Bruce forded it about seven miles above its junction with the Nile. Below the ford is a cataract. Bruce iii. 562.

ASSARIUM, *deadpear, bryony* to *ricinatus*, says Eusebius, the fourth part of an ounce. It is, however, used in many ancient authors to denote a small piece of money *minimus eris summus*. Pinkerton makes the *assarium* to be the diminished *as*, and says it was of half an ounce, and always struck in copper, till the reign of Gallienus, when it sank to the eighth part of an ounce; and still lower in the time of Diocletian and Justinian, when it fell down to the twentieth part. Scaliger inclines to the opinion, that the *as* and *assarium* were of the same value among the Latins. Gronov. *Thes. ix.* 1504. F.

ASSASSIN, v. } Of unsettled etymology,
ASSASSIN, n. } though Caseneuve, Menage, and
ASSASSINACY, } Du Cange, particularly the two
ASSASSINATE, v. } former have written much, and
ASSASSINATE, n. } learnedly upon it. Applied
ASSASSINATION, } to him who attacks unawares,
and murders those unprepared for defence.

Divulging first a fair apology
Of his clear heart, touching the foul report
Of that assassin's; which utterly
He doth abjure: protesting, in no sort,
T' agree thereto, in will or privy.

Daniel's Hist. of the Civil War, book iv.

And let him ask the Jesuits about him, whether it be not their known doctrine and also practice, not by fair and due process of justice to punish kings and magistrates, which we disavow not, but to murder them in the basest and most assassinous manner, if their church interest so require.

Milton on the Articles of Peace, &c.

This spiritual anarchy, this deepest dye of blonde being most Soteriologically designed on souls, and because they cannot get these into their power) practicing it in rigor, slaughtering them here in this Father Calvary, the place for the crucifying of reputations, turning men (upon any, upon no occasion) out of the communion of their charity, when they cannot out of bliss, and no doubt rejecting many, whom the angels entertain most hospitably.

Hammond, Sermon 1st.

Hammond, Sermon 1st.

I find that the Saracen prince, of whom the name of the assassin is derived, which had diversatories at commandment, which he sent and employed to the killing of divers princes in the east, by one of whom Amurath the First was slain, and Edward the first of England was wounded, was put down and rooted out by common consent of the Mahometan princes.

Bacon's Works, vol. II.

ORD. But, one thing more,
Jocasta told me thou wert by the chariot
When the old king was slain? Speak, I conjure thee,
For I shall never ask thee ought again,
What was the number of the assassins?

Devon's CE Series.

He [Oliver Cromwell] said, assassinations were such detestable things that he would never begin them: but if any of the king's party should endeavor to assassinate him, and fail in it, he would make an assassinating war of it, and destroy the whole family; and he pretended he had instruments to execute it whenever he should give order for it. The terror of this was a better security to him than his sword.

Bishop Doane's Hist. of His own Times, vol. 1.

It, in the judgment of mankind, seems heinous offenders, as parricides, the assassins of kings, the betrayers of their country, contract no great a guilt as exceeds the most exquisite torments that the criminal can endure; and no less than death, that for ever deprives of all that is valuable and pleasant in this natural life, is an equal punishment to it; what temporal sufferings can expiate sin against God.

Plato on the Immortality of the Soul, vol. i, p. 21.

There was a petty prince in Asia, commonly called The Old Man of the Mountain, who had acquired such an ascendancy over his fanatical subjects, that they paid the most implicit deference to his commands; esteemed assassination meritorious, when sanctioned by his mandate; courted danger, and even certain death, in the execution of his orders; and fancied that, when they sacrificed their lives for his sake, the highest joys of Paradise were the infallible reward of their devoted obedience.

Hume's History of England

The greatest monarchs stood in awe of this prince of the Amazons, (for that was the name of his people; whence the word has passed into most European languages.)

Hume's History of England, vol. II.

No pale suspicion of th' empoison'd bow,
Th' assassin's postard, or provok'd revolt,
Chace from my decent couch the peace deny'd
To his resplendent canopy.

Gleason's *Lexicon*, book v.

ASSASSINAGE OF HASBASTIANS. OF, according to SOME writers, ASSABINIANS, probably from the Persian word *hassianin*, a poisoned used for private murders. These people were a sect of Mahometans, and appeared first about the year 890. Their earliest chief was a pretended prophet, named Karmat, who drew many followers by releasing them from all the restrictions common to the disciples of Mahomet, and promising unbounded enjoyment to such as implicitly obeyed his commands. In process of time these people obtained possession of ten or twelve cities, and chose a leader to whom they gave the name of *the Old Man of the Mountains*, and under whose direction they perpetrated the most savage yet secret massacres. It being a part of their creed for those to expect perfect happiness, and every sensual enjoyment hereafter, who perished in the performance of their leader's commands, their devotion; and the will of their chief may be easily imagined; and a singular instance is recorded by Ebn Amid, in *his History of the Saracens*.—In 1090, Abd Shih, third son of the *Old Man of the Mountains*, a messenger to Hualien, the *Old Man of the Mountains*, who pretended, calling on him for obedience, and accompanying him, to have with certain threats as the consequence of refusal. Hassan desired the ambassador might be admitted.

and, having his troops assembled round him, commanded one of them to destroy himself; the man, without the slightest hesitation, stabbed himself to the heart, and fell dead at his sovereign's feet. He then commanded a second to precipitate himself from the nearest tower; and was instantaneously obeyed. "Go," said Hassan, "to the sultan, your master, and inform him that I have no other reply to make him, excepting that I have seventy thousand troops equally obedient with those you have this day witnessed." The sultan took the hint; and, says the historian, having other matters on his hands, thought it not advisable to prosecute a war against that prince. The Assassins, in 1199, assassinated Conrad, marquis of Monferrat, who had rendered himself obnoxious to them, by putting to death some of their companions. In 1231, they destroyed Lewis of Bavaria; and, indeed, the greatest and most powerful

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monarchs stood in awe of their displeasure, since no precaution was sufficient to guard any person from the effects of their revenge. They were destroyed, in 1257, by Holoen, the cham of Tartary, although a remnant, under the title of *Iranachians*, existed so late as 1280, when they were finally extirpated by the Mamelukes.

ASSATION. *Assum* from *ardeo*, to burn. Scalliger.

In the *assation* or roasting, it will sometimes shade a drama, that is threecore grains in weight. *Brown's Fulgur Errone.*

Assation is a concoction of the inward moisture by heat, its opposite is semination. *Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.*

ASSAULT, *v.*

ASSAULTING, *n.*

ASSAULTABLE, *a.*

ASSAULTER, *n.*

Assilio, *assultum*, to leap

assultum, to assault. See *As-*

assultum, to assault. See *As-*

assultum, to assault. See *As-*

jo he adde a wile frent, *ys* armes he gan to caste,

And wyl gret earnest day ver, & assailed Edmond raste,

Myd al ye strenght put he myght, & swere more jurte

Al ver he no soille went, for he were overcome so.

ys knowt bygan to reote, for ys assaut was ydo,

And bet Edmond, as in pes, sword here ower uo.

R. Gloucester. p. 308.

Kyng Suzan gaf assaut, he wailles to assile,

Mykelle folk he las, & tynt his raiment.

R. Brunne, p. 43.

Also the maid captain and his compaignie promise, to defend the said castle against all comers, bearing gentlemen of name and armes, and the assaulters to deunce, all manner of engines for the assaulting, edge tole breake the house and ground, only except.

Holt. Henry VIII.

Sherding of blood, as manful hardiness

No oft wounding at assaut by distress

Nor in parting of life, nor death also

All is for thought, lone talen; no head thereto.

Chaucer. Complaint of the Blacke Knight, fo. 272. c. 4.

The lofty pine the great wide ofen river;

With violenter sway false turret steps;

Lightnings assaut the hic mountains and clives.

Surrey.

Good-wyll, the maister of the shot,

Stode in the rampire brave and proude,

For space of powder he spared not

Assault! assault! to crye aloud.

Lord Haue in Percy, vol. ii.

And by assaut he wan the cite after,

And rent adown both wall and spere, and rafter.

Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, vol. i. p. 41.

But whanne there was made an assaut of the kethene men and the jewis with their pryces to tormente and to stoore hem, that andiristoden and seiden togidre to the citeis of lecouye and listra and derien, and into alle the centre aboute.

Wyclif. Deeds of Apollis, ch. 14.

Wht there was an assaut made both of y^e Gentes & also of the Jewen with their priues, to do the vioules & to stonne th^e they were wnt of it, & fled vnto Lyra & Deria, cities of Lycaonia, & vnto the region y^e lyeth roid about.

Bible, 1539.

But one great parte named them self through the woodes, and came to logyne with them, that were at keepings of the castell. And all togidre prepared themselves for to defende that cite thereof, that was assailable.

Thucydides, book iv.

When the master of the ordinance had all thinges ready, at the houre of iij. of the clocke in the morning he discharged the ordinance continually in such a fashion, that by viij. of the clocke the xxvij. day of October the walls were made lowe & the towne assailable.

Holt. Henry VIII. fo. 120. c. 1.

In many places at once the walls, either undermined or shaken with the ram, came tumbling down. But as the town it self was assailable, so the hearts of the townsmen were invincible.

Holland's Lory.

Thereupon there was a hot assaut given to the city of Placentia, with great store of sundry engines. Howbeit, Spertina's men had the better, and having with great slaughter repulsed the assailants, they saved one of the goodliest, the greatest, and most flourishing cities of all Italy.

North's Placentia.

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At length a universal hubbub wilde
Of stunning sounds and voices all confus'd,
Born through the hollow dark assaults his cure
With loudest vehemence.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ii.

Now clamors from th' ivoried palace ring;

We run to die, or disengage the king.

So hot th' assault, so high the tumult rose,

While ours defend, and while the Greeks oppose.

Dryden's Æneis, fol. 302.

Say what strange motive, godden! could compel

A well-bred lord t' assault a gentle belle?

Pope. The Rape of the Lock, v. l. p. 108.

ASSAULT, from *assultus*, Latin; an onsel or attack. In law, every attempt or offer to do personal violence to another, is considered an assault. Thus, striking at a person, or using menacing attitudes, whether followed, or not, by an actual blow, will amount to an assault. There are even *dicta* in the old authorities, which go the length of holding, that irritating and threatening words are an assault: but this opinion is now exploded. The definition of assault given by Finch, L. 202, is "an unlawful setting upon one's person." In an indictment, or action, for an assault and battery, (which last term denotes the unlawful striking of another, and requires some injurious act to have been done to the person, though ever so slight an one, as spitting in the face, or touching, however gently, is *asper*), if the battery be proved, it will be sufficient, though the assault be ill-laid: for the law understands every battery to include an assault. So, on the other hand, a defendant may be found guilty of the assault and acquitted of the battery. In actions for assault, the ordinary pleas in justification are,—that the plaintiff commenced the affray—that the injury complained of was necessary to the defence of the defendant's person or property—that the defendant was an officer in the act of executing a legal process—a parent, master, or teacher, moderately and needfully chastising his child, apprentice, or scholar, &c. It is not held sufficient to plead that the injury done to the plaintiff was accidental, and not wilful or premeditated, unless it appear to have been wholly and necessarily inevitable; for the law is, that no man shall be excused of a trespass, unless it may be judged utterly without his fault. To discourage suits for frivolous assaults, it was enacted, by the 22nd & 23rd Car. II. cap. 9, that where a jury gives less than forty shillings damages for an assault, the plaintiff shall recover no more costs than the verdict amounts to, unless he obtain the certificate of the judge, that both assault and battery were sufficiently proved.

ASSAULT, v. } *Fr. Essayer.* It *assaggiare*; which *Assa's*, *n.* } *Ménage* pronounces to be from the particle *ad*, and the noun *assap*, *assap*, *supa*, *assap*, curious genealogy. *Supor*, *supoi*, *supas*, *supa*, *assap*, *assaporem*, *assapierem*, *assapire*, *assapire*, *assapire*, *assapire*. In the derivation of essay (q. v.) from the Italian *Saggio*, *sapiens*, Minshew, Junius, and Skinner agree.

To try or attempt, to examine, to prove, to endeavour, to search, to explore.

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So jas he moate for syn mynself swel at he ende.
Je ojer dogter he hadde a syster, jas he ne durste to hire wynde.
R. Gloucester, p. 54.

It was on a day Edward jouht a wile,
He said he wold assay her horn alle in a mile.
R. Bruner, p. 219.

Bi feith their passion the seed as as bi drye lond, which thing
espies assayng were denoured. *Wicli'. Ebrewe, c. 14.*

By fayth they passed thorow y^e seed as as bi drye lode : which
when the Egyptys had assayd to do, they were drowned.
Bible, §539.

He went his way, and neuer the preest him sey
After that day : and when that this preest shold
Maken assay, at swiche time as he wold,
Of this recell, farwel, it wold not be.
Chaucer. The Chauncer Ymages Telle, v. li. p. 258.

Neither is it enough to have taken a cleadre taste or assaye
thereof, but it muste be receyved and coumouled into the veyne
bowels, that as soone as it is receyved within the stomache,
the vertue thereof maye have full course to reasse every waye thorow-
out all the veins.
Udal. Pref. to Luke.

— I have two boyes
Seeks Percy and thy selfe about the field :
But seeing them saydst so me so luckily,
I will assay then : so defend thy selfe.
Shakespeare's K. Henry IV., part 1, fol. 72.

Shakespeare's K. Henry IV., part 1, fol. 72.

Great are thy vertues, doubtless, best of fruits,
Though kept from man, and worthy to be admird,
Whose taste, too long forborn, at first assay,
Gave education to the taste, and taught
The tongue not made for speech to speak thy praise.
Milton's Par. Lost, book ix.

— Him there they found
Squat like a toad, close at the eare of Ere ;
Assaying by his devilish art to reach
The organs of her fancy, and with them forge
Illusions as he list.
Milton's Par. Lost, book ix.

She thrice assay'd to speak ; her accents hung
And falt'ring dy'd unfinished on her tongue,
Or vanish'd into sighs : with long delay
Her voice return'd ; and found the wonted way.
Dryden's Fables.

As the old serpent has variety of wiles, so he fits them to the
various temper of the persons he assays to work upon.
Bayly's Occasional Reflections.

Him (Æneas also, warlike gray with age
Ascending to his chamber, and his doors
Suiting importunate, with earnest pray'r
Assay'd to soften, kneeling to his son,
Nor less his sisters woe'd him to relent,
Nor less his mother.
Cowper's Hind, book ix. p. 160.

Cowper's Hind, book ix. p. 160.

ASSAYING OR ESSAYING.

ASSAYING, or ERBAYING, is a term applied to a limited species of chemical analysis, the object of which is, to ascertain the quantity of gold or silver in a metallic alloy. This process is invariably made use of in the examinations of the precious metals in all mints, in the purchase of bullion, and in the attestations of the degrees of purity of manufactured articles of plate. From these important applications assaying constitutes a distinct art, and although its principles are chemical, yet there is so much of distinct application, that it will be necessary to enter more into technical detail, than can be consistent with the limits of any purely scientific article.

The assayer's object does not extend to the separation of all the metals that may be combined in one ingot ; but only to ascertain how much gold or silver it may contain. The principle acted upon is this, that all except the noble metals are capable of being oxidated by exposure to air at a high temperature ; and the oxide thus formed may be fused into a sort of opaque glass, which is absorbed by some porous body made use of for supporting the button of metal submitted to examination. Thus, if a mass containing gold, silver, and lead, be placed on a support made from the ashes of burnt bones, called a cupel, and then subjected to a violent heat, the alloy enters into fusion, the lead is oxidated and vitrified ; the opaque glass thus formed is absorbed by the cupel, and a button containing only silver and gold remains. The silver is separated from the gold by another process, hereafter to be described.

Some idea of the delicacy of the operation may be formed from an authentic statement, that in our national mint, an assay of 30 grains is relied on for giving the value of a mass of gold of 15 pounds, or of silver of 60 pounds in weight.

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The instruments of the Assayer are as follows :

A Balance, of extreme delicacy, but of course on the usual principle and construction, and therefore described under that word ; but it is necessary to remark, that the beam should be capable of supporting a considerable weight in each scale ; and to be very good, ought to turn with a weight equivalent to the fifth decimal place of the whole weight in the scale. The weight employed both in the purchase of bullion, and in computation, is the troy pound and its subdivisions. For the most convenient divisions of the smaller weights, we refer, as before, to the article BALANCE. In this place it may be as well to explain the mode by which the degree of purity of a precious metal is expressed, as it is peculiar to the art in question. For this purpose we extract the following from an article on the subject, by Mr. Mushet, of the Mint, in the *Sup. Encyclop. Brit.*

" If the assaying of silver, a given number of grains are taken, which is called the assay pound. This assay pound varies from 14 to 24 grains troy. This imaginary pound is sub-divided into ounces and penny-weights, and the latter into half penny-weights, which is the lowest term used in reporting assays of silver ; so that there are 480 different reports for silver, (this being the number of half penny-weights in the pound), and therefore each nominal half penny-weight weighs one-twentieth of a grain troy, when the entire assay pound is 24 grains.

" The report of an assay of silver is made according to the proportion of pure metal which it is found to contain. The legal standard of sterling money of silver is 11 oz. 2 dwts. fine, and 18 dwts. alloy. If an assay of silver was found to contain 11 oz. only of pure silver, it would be reported, worse 2 dwts., meaning worse than standard silver by 2 dwts. or 48 grains in the

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"When bullion thus assayed and reported, is for sale, its value is calculated by reducing the bar or first example, if the ingot of silver weighed 50 lb., there would be deducted from the weight 2 dwts. per pound, or 5 oz., which 5 oz. is the excess of alloy above the proportion of 15 dwts. to the 11 oz. 2 dwts. of fine metal, and the bar of silver would be in standard weight 49 lb. 7 oz. troy. By a similar calculation upon the other example, when the metal is reported better than standard by 4 dwts., the ingot of 50 lbs. would be estimated as a standard ingot, weighing 50 lbs. 20 oz. troy.

"The gold assay pound which is from 10 to 90 grains troy, is sub-divided into 24 carats, and each carat into four assay grains, and each grain into quarters; so that there are 384 separate reports for gold, each equal to 15 troy grains, or what is termed a quarter carat grain. An accurate assayer, however, can ascertain in an assay of gold to three grains troy; but it is the custom of the trade not to report less than a quarter carat or 15 grains troy. A substantial reason is given for this rule to justify the practice of it. An ingot of gold generally weighs a journey weight, which is 15 lbs. troy; from a sample cut from the two opposite ends, weighing from 10 to 20 grains, the value of the mass is to be determined; if this ingot had been imperfectly melted, the mass would not be homogeneous, and a difference might exist in it of several troy grains; and the allowance between the quarters given in the assay report is an indemnity to the purchaser.

"The assay report of gold is made according as it is better or worse than standard. The standard of our gold coin is 92 carats fine, and two carats alloy. If by assay, an ingot of gold was found to contain 91 carats fine gold, it would be reported worse one carat, the mass containing a carat of alloy more than standard proportion. If the ingot weighed 15 lbs. troy, there would be deducted from the gross weight one carat or 240 grains troy, reducing the standard of the mass to 14 lbs. 11 oz. 10 dwts. If, on the contrary, the mass was found to contain 93 carats fine gold, it would be reported one carat better than standard, and a similar mode of calculation will give the gross weight considered as standard gold, 15 lbs. 10 dwts. When the gold assay pound or integer is only 12 grains, the quarter assay grain weighs actually only one-thirty second of a troy grain. This will show how delicate the scales must be with which the assayer works, in order to obtain accuracy."

The *Assay Furnace* used at the mint is thus described.

Plate IX. *Mucellaneous*, Fig. 1, "AAAA is a front elevation of the assay furnace; a one of two iron rollers on which the furnace rests; b the ash-pit; c the ash-pit dampers, moving in a horizontal direction towards each other, for regulating the draught of the furnace; d the door, or opening by which the cupels are introduced into the muffle; e a moveable funnel or chimney, by which the draught of the furnace is increased.

"BBBB, Fig. 2, is a perpendicular section of fig. 1; a a ends of the rollers; b the ash-pit; c one of the ash-pit dampers; d the grate; e the plate upon which the muffle rests, and which is covered with

loam nearly one inch thick; f a section of the muffle representing the situation of the cupels; g the mouth plate, and upon it are laid pieces of charcoal, which during the process are ignited, and heat the air that is to pass over the surface of the cupels; h the interior of the furnace, exhibiting the fuel.

"The total height of the furnace is 2 feet 6 inches; from the bottom to the grate 6 inches; the grate, muffle, plate, and bed of loam with which it is covered 3 inches; from the upper surface of the grate to the commencement of the funnel, e, is 6 inches. The square of the furnace which receives the muffle and fuel is 11½ inches, by 15 inches. The external sides of the furnace are made of plates of wrought iron, and are lined with a two inch fire brick.

"Fig. 3 is the muffle, a sort of small oven, made of crucible clay, and open at one end. On the floor of the muffle the cupels are ranged in order, so that by a corresponding board as a register, the position of each may be preserved with reference to their respective contents. At the sides of the muffle are three or four slits to allow of the circulation of the air, which is essential to the process. It is usual to spread over the floor of the muffle a thin layer of sand, or powdered chalk, to prevent the fused oxide of lead which may penetrate the cupel, from cementing it to the bottom of the muffle.

"Fig. 4 is the muffle plate on which it rests in the furnace.

"Fig. 5 is the door seen at d in fig. 1, with its sliding mouth plate.

"Fig. 6 represents the mode of closing the mouth of the furnace with cylinders of charcoal, which being ignited, heat the air, before it arrives at the surface of the metal in the cupels.

"Fig. 7 two cupels; they are made of bones calcined and reduced to a moderately fine powder, which is mixed up with water so as to form a paste. The shape is produced by ramming this paste into truncated conical moulds, a cavity is then formed at the upper surface of each by means of a round ended pestle or rammer. The cupel is disengaged from the mould, and suffered to become thoroughly dry in the open air before it can be made use of for an assay. The core of ox horns is considered the best substance for producing the phosphate of lime for cupels. Those commonly employed in the mint are one inch in diameter by seven-eighths in depth. There is another sort of furnace constructed by Messrs. Anfray and D'Arcet, of which a representation is given in Fig. 12 and 13; the advantages of this furnace consist in its being more portable, and where only a few assays are required, they may be readily made at a small expense of fuel.

"Fig. 12 is a representation of this furnace, of which Fig. 13 is the perpendicular section.

"AA is the body of the furnace, which the French term the laboratory; B is the hearth; C the ash-bin; D the bottom of the furnace, having an opening at E for the admission of air. F is the grate which separates the hearth from the ash-bin, and is perforated by conical holes, with the larger aperture at the bottom, to allow the ashes readily to fall through; I is a small transverse opening for introducing a rod to clear the grate. M is the muffle, introduced within the mouth of the furnace. G is the door by which the mouth of the muffle is more or less closed, as may

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suit the operation. H, is a sort of shelf, making part of the furnace for a support to the mouth piece G. L, is the dome of the furnace, accurately fitting upon the laboratory A A. N, is an opening for the admission of coke or charcoal in small fragments. T, the door of the opening N. The dome N is surmounted by an iron chimney, 18 inches high, and about $\frac{1}{2}$ in diameter. To raise a sufficient heat in this furnace speedily, the opening E is closed by its door, and at the aperture P, the pipe from a pair of double bellows may be introduced. This furnace separates at three different points, as may be seen by the figure; its horizontal section is an oval, of which the greater diameter is between seven and eight inches. At S is an opening, into which a fire brick slides, and projecting into the furnace, serves for a support to the end of the muffle if necessary. V, is a circular plate of iron, which turning round, serves as a valve to regulate the draught. W, is a sort of gallery, on which the cupels are placed, that they may become heated gradually, before they undergo the more violent action of the fire.

Lead is employed to a considerable extent in assaying, and to ensure accuracy, it is material that the lead should be entirely free from, or contain only a known weight of silver; to effect this, it is usually reduced from litharge; but even with this precaution, it is said to contain about half a grain of silver in the pound weight. As the success of an assay depends very much on the addition of the proper quantity of lead, it is desirable at first to make some approximation to the state of purity of the ingot for examination. In this country, such a judgment is formed from inspection only, as to the colour, hardness, tenacity, &c., of the metal, but formerly touch needles were employed for this purpose. They are, however, not entirely in disuse, and consist of small bars of differently proportioned alloys, of known composition. A streak is made with the ingot upon the surface of a piece of black flint, or basalt, or, a species of indurated slate, called by the ancients *Basaver*, and still known by the name of *Basanite*. By them it was employed as a touchstone for ascertaining the purity of gold. A fragment of black pottery may also serve for this purpose. By comparing the streaks thus made, with those on the same stone from needles of known composition, the purity of the ingot is inferred.

The indication obtained from the appearance of the streak, is further aided by the feeling excited in making it, such as hard or soft, harsh or greasy, &c. In addition to this, the effect produced on the streak by nitric acid is examined; a drop is suffered to remain a few seconds on the stone, and then washed off. If the appearance is but slightly altered, there evidently is not much copper, but if the mark is nearly effaced, it shews that but little gold existed in the alloy. When the proportion of copper is but small, it is shielded by the gold from the action of the acid; and therefore to extend the scale of examination, a compound acid is employed, which, according to Vauquelin, should consist of 98 parts of nitric acid of specific gravity 13.40 (Beaumé), two parts of muriatic acid of specific gravity 1.173, and 25 parts of water.

Having thus made an approximation to the purity of the ingot, the next point to be determined is the quantity of lead required to remove the base metal that it may contain. On this subject we cannot in the same space afford better information than will be derived from the following passage, and table given in Aikin's *Chemical Dictionary*, article *Assay*.

"Copper, the usual alloy of the fine metals when taken singly, is found to require from 10 to 14 times its weight of lead for complete scorification on the cupel. Now all admixtures of fine metal tend to protect the copper from the action of the litharge, and the more obstinately the greater proportion of the fine metal. So that copper with three times its weight of fine silver, (or 9oz. fine), requires 40 times as much lead as copper; with 11 parts of silver it requires 7½ of lead, and the like in an increasing ratio. The following is a table of the proportions of lead required to different alloys of copper, of which a few points are founded upon experiments, and the rest filled up according to the estimated ratio of increase, (being multiples of the assay integer 24; in arithmetical progression). In the three first columns is shewn the absolute increase of the quantity of lead in alloys of decreasing fineness; in the three last columns, will be seen the gradual diminution of the protecting power of fine metal against scorification, in proportion to the increase of alloy shewn by the decreasing quantity of lead required for the same weight of copper under different mixtures.

TABLE.

Silver.	Copper.	Lead.	Ratio of increase.	Copper.	Silver.	Lead.
23 with 1	requires 96 (= 4 x 24)	and hence 1 with 23	requires 96			
92	3	144 (= 6 x 24)		1	11	72
90	4	192 (= 8 x 24)		1	5	48
18	6	240 (= 10 x 24)		1	3	40
16	8	288 (= 12 x 24)		1	2	36
14	10	336 (= 14 x 24)		1	1½	33
12	12	384 (= 16 x 24)		1	1	32
10	14	432 (= 18 x 24)		1	¾	30 +
8	16	480 (= 20 x 24)		1	½	30
6	18	528 (= 22 x 24)		1	¼	29 +
4	20	576 (= 24 x 24)		1	⅓	28 +
2	22	624 (= 26 x 24)		1	⅙	28 +

It should be remarked, however, that many assayers of good authority use proportions of lead considerably

different from the above table; and the whole of the numbers here given may be considered as rather high

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in regard to the quantity of lead." We conclude this part of the subject by stating, that according to Vauquelin, the quantity of litharge which a cupel will absorb, is about equal to the weight of the cupel itself.

Nitric Acid, (Aquaforis) is employed, as will be hereafter explained, in the final operation of parting, to dissolve out the silver from the mass after cupellation leaving the gold. The nitric acid of commerce is almost always contaminated with a slight admixture of muriatic acid, and in this state would dissolve a small portion of the gold, of course vitiating the result: to obviate this evil, Vauquelin advises that a few grains of fine silver should be previously dissolved in the aquaforis; the silver unites with any muriatic acid that may be present, and a white precipitate of luna cornea subsides; the clear liquor may then be decanted off for use. It is easy to ascertain whether enough silver has been employed to separate all the muriatic acid, by letting a drop of nitrate of silver fall into the acid, if no precipitate appear, the acid is free from the impurity. Should too much silver have been employed, it is not material, as the purity of the gold is estimated by the quantity remaining undissolved, and no notice is taken of the silver dissolved out by the aquaforis. For this part of the process the acid ought, according to Vauquelin, to be in such a state of dilution, that its specific gravity may be 2° (Beumé), *Mém. d'Essayer*, p. 24.

The remaining implements of the assayer are files, scissors, or shears, small crucibles, glass flasks, pieces of copper to regain the silver from the acid, and distilled water for washing the cornets of gold.

Assay of Silver.

To perform this assay, the furnace is lighted, and the muffle and cupels are brought gradually to a full red heat. The small portion of metal to be operated upon is cut from the ingot, reduced either by hammering or by passing between steel rollers to a thin lamina and most accurately weighed; it is then wrapped up in the requisite quantity of pure lead, rolled out to a convenient degree of thickness. The mass is then placed upon the heated cupel with a pair of forceps, and the following appearances take place. "The melted metal begins to send off dense fumes, and a minute stream of red fumed matter is seen perpetually following from the top of the globule down its sides to the surface of the cupel, through which it sinks and is lost to view. This fume, and the stream of melted matter consist of the lead oxidized by the heat and air, in one case volatilized in the other vitrified, and in sinking through the cupel it carries down with it the copper or other alloy of the silver. In proportion to the violence of the heat is the density of the fume, the violence with which it is given off, the convexity of the surface of the globule of melted metal, and the rapidity with which the vitrified oxide circulates, (as it is termed), or falls down the sides of the metal. As the cupellation advances, the melted button becomes rounder, its surface becomes streaky with large bright points of the fused oxide, which move with increased rapidity, till at last the globule being now freed from all the lead and other alloy, suddenly lightens; the last portions of litharge on the surface disappear with great rapidity, showing the melted metal bright with iridescent colours, which

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directly after becomes opaque, and suddenly appears brilliant, clean and white, as if a curtain had been withdrawn from it. The operation being now finished, and the silver left pure, the cupel is allowed to cool gradually, till the globule of silver is fixed, after which it is taken out of the cupel while still hot, and when cold, weighed with as much accuracy as at first. The difference between the globule and the silver at first put in, shows the quantity of alloy, the globule being now perfectly pure silver if the operation has been well performed. The reman of cooling the globule or button gradually is, that pure silver in congealing, assumes a crystalline texture, and if the outer surface is too suddenly fixed, it forcibly contracts on the still fluid part in the centre, causing it to spirt out in subrescent shoots, by which some minute portions are often thrown out of the cupel and the assay is spoiled."—(Aikin).

If the operation be well conducted, the bottom of silver will adhere but slightly to the cupel, will have its surface convex and of a beautiful silvery whiteness, without any spot or adhering impurity, but slightly rough and scaly from an imperfect crystallization. "In common assays of plate, either gold or silver, copper is the alloy usually met with; if the fine metal be nearly pure, the cupel round the button is only stained yellow by the litharge, if copper is present it leaves a brown grey stain; the other metals, except bismuth, rarely penetrate the substance of the cupel, but reman on the edges of its cavity in the form of coloured scoriae, of which iron is black; tin, grey; and zinc, a dull yellow." (Vauquelin.)

Some precautions are necessary in the process, with which experience can alone make the assayer familiar. The heat must not be great; for, in this case, some portion of the silver may be volatilized. M. Tillet states, that a button of pure silver exposed to a high heat for two hours lost $\frac{1}{4}$ of its weight. But, on the other hand, if the heat be insufficient, the litharge is not absorbed by the cupel, the circulation does not proceed, and the fume is not apparent. The free access of air, being of primary importance, is regulated by the sticks of charcoal, as before described; and the heat is most easily increased or diminished by removing the cupel, if possible, to a hotter or colder part of the muffle. The time for each operation is stated to be from 15 to 25 minutes. The quantity of lead employed for a given weight of silver has been already noticed, but excess should, if possible, be avoided, as it appears from some of Tillet's experiments, that the lead is capable of carrying down with it a small portion of the silver.

Assay of Gold.

In this assay, the first part of the process consists in roughly ascertaining, either by the physical properties of the ingot, or by the touch needles, the proportions of the different metals forming the alloy. Silver and copper are the metals usually combined with gold, both in coinage and the arts. If the former only, the process of parting by aquaforis might appear to be alone necessary, but unless the silver bears a large proportion to the gold, it is protected from the action of the acid by the latter metal. Hence, in this case it is necessary to fuse the alloy with such an additional quantity of silver, as may make the silver about thrice the weight of gold. That is, the

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gold is to form one-fourth of the mass; hence to this process the term quantation is applied. Even when copper also is present, the same method might serve, but it is not found to answer so well as the more usual plan of getting rid of the copper first by cupellation with lead, and then parting the remaining silver by aquafortis. If copper only be combined with gold, the mutual affinity of the two metals is so powerful, that by cupellation with lead alone, the copper cannot be entirely removed, and therefore in practice it is an almost invariable rule to add some silver to the piece for assay. The general process then for a gold assay is as follows. The assay pound, or any given quantity is cut from the ingot, and accurately weighed; such a proportion of silver is added as has been before noticed, and lastly the requisite quantity of lead; the whole is then placed on the cupel, and the process conducted as in the silver assay, with this difference only, that the heat is necessarily more intense, and that there is no danger of volatilizing any of the precious metal, as in the case of silver alone. After the metal has brightened on the cupel, it is cooled and again weighed. It now consists of gold, with about thrice its weight of silver, both in a state of purity, and nothing remains but to prepare it for the operation of parting.

For this purpose, the metallic button is first flattened by hammering, and then by passing it between steel rollers, repeatedly heating it red hot, and suffering it to cool, that, by this annealing, it may be prevented from cracking, as it extends in the flattening process; it is finally rolled up in a small loose coil and again heated. In this state it is termed a cornet.

Parting.—The acid employed for this purpose, has been already described; the cornet is put into a pear-shaped flask, called a parting-glass, and a sufficient quantity of the diluted acid is then added; the glass is heated in a sand bath or over a lamp, and the solution of the silver proceeds, with the usual evolution of dense fumes of nitrous gas: after this action has ceased, the liquor is carefully decanted off, and a fresh supply of stronger acid is added, to remove the last portion of silver; this is boiled five or six minutes. The cornet should still retain its shape, but as a brittle spongy

mass, which it requires considerable care to preserve entire. We noticed the danger incurred by adding too little silver before cupellation, and in this stage of the process, if too much has been added, the gold no longer coheres; the cornet instead of retaining its shape, crumbles down into a minutely divided metallic powder. The liquid is now again decanted off, and hot distilled water is added to wash away every trace of acid from the metal. While the flask is still filled with water, it is inverted with its neck resting in a small crucible, thus the delicate cornet sinks through the fluid, and is deposited in the crucible without risk of breaking. It is then submitted to a strong heat, the gold contracts, and regains its beautiful colour and lustre, the process is completed, and the result obtained by weighing it accurately as at first.

Assay of Metal containing Platinum.

Platinum is not employed at present in the coinage of any nation, and in commerce it is not probable, an account of its greater value, that it would be used to debase silver; but for such a purpose it may, though rarely be fraudulently added to gold. Like gold and silver it resists the action of lead upon the cupel; but an expert assayer will readily recognize its presence, by the very different appearance which it gives to the button of metal in fusion. A much greater heat is required, the fusion is less perfect, and the colour less bright; in very small proportion it gives to the gold so strong a tendency to crystallization, as to produce a marked character to the eye of the assayer. For its separation nothing is required but to proceed exactly as in a common gold assay; and, by reducing the lamina of metal very thin, to form the cornet, the platinum, though alone insoluble in nitric acid, may with the silver be totally removed from the gold.

The coins of inferior metals are seldom examined by the assayer, but for the processes to be employed, if necessary, we must refer to the work of M. Vauquelin on the subject.

See *Lewis' Commercial Philosophico-Technicum*.—*The London Goldsmith's Repository*.—M. M. Tillet, Hellot, and Macquer, *Mém. Acad.*, Paris, 1763, 1769, 1775, 1776, 1778, 1780, 1788.—Aikin's *Chemical Dict.*, Art. *Assay*, and Vauquelin *Manuel de l'Essayeur*.

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ASSAY BALANCE, a term used to denote a very delicate balance employed for determining with great precision the weight of minute bodies. An instrument of this kind is shewn in the plate referred to in the preceding article. The particulars of its construction will be given under the article **BALANCE**.

ASSEQUIRE, } In the Bar. Lat. *Assicurate As-*
ASSEQUIRE, } *secutate*, appear to have been in
ASSEQUIRE, } *ASSEQUIRE*, } very common use; from the Lat. *Assicure*; whence the Fr. *Seur*, *Assur*, Eng. *Sure*, *Assure*, (q. v.)

Can never mischievous end as it begins;

But bring once out, must further out of force?

Think you, that any means under the sun,

Can assure so indirect a course?

Daniel. Civil War, book iii. p. 473.

Sin is not helped but by being assured of pardon. It resteth, therefore to be considered what warrant we have concerning forgiveness, when the sentence of man absolveth us from sin committed against God.

Hooker. Eccles. Pol. book vi.

But how far then reaches this assurance? So far as to exclude all fears, all doubting and hesitation? Neither of these.

Ep. Hall. Sermon xliii. Good Security.

ASSECUTION, *Assecutor*, *assecutus*, *assecutio*, from *ad* and *sequor*, to follow; a following up, an overtaking, an obtaining.

By the canon law, a person, after he has been in full possession of a second benefice, cannot return to his first, because it is immediately void by his consecration of a second.

Ayliffe. Perseus.

ASSEMBLANCE, the same as *Semblance*. Skinner. Fr. *Sembler*, from the Lat. *Simulare*, to make like.

ASSENT.

ASSENT, *v.* *Assentior*, from *ad* and *sentio* to think, to feel, to think the same, to be of the same opinion, to agree, comply, yield.
 ASSENTATION, *n.* Assentation, is used for pretended assent, flattery, adulation.
 Latin, *Assensatio*.

Je Mousieur Jay felle to be next after ye death daj,
 Je byre of France and he, at ye dier of S. Rymay,
 Held a parliament, good sikever to make,
 Jat bejve with an assent je way wuld undertake.

R. Brame, p. 147.

But, lordes, wol ye maken assurance,
 As I shal say, assenting to my lore?
 And I shal make us ausing for evermore.
 They aweren, and assented every man
 To live with hire and die, and by hire stound.

Chaucer. *The Man of Lawes Tale*, v. l. p. 190.

But whence that wren come he withdrough and departide him
 dredyng that that wren of circumlocution, and the other lewis
 assentide to his feynynge, so that barnabas was drawen of hem
 into that feynynge.

Wiclif. *Galathies*, c. ii.

For if you had assented in wordes and in your mynde departed
 unpurposed, that if the thing be true that I say, yet had you
 lost y^e fruit.

Sir Thomas More's *Works*, fo. 1242. c. 1.

And if you liketh alle by on assent
 Now for to stonde as if judgement:—
 Hold up your heades wien wrenes more speche.

Chaucer. *The Princesse*, v. l. p. 32.

And the Kyng may coghte deme no man to Dethe, with outen
 assent of his baroun and other yren men of counseill, and that
 alle the court accorde thereto.

Sir John Mandeville.

Other there, which is a more honest terme may be called
assentation, or *followers* who do awyte diligently, what is
 the forme of the speche and gesture of theyr mayster, and also
 to his maners and facion of garments: and to the instatut and
 resemblance therof they applye theyr study.

Elyot. *The Governour*, book ii. c. xliii.

One would think hell should have little need of the fawling
 assentation of others, when men carry so dangerous parasites
 in their own bosoms; but, woe, both together must needs help to
 people that region of darkness.

By Hall. *Satiriques*.

She is not an assenter (though thousands be) to that rabid
 rule, cited in Drusian, from Rabbi Hauria: let a man clothe
 himself (saith he) beneath his ability, his children according to it,
 and his wife above it!

Whitlock. *Manners of the English*.

—The bold design
 Pleas'd highly those infernal states, and joy
 Spurr'd in all their eyes; with full assent
 They rose.

Milton's *Par. Lost*, book ii.

The people then assembling with the senate, and the baser sort
 with the noble, did all with one voice and assent choose Camillus
 dictator the fifth time.

North's *Plutarch*.

It is but a very little while before we shall all certainly be of
 this mind—that the best thing we could have done in this world,
 was to prepare for the other. Could I represent to you that irre-
 versible world which I am speaking of, you would all readily assent
 to this counsel.

Tillotson's *Sermons*.

Consider then and judge me in this light:
 I told you when I went, I would not write;
 You said the same; and are you discontent
 With laws, to which you gave your own assent?

Pope. *Imitation of Horace*, book ii.

Thou drest by thee, more amiably fair,
 Truth the soft robe of mild persuasion wears
 Thus to assenting reason giv'st again
 Her own enlighten'd thoughts.

Thomson's *Poems*. Winter, p. 451.

ASSENT.

ASSENT.

ASSENT, *v.* *Assero*, *asserum*, from *ad* and *acro*, to knit, to join. *Assero*, *et addeco*.
 ASSENTATION, *n.* *rationem*, *ad aliquid probandum*, et
forumandum. *Vossius*. To join, or
 add to, to knit, to join, or add; as a cause,
 as a reason; to affirm, to maintain,
 to vindicate.

And hole bokes wuld it hold, both y^e confuting of theire, and
 vnto them the assentation of our owne, specially for y^e their recuse
 not our scripture, and betwene the and vnto noblye chauce to ground
 vpon bot reason.

Sir Thomas More's *Works*, fo. 141. c. ii.

And, therefore, while he doth hat tel vs and proue it not, and
 no vnder propeth his assentation w^t it self: he sheweth himself as
 wise, as one that lest his rotten house should fall, wuld go about
 to take down y^e rofe, and pull vp y^e ground to vnderlaye the
 sides with the same.

Id. fo. 473. c. ii.

Read it interrogatively, and it is as strong for Soto and the
 Dominicans, if it be read assertively, for Catherine and the
 Jesuits.

By Bede's *Letters*, p. 403.

If the very voice of nature did not so sufficiently confute thee,
 that even thine own most cruel heart hath herein taken part
 against thee, living and dying strong assertors of the soul's im-
 mortality.

By Hall. *Trincompton Revisited*.

We have not to do here with a promissory oath, the obligation
 whereof is for another inquiry: it is the *assertory* oath, that is
 our under our hand; which the great God, by whom we swear,
 hath ordained to be an end of controuersies.

Id. *Caus of Conscience*.

—That tongue

Insipid with contradiction shewt opaque

A third part of the globe, in spread and

Their deities to assert.

Milton's *Par. Lost*, book vi.

[We all acknowledge that the whole Church of God kept the
 faith entire, and transmitted faithfully to after ages the whole
 faith.] Well what says he to this principle? He says, this prin-
 ciple as to the positive part is good, and *assertive* of tradition. It
 is so of the apostolical tradition; for they delivered the doctrine of
 Christ to their successors, both by preaching and by writing.

Taylor's *Polemical Discourses*.

As hardly as men are in advancing opinions that favour their
 vices, tho' never so repugnant to reason, I can hardly believe
 any one will assert, that a parcel of mere matter left altogether to
 itself, could ever of itself begin to move. If there is any such
 bold *asserter*, let him fix his eyes upon some lump of matter, ex-
 gr. a stone, piece of timber, or a clod clear'd of all animals,
 and peruse it well.

Wolaston's *Religion of Nature*.

Now nothing is more shameful and unworthy a natural phi-
 losopher (*stupidus physicus*) than to assert any thing to be done
 without a cause, or to give no reason of it.

Ray, on the Creation.

How ought she to boast and triumph in this thought, that a
 prince, who excelled as much in the knowledge, as in the practice
 of religion, should be so firm and memorable an assertor of her
 doctrine, and discipline, and worship!

Atterbury's *Sermons*.

O ever faithful, vigilant, and brave,

Thou bold assertor of Britannia's fame,

Unconquerable Blake.

Glenn's *Poems*.

Among the assertors of regal authority, I never fail'd to de-
 claim with republican warmth upon the original charter of uni-
 versal liberty, the corruption of courts, and the folly of voluntary
 submission to those whom nature has levelled with ourselves.

Johanna. *The Rambler*.

To impose crimes to Christianity, says the celebrated King of
 Prussia in his posthumous works, is the act of a novice. His
 word may fairly be taken for such an assertion.

Petrus, on the beneficial effects of Christianity.

The fourth awarded lot (for he had four)

Arriv'd! Meritless asserted next,

The golden talents.

Corper's *Mad*, book xlii.

For the verb does not denote any time; nor does it imply any
 assertion. No single word can. Till one simple thing can be
 found to be couple, one single word cannot make an *ad-assertion*,
 or an affirmation: for there is joining in that operation; and
 there can be no junction of one thing.

Trode, v. li. p. 432.

ASSESS.
ASSETH.

ASSESS, v. } Assess, or Sess, from the It.
ASSESS, n. } *Assessare*, to impose a tax, (*Assessio*) which never is imposed unless by an *Assize* (*nisi ab assensu*) of men appointed for the purpose.

Skinner.

Assensare and *Accensare*, *Dere ad censum*. Gall.
Assenset, *Donner à cens*. Du Cange.

Writings were sent to all shires, to certify the names of men of feeble pounds, to receive the order of knighthood, or else to make a fine: the *assessments* of which fines, were appointed to Thomas Cromwell, Master of the Kyng's Juell house.

Hell. Henry VIII.

But Pirithous reaching out his hand first to Theseus, said unto him; I make your self judge of the damage you have sustained by my luration, and with all my heart I will make such satisfaction, as it shall please you to *assess* it at.

North's Plutarch.

The commons also were freed of portage, tollage, and tribute; and rich men that were able to bear the burthen, were *assess*ed at all payments and contributions: the poore were thought to be charged enough with the bringing up of their children.

Holland's Lory.

You be devised and ordained the cense, to wit, the *assessing*, and taxation of the citizens: a thing most profitable to that state and government, which was like, in time to come, to grow so mighty.

Id.

He it was that devised and brought on the manner of equal contribution and payment, proportionally to the *assessment* and rate of men's goods.

Id.

One of the answers of the jury, upon their oaths at the assensory court, I have inserted. *Cervus. Servery of Carmell.*

Mines, the strict inquisitor, appears;

And lives and crimes, with his *assessors*, hears.

Dryden's Faint En. vi.

The convention counted the *assessment* for another year, at six thousand pounds a month.

Bishop Burnet's Hist. of his own Times, v. i.

An act of Council was passed, importing, that as the urgency of affairs admitted the need of parliament, that most speedy, equal, and convenient method of supply was by a general loan from the subject, according as every man was *assess*ed in the rolls of the last subsidy.

Hume's History of England.

On the twenty-sixth day of October, he was appointed, with the Lord Treasurer, the Earl of Arundel, Lord Rich, Sir Francis Englefield, and several others, to examine certain offenders taken in Northumberland's rebellion, and to *assess* their fines.

T. Warton's Life of Sir T. Pope.

Pharissae sat the Judge

Callicrates and Aemestus wise.

His two *assessors*. *Greece's Atheniad*, book xxiii.

ASSESSMENT, in Law, money raised by rate. The term is particularly applied to the taxes raised by the parliament, during the civil war in Charles I. reign. Weekly or monthly assessments were then levied upon every county, according to a poundage on land. They sometimes produced £120,000 per month, and may be averaged at a million a-year.

ASSETH, from the Fr. *Asses*, or *Asses*, enough, sufficient, Tooke, v. l. 406. Fr. *Asses*. It. *Assai*, which Menage thinks are from the Latino *Satis*.

For in the getting he hath such wo

And in the keeping drede also,

And setteth ever more his braine

For to encrease and not to less

For to augment and multiply

And though on heapes that lie him by,

Yet never shall make his riches

North into his greediness.

Chaucer. The Remount of the Rose, fo. 142. c. li.

And Pilat, willinge to make *assess* to the people lefte to hem Barabas, and bloske to hem Jhesus betwixt assaye to be crucified.

Wicli. Mark, ch. xv.

ASSETS, in Law, from the French *asset*, enough. This term is used to denote the property of a person deceased, in the hands of his executor, or heir, sufficient to meet the duty cast on them, of discharging his legacies and such debts as the law considers as charges on his property of various kinds. Some debts are a charge on real property in the hands of an heir, and lands descending to him by inheritance, and not acquired by gift or bequest, are hence termed *assets real*, or *assets by descent*; and, as far as they go, must be applied to meet any debt wherewith the ancestor, by deed or bond, charged himself and his heirs. But a bond is not an incumbence on land, unless the heirs are specifically bound. Therefore, if a man bind himself only, the bond debt must be paid by the executor, out of his personal property, or *assets personal*, on failure of which only, the heir is liable, in respect of his lands. All simple contract debts are payable only out of personal assets. A bill was brought in by the late Sir S. Romilly, to alter the law in this respect, by charging all debts of an ancestor on his *assets by descent*; a measure certainly agreeable to the general principles of justice, and which would be beneficial to the middle orders of trade. It was, however, strongly opposed by many eminent lawyers, and finally thrown out. If an action is brought against an executor for a personal debt of the testator, and he pleads that he has no *assets*, the plaintiff may pray judgment of *assets* hereafter to arise; and the court, by ordering an inquiry before a jury, to ascertain the amount of the debt, will give him a right of payment, prior to other creditors, whoever the executor shall obtain sufficient goods of the deceased for that purpose.

ASSEVER, } *Asservo*, quasi *severe* dico. From
ASSEVERATION, } *ad* and *severa*, from the Greek
Ἀσπερ, *severari*, to say, or declare, affirm or assert, seriously, earnestly, solemnly.

Anselmus, though otherwise a severe and a very austere man, yet is so sweetened and mollified with the concert of this music (the harmony of heaven), that he not only *assess*eth it, but also endeavoureth, with great pains and labour, to set out the true musical proportion of it.

Fletcher. Athanasius.

M. Hardinge, as we here, as she where thinketh it an easy matter, with the bold *asservation* to smooth his vulnerable simple reader, specially natche a one, as hath no eyes to look after him.

Scott's Defence of the Apology.

GURU. You must, you will, and smile upon me coming." Can it
MARGARET. Therefore, if you are conscious of a breach,
Confess it to me; Lead me to the king,
He has promis'd me to conquer his revenge,
And place you oest him; therefore, if you're right,
Make me not fear it by *asservations*,
But speak your heart, and O resolve me truly.

Dryden's Duke of Guise.

"I will come and some of you shall see me coming." Can it be supposed that in such an *asservation*, the word to "come" may bear two different senses.

Horsley's Sermons.

ASSIDEANS, or CHARIDEANS, from *Chasidim* or *Jasidim*, just, merciful, pious. A sect of the Jews, who resorted to Mattathias, to fight for the laws of God and the liberties of their country. They were distinguished for their valour and zeal, devoting themselves to a more strict observance of the law than other men. After the return of the Jews from the Babylonish captivity, there were two sorts of Assideans,

ASSETS
—
ASSIDEANS

ASSID-
EANS.
—
ASSIEN-
TU.
—

the one holding precisely to the Holy Scriptures, the other affecting a more eminent degree of sanctity than was commanded by the law. For the latter, (the Chasidim, or pious,) the people had a peculiar veneration, and from these sprang the Pharisees and the Essenes, who preached that their traditions were more perfect than scripture. From the others (the Taudikim) came the Sadducees, who preached a still more dangerous doctrine, that we were not to look for recompense or punishment, and who denied the resurrection of the dead.

ASSIDUATE, } *Ab assideo, quod in ea re in*
ASSIDUITY, } *quis laboramus, quasi assidens;*
ASSIDUOUS, } because in that which we labour
ASSIDUOUSLY, } about, we do, as it were, continually at it daily. Minshew.

Constant, unceasing, continual, frequent, repeated.

Then the cardinals came again unto the duke, and brought with him diverse doctors of dyvynite and other, which made unto him assiduous labour for mercy to be shewyd unto the towne, and to the inhabytants of the same. *Folgen.*

He (Lord Willoughby) could not brook the obsequiousness and assiduity of the court, and was wont to say, "that he was not one of the reptiles, which could creep on the ground."

Fuller's Worthies of Lincolnshire.

First with assiduous care, from Winter keep

Well fodder'd in the stalls, thy tender sheep.

Dryden's Virgil, Geor. iii.

The mind that lies fallow but a single day, sprouts up in follies that are only to be killed by a constant and assiduous culture. *Spectator, No. 10.*

A scholar is industrious, who doth assiduously bend his mind to study for getting knowledge. *Burrow's Sermons.*

—Office as she mounts

She quits the car, his arm her weight sustains

With trembling pleasure. His assiduous hand

From purest fountains weds the living flood.

Gloucester's Lovers, book viii. p. 57.

ASSIE'GE, v } *Fr. Assieger. Ital. Assediare;*
ASSIE'GE, n. } to sit before: from the Lat. *sedes*,
sedere; as we say, to sit down before a town. *Skinner.*

The common word now in use is *Besiege*.

King Arthur and ye poor assieged hym wyfente.

R. Gloucester, p. 184.

Swiche wounding was ther on this hors of bras,

That ain the prett assiege of Troye was,

Ther as men wounding on an hors also,

Ne was ther swiche a wounding, as was tho.

Chaucer. The Spier's Tale, vol. i. p. 431.

Then ye duke having in his ayde the kyng of Nauens, the duke of Normandy, with the erle of Escampa and of Flaunders, assieged y^e castel of Chauny, & at the ende of vi. wekes was the same, and after yede into the cite of Besencon & layd assiege to it also.

I leave what glory virtue did attain

At th' ever-memorable Agamemnon.

I leave to tell, what wia, what pow'r did gain

Th' assieged Roan, Caen, Dreux; or in what sort.

Daniel's Civil War, book v.

ASSIENTO, a Spanish word, properly signifying a contract. It was first introduced in France about the beginning of the war relative to the succession to the crown of Spain, when by the *asiento* they understood a trading company established for importing negroes into the dominions of the king of Spain in America, and particularly to Buenos Ayres. It has

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since been used in diplomatic language for a treaty or convention between the king of Spain and other courts on the same subject.

ASSIGN, v.

ASSIGN, n.

ASSIGNABLE,

ASSIGNATION,

ASSIGNER,

ASSIGNMENT.

Assigno, from ad, and signo, (of uncertain etymology;) to mark or sign.
To mark out, to fix, to allot, to apportion, to transfer.

And wat lyng he addo assigned y^e turey brechen al so.

R. Gloucester, p. 314.

ye leird and ye laj granted jai jai said,

And assigned a day, jai tase to be leid.

R. Brunet, p. 247.

To him goth Elda the forth right,

And tolde him of his lordis thinge

And praid, that for his comage

He wolde assigne him herberge.

Gower. Can. Am. book ii.

Sche set up aghen, and he took hir bi the horn, and reholde hir, & whone he saddle cleid the hoodi men and widehis he assignde hir alyue.

Wiclif. Dedes. ch. ix.

At last, as forced by false Ulysses crye,

(If purpose he brake fourth, assigne us

To the altar.

Sorrey.

Y^e captayne of y^e towne desired a respyte of xxx. dayes, grange pleyers and hostgys, that if the cite were not by kyngs John, or his assignys, recovered within the foresayde terme, they wolde yelde y^e cite unto the Freuche kyng.

Folgen.

The grete thinges of the worlde are ministered by them [the prelates]: mynster do the hye people any grete thing, but at their assignement.

The Whole Works of Tyndal, Ed. 101. c. 2.

And forthwith in our presence and othe he [Richard the Second] subscribed the same [his resignation], and after delivered it unto the Archbyschop of Cantuarbury, saying that if it were in his power or at his assignement, he would that the Duke of Lancaster, there present, should be his successor and king after him.

Grafton, vol. i.

And interchangeably hurle downe myn gage

Vpon this over-wermyng Traitor's foote,

To prae myselfe a loyal gentleman,

Eare in the best blood chamber'd in his bosome.

In last whereof, most heartily I crye,

Your highnesse to assigne our traiti day.

Shakespeare's R. Richard II. Ed. 24.

If there be neither heir, nor executor, nor administrator, nor assign, the poor, said our Saviour, ye shall have always with you: make thou them your heir: turn your debt into alms.

Rp. Hall's Court of Conscience.

This order being taken in the senate, as touching the appointment and assignation of these provinces, there it was thought good that the new consuls should cast lots for their governments.

Holland's Elog.

The treasury being exhausted, he was forced to make assignments upon land, and move but in Italy it self would content them.

Tyler's Life of Virgil.

The same first mover certain bounds has plac'd,

How long those perishable forms shall last;

Nor can they last beyond the time assign'd

By that all-seeing, and all-marking mind.

Dryden's Fables.

And the holdest man that ever was upon earth, can no more assigne and make over his righteousness, or reputation, or part of either, to another that wants it, than a man can bequeath his wisdom or learning to his heir or his friend.

Tillotson's Sermons.

Nature to thee, without profusion, kind,

The proper organ, proper pow'r assign'd;

Each seeming want compensated of course.

Here with degrees of softness, there of force.

Pope. Essay on Man, Ep. i.

While symphs take treats or assignations give,

So long my honour, name, and name shall live.

Pope. Rape of the Lock, c. iii.

G

ASSIGN.
—
ASSIGN-
LATE.

None does want of memory, or slowness of perception, appear in persons of a middle age, but from some assignable cause that decomposes the organ.

Reflections of Mr. Clarke's Second Discourse.

Human life is a drama, and making the actors, who have their several parts assigned them by the manner of the theatre.

Mason on Self-Knowledge.

Oh Vulcan! in there on Olympus' heights

A pedons with such load of sorrow oppress'd

As, in peculiar, Jove assigns to me?

Copper's Iliad, book xviii.

The only adequate and assignable reason of the difference is, that the latter have a source to draw from which was unknown to the former.

Various's Tracts.

ASSIGNMENT, in Law, is the act of transferring to another, called an Assignee, one's interest in any property. This may be done by the act of the assigning party, as where a tenant assigns his term of deed; or, by operation and construction of law, where it is inferred from some act of a person, that his interest in certain property has passed over to another. By ancient common law, no property not in actual possession, and which was only a right to possess, and not reducible into possession without process of law, could be assigned. Thus, there could be no assignment of bonds, notes, &c. But such assignments in fact, though not in form, are effected by declarations of trust, powers of attorney, and other forms of conveyancing. Equity, too, will assist an assignee of some interests not assignable at common law, if he has bona fide paid for them,—thus assignments of contingent interests in personals, are good in a court of equity. And for the benefit of commerce, and in compliance with the change of customs, the legislature has in various cases interfered; and, by specific acts of parliament, many things, not assignable by law, have been rendered so. For instance, notes and bills of exchange, by 3 & 4 Anne, chap. 9. Bail-bonds by 4 & 5 of the same reign, chap. 16. Bankrupt effects, under the bankrupt laws, &c. &c.

ASSIMILATE, *Assimilo, assimilatum*, from ASSIMILATION, *Assimilare*, to make like. ASSIMILATION, *Assimilare*, from *assimilis*, from the ASSIMILATIVE, *Greek ἀσμιλῶν*, even, to make ASSIMILABLE, like to, to liken to, to bring or turn to a like or similar kind.

The spirits of many long before that time will find but naked habitations: and meeting no assimilables wherein to re-act their natures, must certainly anticipate such natural dissolutions.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

There be divers creatures that sleep all winter, as the bear, the hedge-hog, the bat, the bee, &c. These all was for when they sleep, and never eat. The cause of their sleeping during these sleeping time, may be the want of assimilating; for whatsoever assimilates not to finish turneth either to sweat or fat.

Bacon's Natural History.

Whosoever property nourisheth before its assimilation, by the action of natural heat, it receiveth a complicity of incarnation proportional unto its conversion.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Neither ought it to seeme more strange, that the same vestricle in the braine should be capable of all these three functions, then that the same house or view, and every part and particle thereof, should have in it (in regard of the nourishment it receiveth, and the excrement it drives forth), an attractive, a retentive, an assimilative, and an expulsive virtue.

Hakewell's Apologie, fol. 5.

A rein is a sacred thing. Rooted for ages in the soil; assimilated to it; and become, as it were, a part of it, we consider it as a work of nature rather than of art.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes.

Fast falls a fleecy show'r: the downy flecks,
Descending, and with never ceasing lapse
Softly alighting upon all below,
Assimilate all objects.

Cowper's Poems.

ASSIMI-
LATE.
—
ASSIST.

All the pleasing illusions, which make power gentle and obedience liberal, which harmonised the different shades of life, and which, by a bland assimilation, incorporated into politics the sentiments which beautify and soften private society, are to be dissolved by this new conquering empire of light and reason.

Burke on F. R.

ASSINGTON, in the county of Suffolk, a discharged Vicarage, valued in the King's books, at £10. Church dedicated to St. Edmund. Pews-rates, in 1803, at 10s. in the pound, £538. Population, in 1801, 478. Two miles and a half S.W. from Bexford.

ASSINIBOIN, or the Red River, in the north-west part of North America, which discharges its waters into Lake Winnipeg, on the south-west side. It receives the two names of Assiniboin and Red River, from its dividing, at the distance of about 30 miles from the lake, into two branches. The eastern branch, which is called the Red River, rises near the head waters of the Mississippi, near which spot the north-west company of fur-traders have an establishment. The other branch derives its name from the Assiniboins, who are the principal inhabitants of the country. Both these rivers are navigable to their sources in canoes.

ASSISE, see ASSIZE.

ASSISI, a small town in the Papal dominions, situated on a hill, in the duchy of Spoleto: The see of a Bishop: 30 miles N. N.W. from Spoleto. Long. E. 12° 30'. Lat. N. 43° 3'. St. Francis, the founder of the Franciscan order, was born here, and his body reposes in the *Sacro Convento*, a magnificent and extensive building. The portico of Santa Maria di Minerva, is composed of six Corinthian pillars, which once supported the front of the ancient temple of Minerva; and near the foot of the hill stands a rustic chapel, dedicated to the blessed Virgin and the Angels, in which St. Francis is supposed to have received his first call to devotion. A spacious and noble church has been erected over this oratory, which stands in its centre and under its dome: and, on the second of August, multitudes of pilgrims flock to it from the adjoining provinces. When Mr. Enstace passed it in 1802, one of the fathers informed him, that more than 10,000 persons had attended the last anniversary, and that, from the heat of the weather and the blind enthusiasm of the people, no less than ten had been suffocated or trampled to death, in pressing forward to touch the altar.

ASSIST,

ASSISTANCE,

ASSISTANT, n.

ASSISTANT, adj.

ASSISTLESS.

Assisto, from *ad*, and *sisto*, (from the Greek *σίστημι*), to stop or stay.
To stand to or near, to support, sustain; to aid or succour.

O! blisst wicht, equal God that over thou be,
We shall obey thy charge, and follow thee,
And thy commandment shall be our bylawe.
Blessing the assist till we be idle.
Help and support, with prosper influence
The bein and stresse dres our voyage here.

Douglas's Eclogues, book iv. p. 120.

O! holy God, what so thou art, we shall
Follow thee, and all byrth obey thy will;
Be at our hand, and favour us assist.
Address the secrets with prosperous influence.

Surrey.

ASSIST. And that I find not in y^e payne of the slaying of the sinner that is in my flesh, myr helpe in the promise of the assistance of the power of God, and the comfort of the reward to come.
The Whole Works of Wm. Tyndale, fol. 18. c. 2.

Wherefore the sayd Roger, with the assistance of the mayne and other, toke the sayd rascall & enyill disposyd persones, and sent them vnto dyvers prysons.
Folger.

He is at all seasons *assistent* in deale, to them that assemble together in his name, but not to them that are gathered together in the names of Beudiet, Domynecke, and Frances.
Half's Apology, fol. 85. c. 2.

They treated for a peace between the two kings, but nothing came in effect: But yet, at the last, a truce betwix the two kings and all their assistants was concluded for to endure vnto the feast of St. John the Baptist, 1359, that is to say, for three yeres.
Grafton, vol. I.

Nay call'd you
 For high feasts done to th' crown: neither allied
 To militant assistants, but spider-like
 Out of his self-drawing web.
Shakespeare, R. Henry VIII. fol. 206.

God's spirit did *assist* the Apostles by ways extraordinary, and fit for the first institution of Christianity: but doth *assist* us now by the expressions of those first assistants which he gure to them immediately.

Taylor's Apology for authorized and set Forms of Liturgy.

Thou hast a spirit of thine own; and, besides, God hath given thee of his: so he looks thou should'st, through the power of his gracious assistance, match the impurity of that evil spirit, with an indefeasible resistance.
By. Half's Boles of Gilted.

Now touching their senate, Lycurgus was the first that erected it among them. The first that were thereof were Lycurgus's chief aides and assistants of that erection.
North's Plutarch.

But long it was not ere Duke Robert, weary of this renowned curse, sought to escape; and having liberty to walke in the king's meadows, forrests, and parkes, broke from his keepers without any assistants, or means for security.
Speed's History of Great Brittain.

The highest virtue is best to be trusted with itself, for assistance only can be given by a genius superior to that which it assists.
Dryden's Dind. to All for Love.

These paths and bowers doubt not but our joynt hands
 Will keep from wilderness with ease, as wide
 As we need walk, till younger hands ere long
 Assist us.
Milton, Par. Lost. book iii.

Thou I cannot see with another man's eyes, yet I may be assisted by another, who has better eyes, in finding an object and the circumstances of it; and so men may be assisted in making their judgment of things.
Williamston's Religion of Nature.

Loose at each joint; each nerve with horror shakes.
 Stupid he stares, and all assistants stand;
 Such is the force of more than mortal hands.
Pope, Homer's Iliad, book xvi.

Sturus rix t' c'erbibus him: or if stormy winds
 Rise not, the waters of the deep shall rise,
 And needing none assistance of the storm,
 Shall roll themselves on shore, and reach him there.
Cowper's Task.

But genius and learning, when they meet in one person, are mutually and greatly *assistent* to each other; and, in the poetical art Horace declares, that either without the other can do little.
Brittan's Moral Science, vol. ii.

ASSIZE, v. } Assises or sises, from the Fr.
 ASSIZE, n. } Assise, q. d. *Alacata*, (i. e.) adven-
 sion or session, from the verb *assire*, to sit; and this
 from the Lat. *assidere*. Skinner.

By Chaucer, Assize is used for *sit*, situation.

Je kyng he sende word assize, þat he hadde y^e franchise

þe kyng court, forto lokke domes and assize.
R. Gloucester, p. 53.

And on þe same assize serged and alowed
 Of all þe franchise, þat it was dowed.
R. Brant, p. 77.

For this prologue is so *assize*,
 That it to window all belongeth.

Gower. Gov. Am. The Prologue.

Discrete he was, and of great reverence:
 He seemed wissh, his wordes were so wise,
 Justice he was full often in assize
 By patron, and by plain commissioners.

Chaucer. The Prologue, v. i. p. 13.

Aod for to speke it other wise
 A prosle man can no lone assize.
 For though a woman wrole him please,
 His price can not ben at assize.

Gower. Gov. Am. book i.

There nas not a point truly
 That it nas in his right assize.

Chaucer. Rem. of the Rose, fol. 122. c. i.

We have heard of a particular doom passed upon every soul immediately upon the parting from this house of clay; and of a general judicature in these common assizes.

By. Half's Revelation uncorrected.

When in mid-air, the golden trump shall sound,
 To raise the nations under ground;
 When in the valley of Jehosaphat,
 The judging God shall close the Book of Fate;
 And there the last assize keep
 For those who wake, and those who sleep.
Dryden. Ode to the Memory of Mrs. A. Killigrew.

ASSIZE, is, according to its original sense, in old books of law, a meeting of the knights and other chief men, with the king's justices, for the administering of public justice betwixt subject and subject. Under the earlier Norman kings, all causes were determined either in the county court of the sheriff, or in *aid regis*, by justices, who travelled with the king, to the great inconvenience of suitors. But Henry II. in the parliament of Northampton, A. D. 1176, divided the kingdom into six circuits, ordering that two justices, called justices in eyre, (i. e. in itinere) should go round each, once in seven years. By Magna Charta, these circuits were ordered to be annual; and the statute of Westminster, 13 Edw. I. directs these judges to be selected from the regular justices of the king's courts. Assize, as Blackstone has well remarked, book iii. chap. 10, which was properly the jury who tried causes relating to the wrongful dispossession of real property, tried by what was called a Writ of Assize, came (as we often find in the older books, when such writs, before the introduction of the modern art of ejectment, were the regular remedy,) to denote the writ itself. Thus we read of an assize of novel disseisin—bringing an assize, &c. And, by a similar extension of meaning, the word is now, in common parlance, applied to the periodical visits of the judges to county towns, for the determination of suits of all descriptions, and for the trial of prisoners, by virtue of the king's commission directed to them.

ASSOBRE, is used by Gower. See SOBRES.

And thus I rede them assobre
 Thyng herie, in hope of such a grace.
Gower. Gov. Am. book vi.

ASSOCIATE, v. } Alsocio, to accompany, from
 ASSO'CIATE, n. } ASSO'CIATE, n. } ad, and socio, from socio, to
 ASSO'CIATE, adj. } follow.
 ASSOCIATION, } To join as a follower or com-
 ASSO'CIATION, } panion, to accompany, to com-
 bine, to confederate.

Kyng Henry of England, [was] partly grieved with the kyng of
 Romayne for breaking his promise, when he shoulde have asso-
 ciated him in his lornay agaynst the French kyng.
Hall. Henry VII. fol. 34. c. 2.

ASSOCIATE.

ASSOCI.

And the myde Frenche King being answered by the great
Primer of France, whom he had sent to the Isle of Rhodes, and
also to the Venetians to provide to the lake of Crete, which was
under their seignior, for the receiving of him, his associates and
armie, that all things were prepared and in a readynesse.

Grafton, v. i.

But whose will be a true follower of me, yf he intende to be
associate with me in blisse and glory, let the same in the meane
time dispose hymselfe to be my fellow or partner, to suffering
afflictions, and death.

Idol. Moris, c. viii.

—And a bare-footed brother out,

One of our order to associate me.

Here, in the citie visiting the sick.

Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*, fol. 74.

Antiochus being put besides all hope of association with Frusius,
deputed to Ephesus from Sardis, to visit and see the fleet, which
for certaine monthes had been rigged and in readynesse.

Holland's *Livy*.

To whom mild answer Adam thus return'd.

Sole Ere, associate sole, to me beyond

Compare above all living creatures dear,

Well hast thou motion.

Milton. *Par. Lost*, book ii.

With hospitable rites relieve the poor:

Associate in your town a wand'ring train,

And strangers in your palace entertain.

Dryden's *Virgil*, Æn. i.

Then conscience, unconstrain'd by fear, began

To stretch her limits, and raised the spurs;

Dul his indulgence as her gift dispose,

And made a wise alliance with her foes.

Can conscience own th' associating name,

And raise no blushes to conceal her shame?

Far more she has been thought a lawful dame.

Dryden's *Hind and Panther*.

Since fashion, riba, and rogues grow out of fashion,

Their penny-serives take care t' inform the nation;

How well men thrive in this or that plantation;

How Pennsylvania's air agrees with Quakers,

And Carolina's with associates;

Both or 'n too good for madmen and for traitors.

Dryden. *Prologue to the King and Queens*.

Associations of mysterious sense,

Against, but summing for, the king's defence;

E'en on their courts of justice letters draw,

And from our agents mangle up their law.

Dryden's *Abolition and Antislavery*.

When we consider Charles as providing in his court, or associating
with his family, it is difficult to imagine a character at once
more respectable and more amiable.

Home. *History of England*.

The Epistles, that is, the letters addressed by the Apostles and
their associates to different churches, and to particular individuals,
contain many admirable rules and directions to the primitive
converts.

Porteus's *Lectures*, v. i.

ASSOCIATION OF IDEAS. See METAPHYSICS.
ASSOIL, to soil, so used in the *Queen of Corinth*,
by Beaumont and Fletcher.

I, in gratitude, was bound to this,

And am to much more; and what ere he be,

And with unthankfulness would use, let him

Dig out mine eyes, and sing my name in verse.

Bacon's *Queen of Corinth*.ASSOIL, } Fr. *Alaouille*. Lat. *Allovere*.

ASSOILMENT. } To loose, or free from, to loose, free,
or clear from difficulty, from guilt, or the consequences
of guilt, to acquit, to pardon, to forgive.

Jee strokes je moule ek, wepide wef sore,

gef hym to assoyl, & ne myge vor reuke more.

R. Glouceter, p. 340.

The gape him assoyl'd in tressel'st,

When he had don his penance, he paid to God he gape.

R. Bruns, p. 6.

This is my drede, and ye, my brethren twelfe,
assoylth me this question I prele.

Chaucer. *The Merchant's Tale*, v. l. p. 368.

But for he had gold enough

To give, his stuns was dygged

With gold, wherof it was consumed.

Acastus, whiche with Venus was

His priest, assoyl'd in that cas,

Al were there no repentance.

Gower. *Can. d. book iii.*

I also will make of you a certayne question, whiche yf ye assoyl
me, I in lykewyse wyll tell you by what metecore I do these
thynges.

Bible, 1551. Matthew, c. 21.

Where vnto I will make none answer for feare to displease
his grace, nevertheless because Martin could not saye it, if his
grace looked well vpon the matter, he shall thinke that God hath
assoyl'd it for him in a case of his own.

The *Whole Works of Tyndal*, fol. 268. c. 2.

Here M. Harding once againe moveth a very needlesse ques-
tion. Wee demaunde, saith he, (S. Ambrose) whether we re-
ceive the same body of Christs by faith onely, without our body,
or with the office of our body, any child might be able to
assoyl this riddle.

Jewel's *Defence to the Apologie*.

But with such guilefull appendices of oaths imposed on him,
that this assoyment was not so much the Epilogus of his oyle, as
the Prologus of his new tragical vexations.

Spicer's *Heat of Great Brittain*.

And surely I may thinke this at the first was allowed in a kind
of spiritual discretion, because the church thought the people
could not be suddenly weaned from their conceit of assoyling, to
which they and beea so long accustomed.

Bacon's *Works*, v. iii. p. 155.

Why God's merciful intentions were not explicity declared
and propounded to Socrates and Epictetus, as they were to Judas
Isariot and Simon Magus, is another question, which we may
afterward in some manner assue.

Barrow's *Sermons*.

ASSOMONED, is used by Chaucer. See SUMMON.

That is weild (s.d. Philobone) indeed

But were ye not assomoned to appeare

By Mercurius that is all my dreid

Ye gentil feire (q. l.) we are all here.

Chaucer. *The Court of Love*, fol. 268. c. 2.

ASSONIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class mona-
delphia, order doctocandia. Eleven species of it have
been described, which for the most part are natives of
the Isles of Bourbon and Madagascar.

ASSORT, } Sort, from the Fr. and It., sorte,

ASSORTMENT. } genus, species, forma; from the

Lat. *Sors*; hence the Italian *Assortare*, to sort, i. e.
To separate, and dispose into distinct classes or kinds.

Skinner.

Sors, perhaps from the Gr. *Σόρα*, to draw.

Ye be but fools of good diport I

I wote you teachen a new play;

Sit downe here by one assort,

And better mirth never ye weigh.

Sir Frowkes, in *Ellis*, v. ii. p. 401.

We have frequent occasion to contemplate, to compare, to
assort, to unite, to distinguish, a number of things, more than we
can possibly bring together within the compass of our imagina-
tion.

Fisher's *Light of Nature*.

A taylor sat musically at it, in a shed over against the covert,
in assorting four dozen of bells for the harness, whistling to each
bell as he tied it on with a thong.

Sterne's *Tristram Shandy*.

An adjective is by nature a general, and in some measure an
abstract word, and necessarily pre-supposes the idea of a certain
species or assortment of things, to all of which it is equally ap-
plicable.

Smith. *Moral Sentiments*, v. ii. p. 350.

The people of England know how little influence the teachers of
religion are likely to have with the wealthy and powerful of long
standing, and how much less with the newly fortunate, if they
appear in a manner not very assented to those with whom they
must associate, and over whom they must even exert, in some
cases, something like an authority.

Burke, on the French Revolution.

ASSOIL.
= ASSORT.

ASSOT. ASSOT, *Fr. Assoter*. To sot, besot, make dole on, or bring too, far in love with.—*Cotgrave*. See *Sor*.

ASSUAGE.

They can not their slippers stee
So lightly upon the sole
Ther' herken, and in such wise assue,
That ther' their right coars and wele
Foryeto, and to their care thie.

Gower. Con. Am. book 1.

This wife, which in hir lutes greene
Was faire and fresche and tender of age,
She made not let the contrary
Of him, that wol on hir assue.

Id. B.

And gladsly he louth bore,
And she to make hym more assue,
Hir loue graunteth

Id. B.

Bot when he saw the blasing beauties becom,
Which with rare light his lost did becom
He marmold more, and thought he yet did dreame,
Not well awak't, or that some exterie
Assotted had his sense, or dazed was his eye.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book iii. c. viii. s. 22.

ASSUA'GE, } *Fr. Assouger or Assouger,*
ASSUA'GEMENT, } *from Assuare, from the Lat*
ASSUA'GIVE. } *Suavio, swcet.*

Skinner prefers the A. S. *assasan, assresian*. To soothe, to mitigate, to calm, to tranquillize.

William the Conqueror chens his wilked wille,
Out of his first error, repens of his ill,
And of his cruelles he gyves for to assuage.

R. Brunne, p. 78.

For it is thing most amorous
For to assuage a manous sorrow
To see his lady by the assuage.

Caesars. The Hymn of the Rose, p. 129. c. 4.

And fine the wude do vengence
Upon Florent, but remembrance
That thei take of his warklones
Of knightlones, and of gentlones,
And how he stode of courage
To th' emperour, made thea assuage,
And drest not slaine hym for inare.

Gower. Con. Am. book 1.

And therefore in so doubtful and perilous a case, they held off fight, and kept themselves within their camp, if haply time and space would assuage their rage.

Tell us, when shall those wroth we have had,
Or shall their duties be burnt more cease;
But all my rales in joling laugher spend,
Without hope of assuagement or release.

Spenser. Sonnet 36.

I could wish to have heard enough, that I might answer thee with a little more ease, or that the grief which I feel in this risk were assuaged ever so little, that I might, Pansa, make thee understand the error wherein thou art.

Shelton. Trans. Don Quix. ed. 1652.

Was broiled and roasted for the future feast.
The chief invited guests were set around:
And longer first assuag'd, the bowls were crown'd,
Which in deep draughts, their cares and labours drown'd.

Dryden's Fables.

The more rest or positive evils such as violently assault nature, whose impressions no reason can so withstand, as to extinguish all distaste or affective sense of them; yet this consideration will aid to abate and assuage them.

Barrow's Sermons.

If I can any way assuage private inflammations, or allay public ferments, I shall apply myself to it with my utmost endeavours.

Spectator, No. 16.

Ye youths of Albion's beauty-blooming isle,
Whose brows have worn the wreath of luckless love,
Is there a pleasure like the pensive mood,
Whom magic woe to soothe your softened souls?
O tell how raptures the joy, to melt
To melody's assuasive voice.

Warton's Pleasures of Melancholy.

—But to assuage
Th' impatient fervour which it first conceives
Within its recking bosom, throst'ning such
To his young hopes, requires discreet delay.

Cooper. Task, book iii.

Petroctus sat contentedly beside
Euryppus, with many a pleasant theme
Soothing the pen'rous warrior, and his wound
Sprinkling with drugs assuative of his pain.

Cooper's Band, book xv. p. 274.

ASSUBJECT, from *ad*, and *subjicio*, to cast down, or beneath.

Assubjectis, to assubject, make subject, subdue, bring under. *Cotgrave*.

ASSUBJUGATE, from *ad*, to; *sub*, under; and *jugum*, a yoke. To bring under the yoke.

No, this thrice worthy and right valiant Lord,
Must not so stiale his palmes, nobly acquir'd,
Nor by my will assubjugate his merit,
As simply titled as *scheller* is, by going to *Achilles*.

Shakespeare's Troil. and Cress. act 6. 88.

ASSUEFACTION, } *Assuefactio, assuefactum, to*
A'SSUEFUE. } *make usual, or customary, to*

accustom, from *ad*, and *facio* (as *ut*, *qual* *nas* *co*, *facinus*), to use, and *facio*, to make.

The power of *assuefaction* in other cases, made me think it very well worth trying what it would do in *respiration*; and the rather, because I presumed it might prove an experiment of good use, if we should discover, that by a gradual acquaintance an animal may be brought to live, either in a much thinner air, or much longer in the same air, than at first he could.

Bacon. Experimental Experiments.

There is a secret way of cure, unpracticed, by *accusatio* of that which in itself hurteth. Poisons have been made, by name, familiar, as hath been said.

Bacon. Natural History.

ASSUME, } *Assumo, assumptum, to take to,*
ASSUMEN, } *from ad, and sumo, perhaps from*
ASSUMING, } *sub, and emo; which signifies*
ASSUMPT, } *tolle, according to Festus, to lift*
ASSUMPT, } *up, to take up.*
ASSUMPTION, } *To take to, to take up, to take*
for granted, to arrogate, to claim.

At ye feste of our lady be *assumption*,

Wend ye kyng fro London toward Abindene.

R. Brunne, p. 29.

After the same fleshe was assumed and taken up into heavens, heavenly thynges were opened.

Udal. Helms, c. x. v. 2.

These rumours encouraged this priest much, to think and judge this time to be come that this Lambert might assume & take upon him the person & name of one of kyng Edward the fourths children.

Heil. Henry VII.

Out of this type suddenly issued out of a closte a fayre lady richly appoyled, & then at the minstrelts whiche wer in the pagant played & the angels sang, & suddenly againe she was assumpt into the cloud whiche was very curiously done, and aboute this pagant stode the Apostles.

Id. Henry VIII.

Let us now remember y^e this is the daye of the assumption of our blessed Lady, and truse we in her, that she will yll be anye them that bea put out of holy Church by excommunication.

Faigun.

Now shall then by descending to *assume*

Man's nature, les'n our degra de this own.

Milton's Par. Lost, book iii.

Many positions there are, but proofs of them you offer none. The sun of all your assumptions, collected by yourself is this.

Chillingworth. Answer to the first Chapter of Clergy

maintained by Catholics.

Pompey, Cramus, and Cesar, had found the sweets of arbitrary power; and each being a check to the others growth, struck up a false friendship amongst themselves, and divided the government betwixt them, which none of them was able to assume alone.

Dryden's Dedication to the Jews.

ASSUAGE.

—

ASSUME.

—

ASSUME. As Christians we are *assumed* to be servants of God, and recommended into his family, from which for our disobedience we had been discarded.
ASSUMPTION.

For spirits, freed from mortal laws, with ease,
 Assume what aces and what shapes they please.

Pope. *Rape of the Lock.*

I cannot but think that the very great scores and contempt wherewith Mr. T. hath thought fit to treat them, is a very great *assuring* to himself, and underscoring the judgment of the greatest men, both of the ancient and modern church.

Dr. Clarke. *Reflections, &c. on Anguish.*

Nothing has been more common in all ages, than to see faction and ambition *assuming* the mask of religion, and pretending to fight in the cause of God and his church, when they had in reality nothing else in view but to create confusion or establish tyranny.

Porteus's *Sermons*, v. i.

The unlikes of time and place arise evidently from false *assumptions*, and, by circumscribing the extent of the drama, loses its variety.

Johnson. *Proposals for &c. Shakespeare.*

It might have been expected that our Lord in delivering a prediction, should *assume* the accustomed style of prophecy.

Morley's *Sermons*.

Those who quit their proper character, to *assume* what does not belong to them, are for the greater part, ignorant both of the character they leave and of the character they *assume*.

Burke on the French Revolution.

ASSUMENT. *Assuo*, from *ad* and *sumo*, to stitch or tack on.

This *assument* or addition, Dr. Marshall says he never could find any where but in this Anglo-Saxon translation, and that very ancient Greek and Latin M. S. copy of Beza's.

Lewis's *Editions of the English Trans. of the Bible.*

ASSUMPSIT, in Law, is an action at law to recover a compensation to damages, for the non-performance of a *parol* promise; that is, a promise whether verbal or written, not contained in a deed under seal. For breach of promise of the latter kind, *assumpsit* will not lie; but the proper remedy is by action of *revenue* or *debt*. The word *assumpsit*, (Latin) means "be undertook," and has been taken as the name of this action, from its occurrence in declarations, i. e., formal statements of the Plaintiff's cause of action, when the pleadings were in Latin. The English law adopts the maxim that a mere nude agreement and undertaking, without any *quid pro quo*, will not constitute a binding contract. This maxim is commonly said to have been borrowed from the civil law, where we find it laid down, that "*ex nudo pacto non oritur actio*;" but this seems rather to have referred to agreements without certain formalities. See *Fondlanque on Equity*, l. p. 326. What our law requires, in order to sustain a promise, is termed a *consideration*: and it must be either benefit to the party promising, or to some third person, in whom he takes an interest; or detriment sustained by the party to whom the promise is made, at the request of the party making it. The degree of benefit or detriment, or its relative proportion to the act promised, is immaterial. A promise, to remuneration of an act which the party is bound to perform, as a promise to a sailor of extra pay, for extraordinary exertion to extreme peril of the ship, is void. The law regards such exertion as the sailor's previous duty; the consideration, therefore for the promise fails. *Assumpsits* are of two kinds: *express* and *implied*: the former are where the contract is actually made, in word or writing; the latter are such as the law implies from the justice of the case; as for instance, if I employ an artificer to do any work for me, the obvious justice of my paying him a reasonable sum for that work when done, raises an

implication in the understanding of the law, of a promise on my part to pay him.

ASSUMPTION, or **ASSUMPTION**, in Geography, the capital of the province of Paraguary, in South America. Long. W. 69° 35', Lat. S. 24° 47'. The town stands on the river Paraguary. It was founded by the Spaniards in 1538, was erected into a Bishopric in 1547, and is the residence of a Governor under the Viceroy of Peru.

ASSUMPTION, one of the Marianoe or Ladrone islands, in the Pacific Ocean. Long. 145° 35' E., Lat. 19° 43' N. It is volcanic, and totally uninhabited. La Perouse visited, and has described it in the first volume of his Voyage.

ASSUMPTION, an island on the coast of California. Lat. 28° N., Long. 120° W.

ASSURE, *Fr. Assur*, from *Serurus*, (*sure*), *careless*. To make sure or secure, firm, steady, certain; to free from care, fear, or anxiety; to give credit, confidence, confirmation, convincing proof.

O noble mark, your humiliate
Assure us and yett as haudicate,
 An oft as time is of necessity,
 That we to you now tell our heritance.

Chaucer. *The Clerk's Tale*, v. l. p. 321.

Therefore, as frend follich in me *assure*
 And tell me platte, what is thine enclon
 And small cause of wey, that ye endure.

Id. *Troilus*, book i. fo. 155, c. 4.

And eche of hem *assure* other,
 To helpe so to his core brother.
 To reuere hem of thilke endurage,
 And wyne ayeue her heritage.

Gower. *Con. Ast.* book iii.

Wherefore this I *assure* you, what so ever is don by word or deed, shall be remitted unto men, so that they repent them.

Idol. *Moivre*, cap. xii.

Wandering in this place, as in a wilderness
 No comfort have I ne yet *assure*
 Decade of wey, replete with fatiguance
 No answers receiving of mine enquirence.

Chaucer. *The Lamentation of Marie Magdalene*, fo. 321, c. iii.

A perfect, strong, and current *assurance* had hee of the Lord by a spirittuall premonition, that y^e remarkable decrees of his act judgments should be fulfilled at their tymes of him appointed.

Bald's *Language of both Churches*.

O that I had his power
 And blasing lampe of light
 Then thou my friend should stand *assured*
 To neuer see the night.

Tuchetville.

For with indifferent eyes myself can well discern,
 How come to pule a ship in stormes eke for to take the stern;
 Whose practice if I were guided in calm to save a barge,
Assuredly beleue, it well, it were to great a charge.

Surrey.

With y^e same faithful *assurances* doeth he performe y^e thing which he performeth y^e latter, y^e he doth y^e thing he doth more speedily.

Idol. *3 Petre*, cap. iii.

What said M. Dombledon, about the matter for my short cloake and shoo?

I'ao. He said, Sir, you should procure him better *assurance* then Burdiffe: he wold surely in his bond next years, he lik'd not the security.

Shakespeare's *Henry IV.* Part II. fo. 76.

"Thin dredge or dunsy layd chime to mee, call'd mee Dromio, since I was *assured* to be."

Shakespeare's *Comedy of Errors*, fo. 92.

It behoveth us rather, to searche the Scriptures, as Christ hath advised us, and thereby to assure ourselves of the Church of God.

Jeuel's *Defence of the Apology*.

ASSUMPTION.

ASSURE.

ASSURE.
—
ASTACUS.

Wherein it dwells free in the open plain
Unconscious, gnat, eye of acacia;
Certain unto itself, of equal vein;
One face, one colour, one assurance.

Daniel. To Sir Thomas Egerton.

For, till I have acquit your captive bright,
Assure yourself, I will you not forsake.
His cheerful words reviv'd his cheerless sight,
Spenser's Faerie Queene, book i. c. vii. s. 32.

Yet that we never shall forget to love
Our Maker, and obey him whose command
Single is yet so just, my constant thoughts
Assure'd, and still assure,
Milton's Par. Lost, book v.

He had as much modesty as could consist with a true virtuous
manner, and hated an impudent person.

Memoirs of Col. Hutchinson.

—So reason's plummeting ray
Was lent, not to assure our doubtful way,
But guide us upward to a better day.

Dryden's Religio Laici.

Let us suppose there were such a being as an Infinite Spirit,
clothed with all possible perfection, that is, as good, and wise,
and powerful, &c. as can be imagined: what conceivable ways
are there whereby we should come to be assured that there is such
a being, but either by the internal impression of the notion of a
God upon our minds; or else by such external and visible effects
as our reason tells us must be attributed to some cause, and which
we cannot without great violence to our understandings attribute
to any other cause but such a being as we conceive God to be,
that is, one that is infinitely good and wise and powerful? Now
we have this double assurance that there is a God, and greater or
other than this the thing is not capable of.

Tillotson's Sermons.

If God had not decreed, if he had not said these things, they
would yet assuredly be true: for it is a first contradiction to reason,
that a man ever should please God without obeying him; it is
a gross absurdity in nature, that a man should be happy without
being good.

Barrow's Sermons.

On informing him of our difficulties, and asking, whether we
might venture across the plain; he bid us, like *Came*, with an
air of assurance follow him, and fear nothing.

Gold's Tour to the Lakes.

ASSURANCE, in Commerce. See INSURANCE.

ASSURANCE, on Lives. See ANNUITIES, § iii.

ASSYE, (ASAI GAR'u) a small town in the Decan,
in the province of Berar, in lat. 20° 14' N. long. 76°
40' E. celebrated on account of Lord Wellington's
decisive victory over Sindiah and the Raja of Nagpur,
23rd Sept. 1803, after a severe engagement in its
neighbourhood.

ASSYRIA, properly so called, in 36° N. lat. was
bounded on the north by Armenia, on the west by
the river Tigris, on the south by Babylon, and on
the east was separated from Media by a chain of
mountains, called Mount Zagrus, now Tag-nighi.
The dominions of the Assyrian monarchy consisted
of many small provinces, the most noted of which
were the following:—1. Aramachitis, bordering on
Armenia. 2. Carduch, a mountainous territory, the
ancient residence of the Carduchi, mentioned by Xer-
ophon in his *Anabasis*. 3. Adiabene, in Strabo's
time, the most considerable province in Assyria. 4.
Calabrene, lying between the mountains of Armenia
and Zabrus Major. 5. Apollonias, watered by the
river Ganges. 6. Setaceene, by some reckoned a
portion of Babylon. 7. Chalonitis, separated from
Media by a branch of Mount Taurus.

ASTACUS, in Zoology, a genus of the class Crus-
tacea, order Malacostraca, family Astacini. Generic
character—Abdomen, with the sides of the segments

obtuse—middle lamella of the tail composed of one
piece. Leach—*Samouelle* compend.

The common lobster (*Astacus Gammarus*) inhabits
all the rocky shores of this island, particularly where
the water is deep and clear. It is taken generally
in pots formed of wicker, like a wire mouse-trap,
and so constructed, that, although it is easy for it
to enter, it cannot possibly return. It is a curious
fact that lobsters are apt to cast their claws on
a loud clap of thunder, and Pennant relates that
the same effect is produced on firing a gun. It is
extremely prolific, Doctor Baxter having counted no
less than 12,444 eggs under the tail of one female,
exclusive of those not fully formed in the body. It is
remarkable that notwithstanding the lobster is found
in such abundance, it has not been observed in a very
young state. The female deposits her eggs at all
seasons of the year, and does not change the shell
during the year in which she produces them. The
new shell is quite soft and membranous at first, but
hardens in a short time. The male is distinguished
by the narrowness of the tail, and by a strong spine
upon the centre of each of the transverse processes
beneath the tail. The lobster is capable of springing
to an astonishing distance with the rapidity of flight,
being known to pass in this way thirty feet or more
at once spring, a circumstance which was known to
the ancients. It is described by Aristotle, under the
name of *Astacus*.

ASTAROTH, or ASHURATH, an idol of the Philis-
tines, which Sammel commanded the Jews to pull
down. It was also the name of the false deity of the
Sidonians, adored by Solomon when he turned idola-
ter. Some persons consider Astaroth to have been a
king of Syria, and that he was so termed from his
great wealth, the word signifying flocks of sheep and
goats, the chief riches of the primitive ages.

ASTARTE, the name of a Phœnician goddess, by
many supposed to be the same with Astaroth, the plural
of Astarte, although it should seem there were two
idols of these names. Astarte is called in Scripture
"the Queen of Heaven," (Jerem. xii. 18.) whence it
is a natural supposition that the moon was adored
under this name, and this is expressly affirmed by
Lucian, *Λογιστὴν τὴν τοῦ οὐρανοῦ Σεληνιαστὴν ἑστῶσαν. De Syria Dea* § 4. Solomon introduced her worship in
Israel; but it was Jezebel principally, the wife of
Ahab, who first celebrated her with extraordinary
pomp in Palestine, where no less than four hundred
priests were attendant on her rites. Cicero calls her
the fourth Venus of the Syrians, and Lucian tells us,
he learned from a Phœnician priest, that she was
Europa, daughter of Agenor, king of the Phœnicians,
and defiled after she had been carried away by Jupiter,
to comfort her father for her loss.

Milton thus beautifully records Astarte among the
fallen angels, making her the same with Astaroth:

—With these in troop

Came Astaroth, when the Phœnician call'd

Astarte, queen of Heaven, with crescent horns;

To whose bright loins, nightly by the moon,

Sidonians virgin paid their vows and songs:

In Sion also and among, where stood

Her temple on th' offensive mountain, built

By that curious king, whose heart, the large,

Requ'd by fair Jezebel, fell

To idols foul. Par. Lost, book i.

ASTATA, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the

ASTATE.
—
ASTE-
RIAS.

order *Hymenoptera*, family *Laridae*. Generic character: Antennae filiform, inserted towards the mouth at the base of the clypeus. Eyes meeting behind.

ASTATE. See ESTATE.

The world's estate ever upon debate,
So male be slier some estate,
Now here, now there, now in, now fro,
Now up, now down, the world goeth so,
And ever hath done, and ever shall.

Geoff. Com. in. *The Prologus*.

In England and France, which greatly was renowned;
Of whom both Flemish and Scotland staid in dread;
To whom great estates obeyed and lowlye.

Shallon, in *Perry*, v. 1.

Yet often remembrance to them of their estate, maye happen to
radiate in their hartes intolerable prycke, the most dangerous
poyson to nobilitas.

Sir Thomas Elgot. *The Governour*, c. 1v.

ASTBURY, or ANSTREBY, in the county of Essex,
a rectory, with the Rectory of Congleton, valued in
the King's books at £68. Church dedicated to St. Mary. 1½ miles, S. W. from Congleton. Population,
in 1811, 3419.

ASTEEPING, in steeping, v. Steep.

Where Persh's flowers
Perfume proud Bahal's bowers
And paint her wall:
There we lay'd asteepling,
Our eyes in culm-sewing,
For Sam's toll.

P. Fletcher's *Poems*, p. 163.

ASTER, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Syn-
gnesia*, order *Polygynia Superflua*. Generic character—Receptacle naked—Pappus simple—Florets of
the ray, more than 10—Calyx imbricate, its scales
spreading.

This is a numerous genus inhabiting all climates.
The *A. Tripolium*, or Sea Star-wort, is a common plant
on our coasts. The *A. Chinensis*, Chinese Aster, or
Queen Margaret, is met with in almost every gar-
den. The *A. Amellus*, or Italian Star-wort, is the
Auellus of Virgil, 4th *Georgic*, 271.

ASTERBY, in the county of Lincoln, a discharged
rectory, valued in the King's books at £8. 0s. 10d.
Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Peter.
Population, in 1811, 199. Parish rates, in 1803,
£90. 15s. 6d. at St. Sd. in the pound. It is 7 miles,
N. from Horncastle.

ASTERIA, in *Mineralogy*, the Cut's eye, a gem
of two colours, pale brown and white, hard and tak-
ing a high polish. It is found in the East and West
Indies, in Borneo, and in Bohemia.

ASTERIAS, in *Zoology*, a genus of the class *Radi-
ata*, order *Echinodermata*. Generic character—Body
suborbicular, flattened, the circumference star-shaped,
either angulated, lobated, or divided into distinct
rays. Under surface of the divisions having a longi-
tudinal sulcus, furnished at each side with moveable
spines and numerous foramina for the passage of re-
tractile tubular tentacula. Mouth below, central,
placed at the union of the sulci.

The animals of this genus, together with those of
the modern genera, *Comatula*, *Euryale*, and *Ophiora*,
were comprehended in the Linnean genus *Asterias*,
and now form a section of the arlier. They are well
known to our fishermen under the names of star-fish
and sea stars; and several species are excessively de-
structive to oyster beds. They increase by the inter-

nal formation of a kind of buds or gemmæ, which
when fully formed are cast forth by the parent. They
possess the power of reproducing mutilated parts to a
great degree, so that not only a separated portion is
speedily re-supplied, but if an individual be divided
into as many parts as there are rays, provided a por-
tion of the mouth be attached to each, every ray will
become a perfect asterias. The fishermen, by whom
they are much dreaded, appear to be well aware of
this property, for if in dredging for oysters, any of
these animals are brought up, they immediately cut
them into small pieces, and crush them to atoms with
their feet.

The genus is, for the sake of convenience, divided
into two sections. In the first, "*Scutellate*," the un-
guled divisions are shorter than the disk. Those
of the second section, "*Radiate*," have elongated
radii, whose length greatly exceeds the diameter of
the disk. The species are numerous, and many of
them are natives of Britain.

A'STERISK, } Gr. *Ἀστέρω*, from *ἄστρον*, a
A'STERISM, } star.

Asterisms, is applied to a collection of stars—a
constellation.

In whose partitions by the lines disposed,
All the clear northern asterisms were
In their corporeal shapes with stars enclosed
As by th' old poets they in *Hesiod* were placed.
Drayton's Poems, book vi.

NINTH. Lofty Urania, then we call to thee,
To whom the heavens for ever open be,
Thou th' asterisms by name dost call,
And show'st us when they do rise and fall.
Drayton's Nymphs, iv.

But I have never observed that mankind was much delighted or
improved by their asterisms, comas, or double comas.
Johnson. Proposition for, &c. Shakespeare.

ASTERISK, a character of reference used in printing
or writing, similar to a small star, *denique*, whence
it derives its name.

ASTERIODS, a name given by Dr. Herschel to
certain new planets, or celestial bodies, discovered
by M. Piazzi and Dr. Olbers about twenty years since.
He describes them as celestial bodies which move in
orbits either of little or considerable excentricity
round the sun, the plane of which may be inclined to
the ecliptic in any angle whatsoever. Their motion
may be direct or retrograde; and they may, or may
not, have considerable atmospheres, very small comas,
disks, or aueci. *Phil. Trans.* xcii. 229.

ASTEROPE, the name of one of the Pleiades, or
seven daughters of Atlas, who were placed in the
heavens after death, and formed in constellation.

ASTERON. On the stem. See *Stem*.

Hering left this stem a stern, we seemed to be come out of a
river of two leagues broad, into a large and main sea.
The World encompassed by Sir Francis Drake, 1578.

The gully gives her side, and turns her prow:
While those asters descending down the steep,
Thou' going waves behold the boiling deep.

Dryden. Aeneid, l. 6. 256.

But at seven in the evening, finding we did not near the chase,
and that the water was very far a-stern, we shortened sail, and
made a signal for the cruizers to join the squadron.

Anna's Voyage, p. 38.

ASTERTE, A. S. *Astirion*, to move, to stir. Past
part, *Astired*, *Astert*. To move, to get away, to
escape.

ASTE-
RIAS.
—
ASTERTE.

ASTERTE.

ASTIFU-
LATE.

Though that I no wepin have in this place,
But out of prison am asterie by grace,
I drede nought, that either this shall die,
Or thou so shalt not love to Emile.
These which thou wilt, for thou shalt not asterie.
Chaucer. *The Knight's Tale*, v. l. p. 64.

Till that the high kyng of bynges,
Which seith and knoweth all thynges,
Whose eis nare nothyng asterie
The prynces of man's bette,
Thei speken and some in his ere,
As though that loode wyndes were.

Gower. *Con. An.* book l.

And to the sterres soch dreddful shoutes be sent,
Like to the sound the roving bull fourch looven,
Which from the altar wounded doth asterie,
The swarung nas when he shakes from his neck.

Surrey. *Scott.* book li.

ASTHALL, in the county of Oxford, a discharged vicarage, valued to the King's books at £7. 9s. 4½d. Patron, Eton College. Church dedicated to St. Nicholas. Population, in 1811, 294. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 3s. 7d. in the pound, £208. 4s. 10½d. 3 miles E. from Burford.

ASTHENIA, (from *ασθενειν*, to be weak, strength) in Medicine, extreme debility. Those diseases are termed asthenic, in which the powers of the system are considerably impaired.

ASTHMA, (from *ασθμα*, I breathe with difficulty), in Medicine, a disease belonging to the class *Nervous*, order *Spasmi* of Cullen. Difficult respiration occurring at intervals; with a sense of stricture in the chest: respiration performed with a wheezing noise: difficult cough at the beginning of the fit, sometimes none; but freer towards the end, and often attended by a copious discharge of mucus.

Asthma is occasionally symptomatic of other diseases. The Idiopathic is divided, by Cullen, into three species; 1st. the spontaneous, having no evident cause: 2dly. the exanthematic, arising from the repulsion of eruptions, and 3dly. the plethoric, connected with a full habit of body. The mode of treating asthma is infinitely varied according to circumstances: the principal remedies employed are bleeding, blistering, emetics, opium, digitalis, smoking tobacco or stramonium, tootics, antispasmodics, &c.

ASTI, county of, or ASTERAN, in Geography, a country of Piedmont, bounded on the west by the principalities of Chieri and Carmagnola; on the north by the Vercellese and the Alexandrine; and on the south by the Marquisate of Gorzegno. It measures about 25 miles by 10. The capital of the same name is a large well built town on the left bank of the Tanaro. It is the see of a bishop. Population 22,000. 20 miles W. from Alexandria, 24 E. from Turin. Trade corn, wine, and silk.

ASTYPULATE, } To contract, to consent or
ASTYPULATION. } agree to. See STIPULATE.

And there appeynted hym by his pevy counsaill to be ex-
amined. In whiche examination he noblyng deyned, but wyndy
and seriously did astypulate and agree to all thyngs layd to his
charge, if he were in any of thein culpable or blame worthy.

Hall. *Henry VII.*

I do by my royal authority, conferre to persons of monastical
religion, and by the consent and assentation of my prynces and
peers do establish and comen to them that monastery.

Bp. Hall. *Polemical Works*, p. 187.

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Shortly, all, but a hateful Epitaphus, have outspelled to this
truth: and if some fancied a transmigration of souls into their
bodies; others a passage to the stars, which formerly governed
them; others to a house and what Elysian fields; all have picked
upon a separate condition.

Bp. Hall. *Devotional Works*.

ASTLEY, in the county of Warwick, a curacy of the clear yearly value of £10. Chapel dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 258. Poor's rates, 1803, £300. 18s. 9d. 4½ miles W. from Nuneaton.

ASTLEY, in the county of Worcester, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £5. 13s. 4d. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population, in 1801, 697. Poor's rates, in 1803, £370. 12s. 4½d. at 8s. 9d. in the pound. It is 5 miles S. from Bewdley.

ASTLEY, ARBOTS, in the county of Salop, a curacy, not in charge. Population, in 1801, 740. Poor's rates, in 1803, £364. 4s. 8d. at 4s. in the pound. It is 3½ miles N. from Bridgenorth.

ASTOMA, in Zoology, a genus of the class *Arachnide*, order *Aceru*, family *Microphithira*. Generic character—mouth inferior, almost obsolete, no obvious palpi, nor instrument for sucking nourishment. Parasitic.

ASTOMELLA, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order *Diptera*, family *Isoplate*. LATRILLIE.

ASTON, BLANK, in the county of Gloucester, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £6. 12s. 4d. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Andrew. Population, in 1811, 847. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 2s. in the pound, £137. 6s. 9d. 4 miles N. E. from North Leeds.

ASTON, BOTTERELL, in the county of Salop, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £7. 1s. 0½d. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population, in 1811, 194. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 5s. in the pound, £186. 19s. 8½ miles S. W. from Bridgewater.

ASTON CANTLOW, or CANTLEW, in the county of Warwick, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £9. 9s. 7d. Church dedicated to St. John Baptist. Population, in 1811, 744. Poor's rates, 1803, at 12s. 10 in the pound, £980. 4½ miles N. E. from Alcester.

ASTON, CLINTON, in the county of Buckingham, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £23. 6s. 10½d. Patron, Jesus College, Oxford. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population, in 1811, 652. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 6s. 10 in the pound, £611. 6s. 10d. 4½ miles E. from Aylesbury; 2½ W. from Tring.

ASTON, EVAN, in the county of Salop, the parish of Ilwold, a curacy not in charge. Population, in 1811, 112. Poor's rates, 1803, at 1s. 3d. £45. 13s. 11d.

ASTON, FLAMVILLE, in the county of Leicester, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £23. 12s. 6½d. Patron, the Earl of Hardwick. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population, in 1811, 71. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 1s. 6d. in the pound, £133. 12s. 1d. 2½ miles E. from Hinckley.

ASTON, TRIDMAN, in the county of Hereford, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £7. 7s. 1d. Population, in 1811, 471. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 3s. in the pound, £204. 13s. 7½d. 6½ miles E. from Ross.

ASTON in the Walls, or Aston le Waleys, in the county of Northampton, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £9. 9s. 7d. Patron, St. John's College, Oxford. Church dedicated to St. Leonard. Population, in 1811, 191. Poor's rates, in 1803, at

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ASTON.

ASTON 3s. 10d. in the pound, £213. 12s. 2½d. 16 miles S. W. from Daventry; 7½ N. from Banbury.

ASTON, NORTH, in the county of Oxford, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £26. 10s. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 259. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 4s. in the pound, £202. 11s. 3d. 2½ miles S. E. from Deddington.

ASTON, ROWANT, in the county of Oxford, a discharged rectory, with the chapel of Stoken Church, valued in the King's books at £16. 18s. 11d. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul. Population, in 1811, 807. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 6s. 3d. in the pound, £427. 3s. 3½ miles S. E. from Tetworth.

ASTON, SANDFORD, in the county of Buckingham, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £12. 16s. 0½d. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population, in 1811, 76. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 3s. 3d. in the pound, £84. 3s. 6d. 8 miles W. from Wendover; 4 E. from Thame.

ASTON, SOMERVILLE, in the county of Gloucester, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £29. 3s. 4d. Patron, Lord Somerville. Population, in 1801, 87. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 1s. 9½d. in the pound, £89. 13s. 11½d. 6 miles N. E. from Winchester; 4½ S. from Evesham.

ASTON, STREPLA, in the county of Oxford, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £16. 2s. 8½d. Patron, Bezan-nose College, Oxford. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population, in 1811, 440. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 4s. 10½d. in the pound, £194. 6s. 4d. 4 miles S. from Deddington.

ASTON, TROLD, in the county of Berks, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £10. 12s. 11d. Patron, Magdalen College, Oxford. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population, in 1811, 324. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 7s. in the pound, £393. 11s. 3. 3 miles S. W. from Wallingford.

ASTON UPON TRENT, in the county of Derby, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £29. 15s. Church dedicated to All Saints. Population, in 1811, 1389. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 8s. in the pound, £516. 8s. 6½ miles S. E. from Derby.

ASTON, in the county of Warwick, a vicarage, valued in the King's books at £21. 4s. 9½d. Church dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul. Population, in 1811, 14,366. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 4s. 6d. in the pound, £498. 15s. 11d. 2½ miles N. E. from Birmingham.

ASTON, or WHITE LADIES ASTON, in the county of Worcester, a vicarage, valued in the King's books at £6. 17s. 3½d. Church dedicated to St. John Baptist. Population, in 1801, 266. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 6s. 6d. £191. 12s. 9d. 5 miles E. from Worcester.

ASTON, in the West Riding county of York, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £12. 15s. 2½d. Patron, the Duke of Leeds. Church dedicated to All Saints. Population in 1811, 601. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 3s. 8d. in the pound £303. 13s. 7½d. 6 miles S. from Rotherham.

ASTON, AUSTON, in the county of Buckingham, a vicarage, valued in the King's books at £6. 7s. 11d. Patron, the Earl of Chesterfield. Church dedicated to St. James. Population, in 1811, 267. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 2s. 6d. in the pound, £393. 6s. 8½d. 5½ miles N. from Aylesbury.

ASTON, in the county of Hereford, a discharged rectory, valued in the King's books at £2. 13s. 4d. Church dedicated to St. Giles. Population in 1811, 33. Poor's rates in 1803, at 4s. in the pound, £47. 13s. 6d. 11 miles N. from Leominster and 4 S. W. from Ludlow.

ASTON, in the county of Hertford, a rectory valued in the King's books, at £26. 11s. 8d. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population in 1811, 403. Poor's rates, at 6s. in the pound, in 1803, £349. 17s. 3½ miles S. E. from Stevenage.

ASTONE, }
ASTONV, } former, to astonish, amaze, daunt,
ASTONEDNESS, } appal; to ashish, put out of countenance; also, to stonny, to be numb, or dull the senses. Coigrove.

But needles have that it wende,
He drad hym of his owne soue,
That maketh hym well the more astone.

Gower, Can. Am. book vi.

No wonder is though that she be astoned,
To see so gret a come in that place,
She never was to non swiche grette wounded,
For which she looked with ful pale face.

Chaucer. The Clerk's Tale, vol. i. p. 331.

Then Daniel called Belshazzar, being amazed, spake not almost of an hour (he was so astounded that the hyge began to ashake him out of his troublous cogitations and hevye mynde.

The Expозиtions of Daniel by Juge.

And with that word, the arwes in the cas
Of the golden claret fast and ring,
And forth she went, and made a ranshing,
For which this Emelie astounded was,
And sayde; what amouneth this, alas!

Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, vol. i. p. 93.

And anon aile the people sayge Amon was astounded and their droobies, and thei rennyng grete him. Welf. Mark. ch. ix.

Immediately caused each a drinkers, y^e the kyage & all y^e were about hym were w^t it gretly astounded, and sherie; in so moche y^e the kyage lost y^e use of reason, and went from hyrselfe more than two yeres followynge.

Felgen.

And the Lord shal smite thee with madness, and with blindness, and with astounding of heart. Geneva Bible. Drutermane.

Then advanceth he himselfe unto the first entrie or foot of the bridge, and all goodly to be seene, amongst those that would so point fight, but showed their backs, he so beat his sword and point in their very faces, resolute to encounter with them hand to hand, that even with his wonderfull hardnes and incredible courage he astounded and amazed his enemies.

Holland's Lye.

The Captain of the Helots, with a blow whose violence grew of fury, not of strength, or of strength proceeding of fury, struck Philaud upon the side of the head, that he reeled astounded.

Stacy's Arcadia.

Adam, soon as he heard
The fatal trumpet don by Eve, amaz'd,
Astounded stood and blank, while horror chill
Ran through his veins, and all his joints relax'd.
Milton's Par. Lost, book ix.

All these surrounding him, all invading him, all discharging themselves upon him; would it not astound a mind so pure? would it not wound a heart so tender and full of charity?

Berrow's Sermons.

ASTONISH, }
ASTONISHEDLY, }
ASTONISHING, } See ASTONE.
ASTONISHINGLY, }
ASTONISHMENT, }

Achates half astounded stood in awe,
With fere and lay saynith haith war they,
And langit sair to schak harden.

Douglas, Escader, book i, p. 29.

ASTO

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Atroyed with him Achaian was, for joy they would have leapt
To jump their hands. *Phœr. deinde.*
Be *astounded* ('O ye heaves!), be afraide, and shoud at each
a thinge, sayeth the Lorde. For my people hath done two cruell.
Bible, 1539, Jerem. ch. ii.

Her looks did so astonish me,
And set my heart a quaking;
Like stay that gra'd, I was much'd,
And in a stranger taking.
Beichler, in Killa, vol. 3.

I am sore vexed for the hurt of the daughter of my people; I
am heavy, and *astoundment* hath taken me.

Genev. Bible, Jerem. ch. viii.

Was it, that thy amazement as yet received not the purposed
loss of this measure, and *astoundingly* waited for the reason? was
it, that though *Andas* were more foolish, yet *Malchus* was more im-
pudently cruel.
Sp. Hall's Contemplations.

But all at once,
Pondering the danger with deep thoughts; and each
In other's countenance read his own dismay.
Astound! *Milton's Par. Lost, book ii.*

Princes, Potentates,
Warriors, the flower of hearts, once yours, now lost,
If such *astoundment* as this can seize
Eternal spirits.
Milton's Par. Lost, book i.

He prays, he raves, all means in vain he tries,
With rage inflam'd, *astound'd* with surprise.
Dryden's Vir. Gen. 4.

The structure of the parts, the design and harmony of the whole,
will be master of perpetual *astoundment*, and ought to be a motive
to the most devout adoration of that supreme and incompre-
hensible Being; of God, the maker and preserver of the universe.
Bolingbroke's Essay on Human Knowledge.

His (Satan's) roaming upon the frontiers of the creation between
that mass of matter, which was wrought into a world, and that
shapeless unform'd heap of materials, which still lay in chaos and
confusion, strikes the imagination with something *astoundingly*
great and wild.
Spectator, No. 313.

He enjoined the man to keep secret the *astounding* miracle he
had wrought, and he commanded him to comply with the injunction
of Moses.
Porteus's Lectures, vol. i.

Milton's plan did not admit any character; but most of those
whom he has introduced are formed and discriminated with com-
mon-sense propriety. Satan is *astoundingly* superior to all other
beings.
Bentley's Modern Science, vol. ii.

With swift recoil the long-man'd coursers thrust
The chariots back, all boding woe at hand;
And every charioteer *astound'd* saw
Fires, that fall'd not, illuminating the brows
Of Pelæus' son by Palas kindled there.
Cooper's Rhad, book xviii.

Astoundment is that state of the soul, in which all its motions
are suspended, with some degree of horror.
Burke on the Sublime and Beautiful.

I would that in thy son's last awful hour,
I could as surely seize him from the death
That threatens him, as soon he shall receive
Arms of such splendor, that, by thousands seen,
They shall excite *astoundment* all.
Cooper's Rhad, book xviii, p. 347.

ASTORGA, a town of Spain situated on the river
Tuerina, and 17 leagues from Leon. It stands on a
slight eminence, surrounded by a fertile and most
beautiful country, and contains four parish churches,
two chapels, and two religious houses. It formerly
disputed the rank of capital of the Asturias with Oviedo,
but the question was decided on Astorga being de-
clared a part of Leon; and it is now only the chief
place in a small marquisate, created in 1465. It is the
see of a bishop, subject to the metropolitan of Com-
postella. Long. 6° 25' W. lat. 42° 32' N.

ASTOUND, } Tooke (vol. i. p. 471) considers the
Astound, adv. } as verb Astound to be the past participle
Estound (Estounded) of the French verb Estonner

(now written Estonner) in astonish. But the more
immediate derivation perhaps is from the verb Astone,
Astoned.

Attic lute n'yd a drevchax we smoot hym to provide
In ye braune, jst he lay, and deyde in astounde.
R. Gloucester, p. 299.

And by these thynges it came to passe, that as well the Doctour
with whom he disputed, as also y^e parties that stood round about
wer witnesses of the same disputacion, y^ere veral much
astounde.
Udal, Labe, cap. ii.

And with this word she fell to ground
Astounde, and there she laye astound.
Gower, Con. Am. l. 4.

Now they lye
Groveling and prostrate on y^e lake of fire,
As we ere while, astounded and amaze'd,
No wonder, fall'n such a pernicious hight.
Milton's Par. Lost, book i.

These thoughts may startle well but not astound
The virtuous mind, that ever walks attended
By a strong-aiding champion, conscience.
Milton's Comus, book 210.

At first, heard solemn thro' the verge of heaven
The tempest growls; but as it nearer comes
And rolls its awful banners on the wind,
The lightning's flash a larger curve, and more
The noise astounds.
Thomson's Summer.

ASTRA'BAD, more correctly ASTERABAD, a small
territory, with a capital of the same name, on the
southern coast of the Caspian Sea, separated, on the
south, by a chain of mountains from Damaghán and
Bistám; on the west by the river Aster, and on the
east, by Jurján. The soil is fertile, but the air is
infected with pestilential vapours from the marshes.
The town has 3,000 houses, a good harbour, and a
flourishing trade in silks and cottons. Otter and Wahl
take it for the Sideris of Pliny; and the river Aster,
which runs close to the town, for the river of the same
name; but Mannest thinks the Aster is the Mazeras
of the ancients. Rennel places Asteráhd in lat. 36°
50' N. and 54° 5' E. (See Hanway's Travels, i. 92,
Otter's Voyage, i. 191. Wahl's *Forder und Mittel Asien*,
p. 355, 761. Pliny, lib. 16. Ptolemy's *Geogr.* Man-
nest, iv. 435. Jnubert, *Voyage en Perse*, 435.)

ASTRAKHAN, a government or vice-royalty of
the Russian empire. It was anciently an independent
Tatarian sovereignty, but was conquered and re-
duced to a Russian province by the Tsar Ivan Vasi-
liovich in 1554, and now forms a distinct province,
named after its principal city; having been separated
from that of Caucasus, in which it was formerly in-
cluded. It lies on the shores of the Caspian Sea, in Bousaricia
the southern part of Asiatic Russia, near the great
rivers Volga and Ural; and is bounded by the govern-
ments of Caucasus, Saratov, Orenburg, the country of
the Kirgis Tatars, the Caspian Sea and the ci-devant
Persian provinces of Daghistán and Lerichistan. Its area
contains 19,568 square geographical miles, and the
number of its inhabitants is from 300,000 to 400,000.
It extends from east to west about 600 geographical
miles, and from north to south about 530. It is
formed by the Kalmuk and Astrakhan Steppes or plains,
the former lying between the Ural and the Volga, the
latter adjoining to those of the Kuma, which stretch
as far as that river. The climate is rather hot than
cold, for the thermometer rises in the summer months
to 158° (Fahrenheit); but the nights are cold, and the
dew very copious. The ice is usually strong enough
to bear at the end of November, and is not melted
again till February. The melting of the ice is followed
Climate.

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Hills.

Rivers.

Lakes.

Produce.

by violent storms of cold wind; but as soon as they cease spring advances with such rapidity that, in a few days, the ground is covered with flowers, and the whole face of nature is changed. The summer is extremely dry, and artificial irrigation is so necessary, that the inhabitants are induced to neglect agriculture, and trust to the neighbouring countries for a supply of grain. This government is separated from that of Kazan and the Kozaks of the Ural, by a branch of the Uralian chain, which stretches from north to south, and is the only line of hills in this province. They are naked and barren, having no wood but a few shrubs, and are called, "the common hills." The rest of the government is one continued level. The principal rivers in this government are, besides the Volga and the Ural, the Akhtuba, running parallel with the Volga, the Manich, great and little Usen, the Kuban, the Kuma, lost in the summer months in the sands, the Terek, the Malkn and the Sula. The air in the Steppes, along the Caucasian lines, is said to be very unhealthy. At a distance from the stream the soil becomes salt and barren, and is covered with drifting sand. There are several salt lakes such as the Bogdo, Basinskot, Graznot, Kobilikha, &c.

Oz the banks of the rivers, particularly of the Terek, the soil is fertile; but the saline clays of the steppe are very unproductive. The salt marshes on the shores of the Caspian afford abundance of plants fit for making kelp; and the Steppes, while they retain the winter moisture, many useful vegetables, such as wild asparagus, horse-radish, cypers, &c. Along the sides of the Volga, rhubarb and liquorice are plentiful, and the extract from the root of the latter is prepared in considerable quantities in the city of Astrakhan. The sea-rose, found near the mouth of the Volga, is considered as sacred and nutritious by the Hindus of Astrakhan. Its flowers have a fragrant smell, and give an essential water which has the scent of amber. The shrubs of the Steppes are cherries, aloes, dwarf almonds, and cypers. Near the river there are the willow, alder, birch, ash, poplar, elm, and oak; the beech also on the Kuban; but no large woods. The fruit trees on the Volga and the Terek, are Tatarian mulberries, cherries, apples, pears, plums, apricots, peaches, quinces and vines; and on the latter there are also figs, almonds, wild olives, Spanish chestnuts, pomegranates and Cornelian cherries (*Cornus mas*.) which, when pickled, taste like olives. Silk, tobacco, and cotton are plentiful. and the gardens produce all the common roots and herbs in abundance. The *Hedysarum gyrans* is often found wild, and dried as a substitute for tea; it has a bright yellow colour and a very agreeable smell and taste. The pasture is often excellent, and much cattle is reared. Want of wood renders game scarce: but antelope, foxes, hares, ground hares, a peculiar species of squirrel (perhaps the *pole-touche* of Buffon.) And musk-rats are occasionally met with. Bustards, pheasants, pelicans, partridges, and moor-game, with large flocks of migratory birds, in the spring and autumn, are common. The Caspian, and the rivers running into it, abound in excellent fish; particularly in sturgeon; and the fishery is one of the principal means of subsistence to the inhabitants of this country. Sea and rock-salt, natron, epsom-salt, salt-petre-earth, bitumen, and mineral pitch, are also an abundant source of wealth to Astrakhan. The salt is collected from natural reservoirs in the districts

in which the soil is impregnated with it. The water is evaporated in summer, and leaves a thick crust, in which calinary salt commonly, and Epsom salt, more rarely, predominates. The lake Bogdo, near Astrakhan, which is 30 miles in circumference, furnishes the best; and 576,748 pud (each weighing 40 pounds) are annually delivered into the crown warehouses. Gauder-sal and magnesia are also obtained from the products of some of the Astrakhan salt-works. There is a rock of salt called Chapchachi in the Steppe between the Volga and the Ural, and also other beds of rock-salt; but they are not worked.

The population of this vice-royalty is composed of Population. individuals from a great number of different nations: Russians, Kozaks, Tatars, Kalouks, Indians, Persians, Armenians, &c. The military, public officers, merchants, mechanics, and other citizens, are *Russians*. The garrisons on the Ural, consist of *Kozaks*, derived from those of the Don. They choose all their officers, except their commander, the hetman, or ataman, who is appointed by the emperor. The *Tatars* are, excepting a small number, osnad tribes, continually encamped, and consisting of about 8000 families of the Noghais, and 1000 of the Kuadorov and Kilil-bash's, from Persia. The *Kalouks* are of the Derbet tribe, and live in their encampments between the Volga, Don, and Kuma. They have about 12,000 families, and feed their numerous flocks and herds in the Steppes of Astrakhan and the Kuma. They perform military service in lieu of paying taxes, are followers of Budd'hā in religion, and are governed by their own chiefs. They are mild and intelligent, but incontinent and addicted to dishonesty. Besides these different tribes, there are Armenians, Greeks, Georgians, (Gruzians,) Bukharians, Khivizians, and Hindus, in considerable numbers, constantly inhabiting the city, to say nothing of the Europeans who are generally to be found there. Some colonies, established on the Terek and Kuma, in 1781, cultivate grain, gardens, and vineyards, and produce a considerable quantity of silk. The number of their villages amounted to 53 in 1796.

Pasturage and fishing, as was before observed, Occupa-
are the two great objects of productive industry in this vice-royalty. Besides the cattle before-men-
tioned, buffaloes, asses, goats, and the *znigak*, a kind of wild goat, are reared in great numbers. Pasturage is the only occupation of the wandering tribes; and the fleeces of their sheep, which are of the broad-tailed breed, furnish the most important article of their clothing. The cattle are generally housed, both in winter and summer. Horses are bred in great numbers, and some of the rich Kozaks have as many as from one to five hundred: the Noghais have occasionally as many as 2000. The honey of this province is celebrated for its aromatic flavour; and the *kaspaze's*, or water-melons, which sometimes weigh thirty pounds, form a common article of food in the autumnal months, and are sent even to Petersburg.

It is in the Caspian and the Volga that the fishery Fisheries. of Astrakhan is followed on a large scale; and the fish principally sought for, are the two kinds of sturgeon (*acipenser sturio* and *huio*.) shad, (*clupea alba*.) sterlet and serrigun (*acipenser ruthenus* and *stellatus*.) salmon, and surmullet. Some of the persons engaged in this trade, employ as many as 120 men, and have a large number of barns and out-houses, near the

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fishermen's huts, for preparing the roe to make caviar, drying the isinglass (the bladders of the *huso* or *beluga*), and keeping their tackle. Spring, autumn, and winter are the seasons when the fish approach the coast; and, with a favourable wind, one company, commonly takes from 16 to 30,000 large fish. The fishery on the Volga is now open to all the inhabitants of its banks, that on the Ural is the private property and chief occupation of the Kozaks established there, who pay a moderate tax to the government for the enjoyment of that privilege. The mouth of the Yemba, on the north-east side of the Caspian, is visited by 700 ships from Astrakhan, in spring, and 300 in autumn, who bring back about 700 *sevrugs* each. Other merchants of Astrakhan carry on a fishery for sturgeon in the months of the Persian rivers; for the Persians make no use of that fish, and a profit is thus gained of more than 130,000 rubles (£36,000 nearly). The Russian fests, during which no meat is allowed, amount to one-third of the whole year, so that the fishery is an unfaulding source of occupation and profit. That at the mouths of the Volga alone has been calculated to yield the following returns:

	Fish.	Value.	Bladders.	Value.	Caviar.	Value.
		Rubles.		Rubles.	Pud.	Rubles.
Belugas	103,500	258,750	776	46,500	10,350	33,225
Sturgeon	302,000	392,500	933	51,315	22,920	90,220
Starry do. (Sevrugs)	1445,000	378,000	1866	108,360	90,700	317,450

So that the whole amounts to 1,868,480 rubles (£373,696), and this is only a small part of all the fish caught in this sea: the profit on the rest cannot be estimated at less than a million of rubles (£200,000). Distilleries, tanneries of common Russia and morocco leather, shagreen, soap, silk, and woollen manufactures, are the other commercial establishments carried on in this province.

(See *Touke's Russia*; *Petri in Ersch's Encyclop.* Rytchikov's *Topography of Astrakhan*; Moscow, 1774. (in Russ.); *Priebe Russlands Handel*, vol. iii.; *Schäffer's Beschreibung der Russischen Reichs*, vol. ii.; *Pallas, Georgi, Krasnenikov's Travels*, and *Georgi's other works*; *Storch's Picture of the Russian Empire*, 7th vol.; *Falik and Gmelin's Travels*; *Chutkov on the Russian Trade*, 20 vols. 4to.; *Pleshcheyev's View of the Russian Empire*, 1790; *Makinovitz's Gazetteer of the Russian Empire*, 6 vols. (in Russ.); *Göldenstadt's Travels in the Southern Provinces*, Petersburg, 1787; *Ismailov's Ditto*, (in Russ.); *Herrman's Statistical Account of the Russian Empire*, 4 vols.)

ASTRAKHAN, the capital of the above government, (originally called Hájó Terkhán, hence the Giterchan, or Ginterchan, of the middle ages.) in E. long. 46° 2' 15". N. lat. 46° 21' 12". One of the most populous and wealthy cities in the Russian Empire. It contains nearly 4,000 houses and more than 70,000 inhabitants, and is the third town in the empire. It is placed on a hill, in a long narrow island, in the Volga about 30 miles from its entrance into the Caspian Sea. It is surrounded by swamps, which are very unhealthy in spring. It lies on the low side of the river, just where it begins to divide into different branches. The town itself, without including the suburbs, is from six to eight miles in circumference. It has few remains of former times, and the houses are built principally of brick and sand-stone. The

eminence, called Hare's Hill, is the principal place in the town, and contains the old Tatar castle, or kreml, and the Beloi-Gorod, (white tower,) built by the Tsar, Michael Feodorovich, now in ruins. Here also is the cathedral, archbishop's palace, public offices, main guard, arsenal, and powder magazine. Bel-gorod, which adjoins the kreml, on the same hill, is 2510 feet long, 1440 feet broad, and 7110 feet in circumference. The city has four gates, but its walls are completely in ruins. A small ill-built suburb, on the north side of the kreml, is separated from it, by the little outlet of the Volga, called Kutumova, on the right bank of which, to the south of the city, the greater part of the citizens' houses are placed. The streets are not all paved; they are also much exposed to inundations. Between the kreml and the canal, close to the Volga, is the dock-yard; and, on the other side, the Tatarian and Armenian suburbs (Slobods,) and barracks for the troops. Among the houses of the Armenians, there is a Roman Catholic convent. The Exchange, where ships from the Caspian unload and land their goods, is not far from St. Nicholas's Gate, and opposite to it is the haven for vessels coming down the river. The Slobod, called Bezrodnyia, and the Tatarian colony Tzarevo, are a little further off, and are not considered as suburbs. There are about 100 vineyards within the circuit of these suburbs, 30 of which belong to the crown: a school for the artillery, a bank, and court of justice, in what was formerly the Troitskai convent; and, in the Belograd, the Spasso-preobrazhenski convent, two parish churches, two hospitals, and a bazar for the Armenians and Hindús.

The variety of nations and religions brought together here, is astonishing. This is manifested by the number and difference of the places of worship. The total of them is 57: 33 Russian churches of the Greek communion; 37 Tatarian mosques, churches, and temples; 4 Armenian; 2 Roman Catholic; 1 Lutheran; and 1 Hindú temple. There is a handsome hospital dedicated to St. Paul, consisting of a body and two wings, built of stone; and six monasteries. Besides the trades and manufactures mentioned in the preceding article, there are several dyeing-houses, brick-fields, tallow-candle manufactories, one iron-foundry, and many looms for weaving linen, veils, and saabes. The morocco leather manufactured here is most esteemed, next to the Turkish; and the red is more expensive than the yellow. Great activity is always kept up in the dock-yard. There is also an establishment for rearing silk-worms, and a botanic garden. Astrakhan and Kizliar are, to the southern provinces, what Petersburg, Archangel, and Riga are, to the northern and western; and are, moreover, the great entrepôt for the trade between Europe and Asia. The European goods are brought either by water from Petersburg, or, on sledges, by land from Moscow, and are shipped across the Caspian, or conveyed to Mozdok, in Mount Caucasus. The merchants engaged in this trade, of whom there are 1800 Russians, eighteen to twenty Tatars, sixteen Armenians, seventy-five Hindús, and many foreigners from different parts of Europe, employ 250 vessels of different tonnage. More than half of the whole trade carried on is in the hands of the Armenians. Business is transacted principally after vespers, on account of the excessive heat in the

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summer months. Many of the Russian merchants are ship-owners, and employ their vessels in trading voyages to Persia, Khiva, or Bukhara, or carrying stores to Kizliar, and salt, for the crowto, to the towns on the Volga. The rent of their cellars and warehouses is also a source of large profit. The Hindh merchants generally quit their native country at an early age, setting out with a small capital, which they soon increase by trade, on their way through Tatar and Persia; and they make enormous profits by letting the Tatars of Astrakhan have their goods on credit for an exorbitant interest; so that the latter are always, like too many of our countrymen in India, over head and ears in their debt. Many possess a capital of above 100,000 rubles (£20,000.) They are not entered in any of the public registers, and only pay twelve rubles annually to the crown, for their shop in their bazar, which is within the large, square, wooden building, which they inhabit. They meet every morning and evening, after having bathed in the Volga, to perform their devotions.

The imports from Persia and Bukhara are very considerable. They consist in raw silk, about 120,000 lbs. yearly, wool, dyed woollens, madder, galls, morocco leather, chiotzes, dyed linens, silks, gauzes, small carpets, counterpanes, frankincense, besour, naphra, rice, deer-skins, lamb-skins, Circassian cloth, tulips (pelisses), mountain-honey, tobacco, cotton gowas, Persian peas, dried figs, almonds, figs, pomegranates, olives, oil, saffron, dried peaches, and spices. The exports are not so considerable, and consist almost entirely in foreign manufactures; such as velvet, rochinsed, satin, plush, linen, and other woven articles, sugar, Russia-leather, iron, dyeing substances, glass, cord, steel and iron wares, metal utensils, wrought gold and silver, wax, soap, trinkets, alum, quick-silver, vitriol, sul-ammoniac, &c. More ships come from Mangishlak and the other parts of the Caspian to Astrakhan, than are despatched from thence. The productions of the surrounding country have been already enumerated above. Notwithstanding the advantage of the Caspian on one side, and the Volga, navigable for more than 1800 miles, on the other, Astrakhan only ranks among the third-rate commercial towns in Russia; this has been occasioned chiefly by the continued interruptions of the intercourse with Persia,—a disadvantage which has now ceased; but the distance from any European port is an evil which will always be felt. It is not only by sea that the trade at Astrakhan is carried on: caravans often arrive by land from Bukhara and Khiva. The Indian trade alone puts from 6 to 700,000 rubles (£120 to 140,000) in circulation annually. The silk-manufactures employ from 3 to 400,000 (£60 to 80,000.) The supplies sent to the Caucasian lines along the Terek, from 4 to 500,000 (£100 to 120,000.) The prices of all internal produce are low, e.g. rye seldom more than 3 or 4 rubles per chetvert, wheat 4 or 5 rubles, barley 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ rubles; beef 4 or 5 kopeks per lb. (1½ to 2½); fish 2 or 3 kopeks per lb.; wood 4 to 6 rubles per cubic fathom, &c. Foreign goods are, as may be supposed, excessively dear; e.g. sugar 60 to 80 kopeks (2s. to 2s. 6d.) per lb.; and other articles in proportion. A gymnasium, a theological seminary, and the botanic garden, are the only literary institutions at this place.

The ancient residence of the Tatar Khans was six geographical miles above the present site of the city, in a higher and more healthy situation. Little is known concerning the time of its origin, or of its condition before the 13th century, when William de Rubrugals found it a village without any fortifications; but, at the close of that century, it attracted the notice of Timor, as a considerable emporium for the trade with India and China; and it was completely ruined by him. It was still a mere village when Josephat Barbaro saw it in the 15th century; but Amhrosio Contarezi, the Venetian ambassador, found a considerable trade in rice and silk carried on there, in the latter end of that century. It supplied Russia with salt, which was conveyed on the Volga and the Okka to Moscow; and, from its vicinity to Persia, it became a considerable commercial town under its Tatar rulers. The conquest of it, by the Tsar Ivan Vasilovich, in 1554, was therefore very advantageous to Russia, as it gave her the command not only of the Volga, but also of the Caspian Sea; an advantage of which her sovereigns then felt the value, and which they have not neglected to improve. (The authorities referred to in this article are the same as those cited above.)

ASTREA, in *mythology*, daughter of Jupiter and Themis, or, according to some authors, of Astræus, king of Arcadia, by Aurora. She was the Goddess of Justice, and lived on the earth during the golden age; but the wickedness of mankind drove her to Heaven again in the iron age that followed, when she was placed among the constellations of the zodiac, under the name of Virgo, or Erigone. She was however the last of the deities who retired from the earth,

— et virgo cede madentes,
Ultima culestem, terras Astrea reliquit.

Ovid.

ASTRAGAL, the moulding which separates the shaft of a column from its capital, originally perhaps to conceal the junction of the two parts, and since by way of ornament. In ancient architecture, the astragal is in the form of beads of various shapes; in the modern, it is frequently covered with leaves, flowers, and sometimes even fruits of various sorts.

ASTRAGALUS, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Diadelphis*, order *Dicandria*. Generic character. Legumen two-celled, more or less gibbous, seeds in two series. A beautiful and interesting genus. English name milk-vetch. The well known substance gum tragacanth is a product of several species of Astragalus.

A. Tragacantha. Shrubby, petioles spinescent, leaflets elliptic, hoary peduncles, with about four flowers, of the same length with the leaves, teeth of the calyx ovate. A native of the south of France.

The *A. Ferus*, however, has been said to produce the greater part of the tragacanth of commerce; it is a native of Armenia and the north of Persia. Olivier who discovered this plant, states, that the gum is produced also from other species. It is formed on the trunks of these plants, from the month of July to the end of September. See *Gum*.

ASTRANTIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Digymia*. Generic character. Pappi involucre, lanceolate, spreading, equal, long, coloured; flowers mostly abortive; seeds rugose.

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This genus belongs to the natural order *Umbellales*; it possesses more beauty than most of this tribe.

ASTRAPÆUS, in Zoology, a genus of insects, of the order *Coleoptera*, family *Staphylini*; distinguished from the other genera of this family, by the termination of the palpi in an almost acuminiform articulation.

ASTRAUNGED. Used by Udall. See *ESTRANGED*.

You were vitally *astranged* from the title and fellowship of the nation of Jews, into whom he seemed to be peculiarly presumed.

Udall. *Ephraim*, c. 2.

ASTRAY. *Astrayed*, Past participle of the A. S. verb, *strayan*, to stray, to scatter. Tooke, i. 468.

The regally are frowarde, euen from their mother's wombe; as soon as they be borne, they go a *stray* and speake lyes.

Bible, 1539. *Psalm*, liiii.

If thou be fallen from the way of truth, come thereto againe and thou art safe; if thou be gone *astray*, come to y^e folde againe, & the shepherd Christ shall see thee.

The Whole Works of Tyndal.

First every day, boweth thy God on knee,

So to direct thy *stray'd* steps againe;

That he which every creature thought doth see,

May hold thee in, when thou wouldst go astray.

Gaueigne.

You labour may

To lead *astray*

The heart that constant shall remain;

And it while

Will sit and smile,

To see you spend your time in vain.

George Withers, in Ellis, v. 1.

I walk unseen

On the dry smooth-shaven green;

To behold the wandering moon,

Riding near her highest noon;

Like one that had just leapt *astray*

Through the hear's wide pathless way.

Milton's *J. Penetration*.

Chase from our minds the infernal foe,

And peace, the fruit of love, bestow;

And lest our feet should slip *astray*,

Protect and guide us in the way.

Dryden's *Vinci Creator*.

And darkness and doubt are now flying away,

No longer I roam in conjecture's *forlorn*;

So breaks on the traveller, faint and *astray*,

The bright and the balmy effulgence of morn.

Brettis. *The Hermit*.

ASTREA, in Zoology, a genus of the class *Polypi*, order *Faginata*. Generic character; coral stony, fixed, conglomerate, encrusting other marine bodies, or aggregated into a subglobose mass; the upper surface only covered with orbicular or subangular, lamellated, sessile stars.

The *Astreae* were comprehended, with many other genera, under the Linnean genus *Madrepora*; which, in the system of Lamarck, forms the section of lamellated corals.

ASTRICT, v.

ASTRICT, adj.

ASTRICTIO, n.

ASTRICTIVE, a.

ASTRICTIVE, a.

ASTRICTIVELY, ad.

ASTRICTIVELY, n.

ASTRICTIVELY, n.

Astrictive may be found in both Cotgrave and Bullockar.

As for being *strict* in a *strict* place, will by force vicer his sense, & as y^e course of water *stricted* & letted will flow & burst out in continuance of time: so they censure crocodile, & mule

serpent, could not lay lurk in malicious hearts, nor venous stomachs, but in conclusion the most (according to her nature) *apere* & shew herself.

Hall. *Edward VI.*

The moiester any thing is, the softer also it is found to be. sensibly, given it is to cold, to *astrect* and congel: it followeth therefore of necessity, that whatsoever is most *astrect* and congel, is also the truth, is likewise the coldest.

Holland's *Plutarch's Morals*.

Being sodden, it is *astrective*, and will strengthen a weak stomach; and eaten raw, it bindeth the belly, and stayeth the leaks.

Holland's *Pliny*, book xx.

The naked branches and bushes whereupon there were grapes have an *astrective* virtue.

Among those medicines which they call *styptics* or *astrecting*, there is not a better thing than to boile the root of this blackberry branle to the third; and, namely, to make a collution therewith to wash the cankers or sores breeding in the mouth.

Id. book xxiv.

For *astrectio* prohibiteth dissolution: as we see generally in medicines, whereof such as are *astrective* do inhibit putrefaction: and by the same reason of *astrecting*, some small quantity of oil of vitriol will keep fresh water long from putrifying.

Bacon's *Natural History*.

So of marriage he is the author and the witness; yet hence will not follow any divine *astrectio* more than what is subordinate to the glory of God, and the main good of either party.

Milton's *Prose Works*, p. 182, v. 1.

Do not the words *astrecting*, narcotic, epispastic, caustic, and innumerable others, signify qualities of bodies, which are known only by their effects upon animal bodies.

Reid's *Empiric*.

ASTRINGENTS, in *Materia Medica*, such remedies as counteract relaxation in the solida of the body. Internally, they are used to prevent all immoderate evacuations; externally, they are called *styptics*, and are employed in hemorrhages, bruises, strains, and inflammation. See *MATERIA MEDICA*, Division ii.

ASTRIDE, on stride, on a stride. See *ASTRAIDLE*. } STRIDE and STRADLE.

And yet for all that, rode *astride* on a beast,

The worst that e'er went on three legs I protest.

Cotton's *Poems*, p. 725.

ASTROIT. Gr. *Asteron*, a star.

As touching *astroite*, manie make great account of it; and such as have written more diligently thereof, doe report, that Zoroaster has highly commended it, and told wonders thereof in art magicke.

Holland's *Pliny*, book xxviii.

The little *astroite* doubtful race,

For starry rays, and pencil shades admir'd.

Jago's *Poems*.

A'STROLABE, } From *astron*, a star, and *labron*,
A'STROLABRA, } I take.
A'STROLABY.

The first party of this treatise shall rehearse the figures, and the members of thine *astrolabe*, byname that thou shalt have the greater knowing of thine own instrument.

Chaucer. *Astrolabe*, l. 262. c. 1.

For I have ben toward the parties of Brabant, and beholden the *astrolabe*, that the starr that is clept the transcantaryne, is 53 degrees high.

Sir John Mandeville.

She sende for hym, and he came,

With hym his *astrolabe* by name;

With pointes and circles nervousious,

Which was of fine gold precious.

Gower. *Can. Am.* book vi.

Liv'd Tycho now, struck with this ray which shone
More bright 't' th' moon, than others beam at noon,
He'd take his *astrolabe*, and seek out here
What new star 'twas did gild our hemisphere.

Dryden. *On the Death of Lord Hastings*.

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ASTRO-
LABE

ASTRO-
LABE.
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ASTROLABE, in *Astronomy*, any instrument where-with the altitude of the heavenly bodies is taken. Hipparchus is said to have been the first inventor of these; and is spoken of by Ptolemy on that account with religious horror. *Ideoque ausus rem eism Deo improbare, an numerare poterit stellis, ac eydera ad nomen expagere*, lib. ii. cap. 37. From Ptolemy's description, *Almagest*, lib. v. cap. 1. the ancient instruments of this kind must have resembled armillary spheres. He was the first who changed their figure; and by a projection on a plain surface, produced what is called a planisphere. The sea astrolabe is a nautical instrument once used for taking altitudes at sea, but now generally superseded by Hadley's quadrant. It consists of a large brass ring, about fifteen inches in diameter, with a graduated limb crossing it, to which is affixed a moveable index, turning upon a centre, and carrying two sights. When turned to the sun so that the rays pass through both these sights, the edge of the index cuts the altitude in the graduated limb.

ASTROLOGY,

ASTROLOGER,
ASTROLOGIAN,
ASTROLOGUE,
ASTROLOGICALLY.

From ἀστρον, a star, and λόγος, I say, I discourse.
Astrology appears to have been used by old writers as synonymous with *astronomy*.

Ah! my heart, her eyes and she
Have taught thee new astrology.
How e'er love's native hours were set,
Whate'er starry signs and such,
Tis in the mystery of her eyes,
If poor love shall live or die.

Cræcher, in Chastoner.

The sixth and the seventh of these seven sages
Was Sytio and Sithero, as then were *astrologues*
Was ermine to them both as their sciences;
For of *astronomy* likewise the courts and all the fœces,
But as they know it well enough, and were right soot of art.
Poems imputed to Chæcer. Merchant's Second Tale.

In' ame but a leide compilation of the labours of old *astrologues*,
and have it translated in mine English only for thy doctrine, and
with this sword shal I sleue only.

Chæcer. Astrolabe, fol. 262. c. 1.

Thus art wearied in the multitude of thy counsels; let now
the *astrologers*, the starr gazers, and prognosticators, stand up,
and see thee from these things that shal come upon thee.

Genes Bible. Isaac xiv. 13.

Atlas, the son of Libya, (or, as some say, the Egyptians, and as
others, the Assyrians,) invented *astrology*.
Holland's Pliny, book vii.

The above named *astrologers* affirmed, that a man could not
possibly pass the space of 90 degrees from the ascendent, or
erection of his activities, (they call anaphora), and that
even this course through the degrees of three signs, is many
times interrupted and cut short, either by the opposition and
encounter of some wicked planets, or by the maligne aspects of
them on the sunne.

Id. Id.

It may be to good purpose, to set downe and prescribe certain
rules, by the scale and square whereof *astrological* observations
may be examined; that what is fruitfull may be retained; what
is frivolous, rejected.

Beacon, On Learning. By Wals, 1640.

But Chæcer was likewise an *astrologer*, as were Virgil,
Horace, Persius, and Manilius.

Dryden's Pref. to Fables.

The Marquess of Huntly was in the King's interests; but would
not join with him, though his sons did: *astrology* ruined him;
he believed the stars, and they deceived him.

Bishop Burnet's Hist. of his Own Times, v. 1.

On which was written, not in words,
But hieroglyphic signs of birds;
Many rare pithy saws concerning
The worth of *astrologic* learning.

Dante's Hædhræ, part i. can. iii.

Since God did not make them (the stars), nor any thing else in
the world, singly for themselves alone, but also to contribute to
the publick good of the universe, their physical influence seeming
inconceivable, they knew not well what else could be worthy of
them, unless it were to portend human events. This indeed is the
best score that can be made of *astrological* prognostication; but
it is a business that stands upon a very weak and tottering; if not
impossible, foundation.

Cudworth's Intellectual System, c. 1.

I have long considered the gross abuse of *astrology* in this
kingdom, and upon debating the matter with myself, I could
not possibly lay the fault upon the art, but upon the gross impos-
itors who set up to be the artists.

Swift. Predictions for the year 1708.

More wonders typicall impress the sky,
Then e'er was trac'd with *astrologic* eye!

Brooks. Man of Law's Tale, modernized.

ASTROLOGY, an art of which one of its greatest
professors, Ptolemy, who flourished in the time of
Hadrian, gives the following definition; " which
teacheth by the motious, configurations, and influ-
ences of the signs, stars, and celestial planets, to
prognosticate of the natural effects and mutations
to come in their elements, and their inferior and ele-
mentary bodies." *Quadripartite, l. 1.* In this earliest
sense of the word, *Astrology* and *Astronomy* are the
same: latterly, they were widely separated; *Astrology*
being divided into two parts, natural and judicial; by
the first, sundry operations of nature, as changes
of the weather, &c. were predicted: by the second,
moral events, and the destinies of nations and in-
dividuals were just as confidently foretold.

The cultivators of judicial *Astrology* (*divinationem*,
partem, γαρβανειαν) boasted much of its antiquity.
Adam, they said, received it directly from God, and,
by it, foreknowing that the earth was twice to be
destroyed, once by fire and once by water, and
desirous to communicate this information to his
posterity, he engraven characters declaratory of it
upon two pillars, the one of brick, the other of stone.
The brick pillar was destroyed by the flood; the pillar
of stone, as Josephus relates, (l. 2.) was still exist-
ing in his days in Syria. Seth learned this art from
Adam; and he, as well as Abel, Cain, Enoch, Noah,
and Nimrod, were all expert *Astrologers*: the lives
of the Antediluvian patriarchs having been prolonged
to a duration of many hundred years, purposely
in order that they might have time to bring their know-
ledge of *Astrology* to perfection. Abraham, in his
migration from Chaldeæ, brought the art with him
into Egypt, and hence it flowed first to the Greeks,
and afterwards to the Latins; although the Ethio-
pians, the Carians, the Magi, and the Arabs, all claim
the merit of its propagation.

In imperial Rome, *Astrology* was held in great
repute, especially under the reign of Tiberius. " Do
you wish," says Juvenal, in his sublimest satire,

" ————— tutor haberi
Petræus æneas Cæsarum in rape sedentia
Cum grege Chædeo?"

It was from Thrasyllus, the origin of whose influ-
ence over his master is so finely related by Tacitus,
(*Annals*, vi. 91.) that Tiberius acquired the knowledge
which enabled him to foretell to Galba, when he was

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only consul, "Thou too, Galba, shall some day taste the sweets of empire," thus alluding to his late and brief possession of sovereignty. When Claudius was dying from the effects of Locusta's poison, Agrippina cautiously dissembled his progressive illness; nor would she announce his decease till the very moment arrived which the astrologers had pronounced fortunate for the accession of Nero, (*Ann.* xii. 68.) although the ambitious mother had been warned from the same source that her own death would be the consequence of her son's enthronement. "If he reigns," said the Chaldeans, "he shall kill his mother." "Let him kill me," was the reply, "so that he be but regnant."

Augustus had discouraged this empty science, by banishing astrologers from Rome; but the favour of his successors recalled them; and though occasional edicts, in subsequent reigns, restrained, and even punished all who divined by the stars; and though Vitellius and Domitian revived the edict of Augustus, the practices of the astrologers were secretly encouraged, and their predictions extensively believed. Domitian himself, in spite of his hostility, trembled at their denunciations. They prophesied the year, the hour, and the manner of his death; and agreed with his father in foretelling, that he should perish, not by poison, but by the dagger. On the evening of his assassination he spoke of the entrance of the moon into Aquarius on the morrow. "Aquarius," he said, "shall no longer be a watery but a bloody sign; for a deed shall there be done, which shall be the talk of all mankind." The dread hour of eleven approached. His attendants told him it was passed, and he admitted the conspirators and fell. (*Suet.* in *Dom.* 16.)

Adrian was by turns a believer in and a persecutor of Astrology. He is said to have kept an astrological diary, and to have prognosticated his own death with correctness; and in his days, and those of Marcus Antoninus, the art received great accessions from Ptolemy. Under Gordian, Censorinus wrote his tract *De die Natali*, which, though treating mainly on astrology, is valuable for much collateral information afforded by it. Vossius is perhaps a partial witness, for he himself was a Philomath. It is a little book of gold, he says, in one place (*de scient. Math.* 34.); and in another, it is a most learned work, and of the highest use and importance to chronologists, since it corrects and determines with great exactness some principal eras in pagan history.

In the eighth century the venerable Bede and his distinguished scholar Alcuin, are said to have pursued this mystic study. In that immediately following, the Arabians revived and encouraged it; and under the patronage of Almansur, the Miramolin, in the year 827, the *periphrasis syriaca* of Ptolemy was translated under the title of *Abmagret*, by Al Hazen Ben Yuseph. Albumasar added to this work, and the astral science continued to receive new force from the labours of Alfraganus, Ebnennozophim, Alfarragius, and Geber.

The wise Alonzo of Castile has immortalised himself by his scientific researches; and the Jewish and Christian doctors, who arranged the tables which pass under his name, were convened from all the accessible parts of civilised Europe. Five years were employed in their discussion; and it has been said that the enormous sum of 400,000 ducats was disbursed in the towers of the Alcazar of Galiana, in the

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adjustment and correction of Ptolemy's calculations. Nor was it only the physical notions of the stars which occupied this grave assembly. The two cabalistic volumes, yet existing in cypher, in the royal library of the kings of Spain, and which tradition assigns to the hand of Alonzo himself, betoken a more visionary study; and in spite of the denunciations against his orthodoxy, which were thundered in his ears on the authority of Tertullian, Basil, and Bonaventura, the fearless monarch gave his sanction to such masters as practised truly the art of divination by the stars; and in one part of his code enrolled Astrology among the seven liberal sciences.

Of the early progress of astrology in England little is known. Bede and Alcuin we have already mentioned as addicted to its study. Roger Bacon could scarcely escape either the contagion of the art, or else the imputation of it; if, in truth, he was incredulous; and his imprisonment was owing to one or the other of these causes. It was the period of the Stuarts which must be considered as the acme of astrology among us. Then Lilly drank the doctrine of the magical circle, and the invocation of spirits from the *Ars Notoria* of Cornelius Agrippa; and used the form of prayer prescribed therein to the angel Salomonus; and entertained among his familiar acquaintance the guardian spirits of England, Salsmel and Melchidael, (*Merlin Anglicus*, 1647.) His ill success with the divinatory rod induced him to surrender the pursuit of rhabdomania, in which he first engaged; though he still persevered in asserting (and the assertion is not among the lowest proofs of his shrewdness,) that the operation demanded secrecy and intelligence in the agents, and, above all, a strong faith, and a competent knowledge of their work. The Dean of Westminster had given him permission to search for treasure in the cloisters of the abbey in the dead of the night. On the western side the rods turned over each other with inconceivable rapidity; yet, on digging, nothing but a coffin could be discovered. The man of art retired to the abbey, and then a storm arose which nearly destroyed the west end of the church, extinguished all the candles but one, (and this burned dimly,) and made the rods immovable. Lilly succeeded at length in charming away the demon; but no persuasion could induce him to make another experiment in that species of divination.

His first tutor, Evans, a debauched Welsh parson, had already initiated him in astrology; and after seven or eight weeks' study, he had been able to set a figure perfectly. Of this he had given a public specimen, by intimating that the king had chosen an unlucky horoscope for his coronation in Scotland, in 1633. The library of a second Evans, who far exceeded the first, having accidentally come into the possession of our astral tyro, determined his future lending study; and henceforth he became a professed astrologer.

Few disciples of Sidrophel have done more than Lilly, to establish the justice of the hard words which the learned knight and physician, Sir Christopher Heydon, who flourished nearly at the same time, has objected so much to as used by his antagonist Mr. Chambers. Mr. Chambers says all Astrologers are damned, that they are worse than witches, wagging wits, giddy pates, juggling jacks, cogging figure-fingers, pultry, ignorant wizards, stable keepers of

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LOGY.

Augurs, foul dung heaps, Babylonical superstitions, Balaam's asses, sons of ditch drabs, and confederates of the Devil. He adds, with equal mildness, that their mother was a Hittite, that the magistrate who refuses to expel them is worse than an infidel, and that those are happy who shall bruise their bones and limbs against the stones. Lilly, it was clear, deserved as much of these reproaches, as will fairly attach to one who has been well described as a man who, "by dint of plain, persevering, consistent unblinking roguery, acquired a decent reputation, convinced himself that he was honest, put money in his pocket; and in due time was comfortably buried under a black marble stone, inscribed with a record of deceased virtue in English and Latin." His roguery consisted in sustentation of the triple character of impostor, thief, and pimp. His reputation arose from prophesying alternately on the side of the King and the Parliament, as the scale of each inclined. His money was made by interested marriages, by pensions for furnishing the existing government with intelligence; by presents, and by pupils. His first wife left him £1,000, for six years conjugal service. His second brought him £500, but she was extravagant, and spent more than her portion. The parliament gave him occasional donations, and a pension of £100 a-year. The King of Sweden sent him a gold chain and medal worth fifty pounds, for the honourable mention which was made of his Majesty in the Almanacks for the years 1657 and 1658; and after having lectured publicly on astrology for a few years, we find him expending nearly £4,000, in the purchase of estates. His funeral achievements were arranged by his sage adviser, Elias Ashmole, who procured a Latin and English elegy on his death, from the afterwards well known Bishop Smalridge, at that time a scholar of Westminster school.

A single anecdote will amply illustrate Lilly's character. In his Almanack for 1653, he asserted that the Parliament stood on a ticklish foundation; and that the commonalty and the soldiery would join together against it. For this he was called upon by the House. Before his appearance, however, he contrived to have six copies of the Almanack printed, in which the offensive passages were omitted. These he produced from his pocket at the bar; contending that they only were genuine, and that the others were surreptitiously circulated under his name by some enemy who sought to ruin him. This trick succeeded.

Lilly has furnished us with the portraits of some of his contemporary fellow students. Forman, Bredan, Bubb, Hart, and Pool. The first is notorious for his connection with the detestable Countess of Essex. The second, who was a clergyman, was distinguished for his love of tobacco and strong drink; inasmuch, that "when he had so tobacco he would cut up the bell ropes and smoke them." The third was pilloried for certain knavish practices in the "conyago" art. The fourth escaped the same punishment by running away; and the fifth avoided the elevation of the gallows for theft, by absconding in time. Yet these were the sort of men at whose annual festival the learned Ashmole condescended to officiate as steward. A few years before his death, Lilly adopted Henry Coley, a tailor, as his successor; this worthy had

been his amanuensis, and traded in prophecy with success almost equal to that of his master.

At the revolution astrology declined; and notwithstanding the labours of the immortal Partridge then, and those of Ebenezer Sibley, which in our own days fill two 4to volumes, the art may now be considered as exploded. The gradual march of knowledge and civilization has every where, unless in the east, tended to extinguish this among other superstitions by which the blind anxiety of men sought to penetrate futurity. There are few believers left among us even in less clearly disproved Sol Lunar influences; and as for the connection of destiny with the stars, most even of the purchasers of Moore's Almanack would, if pressed hard, be ready to admit the justice of Cardinal Mazarine's dying remark. When that minister lay on his death-bed, a comet happened to appear; and there were not wanting flatterers to insinuate that it was in reference to his approaching demise. He answered with a manly pleasantry, "*Messieurs, la Comète me fait trop d'honneur.*"

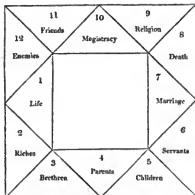
We can scarcely hope by any abridgement of the ponderous tomes which concern this art, to enable our readers even to erect a scheme. It must suffice to say, in brief, that every sign and planet in the heavens was believed to possess a virtue peculiar to itself, each presiding, in the first place, over some kingdom, nation, and city; then extending its influence to individuals; deciding their personal appearance, temperament, disposition, character, health, and fortune; and even influencing the separate members and parts of the body. After this it ruled herbs, plants, animals, stones, &c.; and all the various productions of nature. The signs were primarily divided thus: the six first were called northern, and commanding; the six last southern, and obeying. Next they were distributed into four triplicities, (so called because three belonged to each), fiery, earthy, airy, and watery. Of these the fiery and airy were said to be masculine, the earthy and watery, feminine.

The planets by their motion made several aspects, of which the principal were Conjunction, when two were in the same sign; Sextile, when they were 60° distant from each other; Quartile 90°; Trine 120°, Opposition, when diametrically opposite. The remaining influential parts of the heaven were two, the *Dragon's Head and Tail*, that is the nodes in which the ecliptic is intersected by the orbit of the planets; and the *Part of Fortune*, that is the distance of the moon's place from the sun, added to the degrees of the ascendant.

The various influences of these heavenly bodies being determined, it remained only, in each separate case, to observe their positions at some required moment; for upon this and their aspect to each other, the resolution of any question depended. For this purpose the whole circle of the heavens was distributed into twelve parts or houses, by great circles drawn through the intersection of the horizon and meridian, and cutting the equator in so many equal parts. The first house was placed directly east, and the remainder were counted round in order proceeding to the south according to the motion of the planets. To each of these houses was assigned some peculiar government, according to the scheme below.

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LOGY.
—
ASTRO-
NOMIZE.



This division rests upon deeper cabalistic reasoning than we can venture to propound. The reader who is anxious to trace it, will find his doubt resolved in a Tract by Morinaus, entitled, *The Cabal of the Twelve House Astrological*, and translated in Sir George Warrtoo's Works, (p. 189.) The remainder of the art consisted in filling the scheme accurately by an observation, and then framing from it an oracular response. No question was too profound or too frivolous for the adept, and he was equally certain of pronouncing right, (if he did but know his art thoroughly), on the fall of an empire or the flooding of a horn spoon. More on this important head may be learned by consulting the numerous assertors or opposers of the science. Among the first may be enumerated Maslinus. Fabricius (in his *Bibl. Græc.*) Vossius (*de Math.*), Baptista Porta, Campanella, Sir G. Wharton, Lilly, Sir C. Heydon, Henry Coley, and Ebenezer Sibley. Among the last, Annius Gellius, (adv. l.), Sextus Empiricus, Picus Mirandola, Favorinus, Barclay, (in his *Argenia*), Varesius, Gassendi, The Turkish Spy, *poem*, but particularly vol. vii., and Dr. James Young in his *Sidrophel Populus*. The notes collected by Dr. Gray on Part ii. Canto 3, of *Hudibras* may be perused also with advantage on this subject.

ASTRONOMIZE,
ASTRO'NOMY,
ASTRONOMICE,
ASTRONOMICAL,
ASTRONOMICALLY,
ASTRO'NOMES.

With us there was a doctor of phisike,
In all this world as we then son him like
To speke of phisike, and of surgerye;
For he was grounded in *astronomie*.

Chaucer. The Prologue, v. l. p. 18.

And wythe it wel, that afire the scutours of *astronomie*,
700 shylings of thise newen to a degree of the firmament; and
the ben 57 miles and 4 shylings.

Sir John Mendenhall.

Astronomieas al day to here art fillen

That whiten warren men before, what shoulde by falle after.

The Vision of Peter Plowman, p. 290.

Lo *astronomieas* camen from the east to Jerusalem. And ariden,
where is he that is born kyng of Jewis? for we have seen his
stere in the east; and we comen for to worshippe him.

Wiclif. Mathew, c. li.

The poets able in their fonde fables feint,
That mighte Mars is god of warre and strife,
Those *astronomieas* thinke, where Mars doth raighe,
That all debate and discorde may be rife.

Gosvigne.

Though there had been no politic relations, this very *astronomieal*
miracle had been enough to fricht them to Jerusalem; that
they might be the man, for whose sake the sun forsook his place,
or the shadow forsook the sun.

Sp. Hall. Contemplations, v. li.

Images *astronomieally* framed under certain constellations to
preserve from several inconveniences, as under the sign of the
Lion the figure of a Lion made in gold, against melancholic
fancies, dropsie, plague, verem.

Sp. Hall's Cases of Conscience.

This was also for the sake of such as are not very conversant in
astronomieal matters and dimensions; who can better understand you,
when you say, it is so many miles than so many degrees,
minutes, or seconds, or semi-diameters of the earth or other
planets.

Derham. Astro-Theory, Pro. Discourse.

The old sectick Christians found a paradise in a desert, and
with little converse on earth, held a conversation in heaven;
that they *astronomieal* in caves; and, that they beheld not
the stars, had the glory of heaven before them.

Brown, Christ. Mor. li. 9.

And, what was ominous, that very morn

The sun was enter'd into Capricorn

Which, by their bad *astronomieal* account,

That week the virgin balance shoud remount;

An infant moon eclips'd him in his way,

And hid the small remanence of his day.

Dryden's Hind and Panther.

Why should he halt at either station? why

Not forward run in unobstructed sky?

Can he not pass an *astronomieal* line?

Or does he dread the 'imaginary sign?

Blackmore. Creation, book ii.

The magi were a set of ancient philosophers, living in the
eastern part of the world, collected together in colleges, addicted
to the study of *astronomie*, and other parts of natural philosophy.

Porteus's Lectures, v. l.

ASTRUCTIVE, *adstruo*, *adstruere*. Well opposed
by Hall to destructive.

The true method of Christian practice is first destructive, then
adstruere; according to the prophet, *evae to do rui, evae to do*
good, this our Apostle observes; who first unteacheth as ill
fashions, and then teacheth good.

Sp. Hall's Works, vol. v. p. 228.

ASTRUT, on *Strut*. See STRUT.

What good can the great gloton do wth his belly standing a *struts*
like a taber, and his noll tudy will drink.

Sir Thos. More, fo. 98.

Turkey-cocks swell themselves greatly, and brattle up their
feathers *astrut*.

Race's Works, v. xli. p. 172.

Inflated and *astrut* with self-conceit,
He gulps the windy dirt; and ere long,
Adopting their mistake, profoundly thinks

The world was made in him, if not for him.

Cowper's Poems. The Task, book v.

ASTUN. See ASTOKE.

Our Henry Hotspur next, for high achievement meet,
Who with the thundering noise of his swift courser's feet
astun'd the earth, that day, that he in Holmden's strid
Took Douglas, with the Earls of Angus and of Fife.

Dryden's Polyolicon. Song xviii.

—The vain stroke from such an beight,

With such a force impell'd, headlong drove down

The unwieldy champion; on the solid ground,

He fell rebounding headlong, and *astun'd*,

His trunk extended lying.

Scorrelle. Hobbs, 12

ASTURA.
—
ASUN-
DER.

ASTURA, a small river of Latium, at the mouth of which was a town of the same name, and near it Cicero had a villa. It has been rendered remarkable by the death of the Roman orator, who, flying hither at the time of his proscription, was pursued by the emissaries of Antony, and assassinated whilst his servants were bearing him in a litter towards the sea of Caieta.

ASTURIAS, two provinces of Spain, divided into the districts of Asturia of Oviedo, and Asturia of Santillana, bounded on the north by the Bay of Biscay, on the west by Galicia, and having the kingdoms of Leon and Old Castile on the south and east. The Asturias contain a bishopric, 668 parishes, 36 religious houses, including 23 monasteries and nunneries, a university, three colleges, a royal court of justice, four cities, 50 towns, and three sea ports, the principal of which is Gijón, together with several villages; the population is about 350,000. The whole principality is in general colder than the rest of Spain, owing to its lofty mountains, the summits of some of which are covered with snow during all the winter. The temperature of the rest of the year is moderate and healthy. The hills are covered with excellent pastures, and a great variety of fruit trees, particularly of apples, from which cyder is made to so great abundance, that it is one of the principal articles of exportation; their various species of nuts are aced to this country, and much esteemed. But the most important branch of their agriculture is the breeding of cattle, their horses having been celebrated for strength as early as the days of Martial and Silius Italicus. The Asturias are celebrated in history for having received Pelayo and the other Christians who escaped from the Moors after the battle of Xerxes de la Frontera, and who protected by the mountainous country around them, bade defiance to, and finally expelled the invaders, laying in these provinces the foundation of the Spanish monarchy; for this reason the Asturias nobility and gentry are possessed of some extraordinary privileges, and the inhabitants of the mountain Anceas are distinguished by the title of "the illustrious mountaineers," from the circumstance of Pelayo, and his followers being concealed in one of its neighbouring caverns. The province was afterwards created into a principality, and continues to give a title to the eldest son of the King of Spain; the infant Don Henriquez, son of John I. of Castile, being the first who took the title of Prince of Asturias, in 1388.

ASTUTE, Lat. *Astutus*, from the Gr. *αἰνῶ*, a city. As *Urbanus*, is applied to those who have the polished manners of an inhabitant of a city (*Urbs*); so *astutus* appears to have been applied to those who are distinguished for the subtlety and circumspection of an inhabitant of a city, (*αἰνῶ*).

We term those most *astute* which are most verose.

Sir M. Sandy's *Essay*, p. 168.

ASUNDER, on sunder. See *SUNDER*.

Me jink eis a wonder, bot he sall do grete wo,
He sall scold wep asunder, for Acres sall we go.

R. Braune, p. 174.

And til a wicked death him take
Him had leave a wonder shake
And let all his linnen a wonder rive.
Than leave his richness in his live.

Chaucer. *Remains of the Roast*, fol. 141 c. 3.

Janu let bendis his partie bowe,
The skie ware darker, the wind gan blow,
The fire welkin began to thunder,
As though the world shuld asunder.

Greene. *Con. Am.* book iii.

How much doth it concerne us to band our hearts together, in a communion of hearts? Our enemies come upon us like a torrent: oh let us not runne a sunder like dropes in the dust: All our united forces will be little enough, to make head against this league of destruction.

Bishop Hall. *Contemplation*.

What kind of matrimony can that remain to be? what one duty between such can be performed as it should be from the heart, when their thoughts and spirits fly asunder as far as heaven from hell?

Milton's *Doctrine and discipline of Divorce*.

Others acknowledge, that there is indeed moral good and evil; but they want some criterion, or mark, by the help of which they might know them asunder.

Wollaston's *Religion of Nature*.

The columns of Hercules, so famous among the ancients, were two mountains which seem to have been torn asunder by some convulsion of the elements.

Gibbon's *Roman Empire*.

There is no flesh in man's obdurate heart:
It does not feel for man; the sad'nd bond
Of brotherhood is sever'd as the fax
That falls asunder at the touch of fire.

Cowper's *Task*.

ASWARDRY, in the county of Lincoln, a rectory valued in the King's books at £12. 4s. 7d. Patron, Sir T. Whichestre, Bart. Church dedicated to St. Dennis. Population, in 1811, 162. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 1s. 8½d. in the pound, £101. 15s. 4½. 3¼ miles N. W. from Folkingham.

ASWARDRY, in the county of Lincoln, a discharged rectory valued in the King's books at £7. 19s. 4½d. Church dedicated to St. Helen. Population, in 1811, 59. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 2s. 6d. in the pound, £43. 6s. 8d. 4 miles N. W. from Spalding.

ANSWEVED, A. S. *Sveffian*, *aspire*, to bring asleep. See *SWEYVN*.

For so astonished and asunder

Was every vertue in me beud.

Chaucer. *The House of Fame*, book ii. fo. 277. c. iv.

ASTWICK, in the county of Bedford, a rectory, with Arlesay, valued in the King's books at £6. 13s. 6d. Church dedicated to St. Guthlake. Population, in 1811, 88. Poor's rates, at 3s. 7½d. in the pound, £83. 16s. 4½ miles S. from Beggleswade, 3¼ N. from Bullock.

ASTWOOD, in the county of Buckingham, a vicarage valued in the King's books at £26. 6s. 8d. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population, in 1811, 806. Poor's rates, 1803, at 5s. in the pound, £115. 13s. 6d. 6 miles E. from Newport Pagnell.

ASWOON, the past participle, *Asuand*, *Asuand* of the verb *Swanien*, *Asuand*, *deferre animo*; Tooke, i. 471. But see *Swoon*.

be deol þu made linnogen, an tonge ne telle ne may

Heo cryede and wep with sorwe ynow, and ofte gnyene hy.

R. Gloucester, p. 13.

Tho alright this fowen yet more pitously
Than ever she did, and fell to ground again,
And this answer, as dead as this a vision,
Till Canace bath in hire lappe hire take;
Unto that time she gan of swonne awake:
And after that she out of swonne awoke,
Right in hire hautes leden thim she sayde.

Chaucer. *The Spier's Tale*, v. l. p. 437.

ASYLUM, *As*, a *privatus*, *et* *asyl*, quod est *spou*; *quia*, eo qui confugissent, hos spoliare non liceret. *Vossius*.

ASUN-
DER.

ASYLUM.

ASYLUM.

This place, so fit for unliar'd repose,
The god of sloth for his *asylum* chose;
Upon a couch of down in these shades,
Supine with folded arms be thoughtless nod.
Garrick, Dispensary, c. 1.

Fly him, ye rangers of the rolling flood!
Fly him, ye scoundrels of the warbling wood!
Ye dwellers subterranean, the tyrant fly!
And safe in your remote *asylums* lie.
Boswell's Universal Beauty, book vi.

—Not, noble dames,
In this *asylum* sejourning awhile,
Trust your own merits, and a guardian god,
Glover's Athenians, book ii.

Here they (foxes) bled; from hence they invaded the country;
and to this inaccessible *asylum* they retreated in the hour of alarm.
Gilpin's Tour in the Lakes.

They are welcome to the *asylum* they neck for their offence,
since they take refuge in their folly.
Burke on the French Revolution.

ASYLUM, in *Sacred History*, a city of refuge. Six cities were appointed by the Mosaic law, (*Exodus*, xxi. 13. *Numbers*, xxxv. 11.) three on each side of Jordan, to which any one, who had undesignedly killed another, might fly in security. Those on this side of Jordan were Kedesh of Naphthali, Hebron and Shechem; those beyond it were Bezar, Golan, and Ramoth Gilead. The Jews were also commanded whenever they extended their borders to establish three more cities of refuge; as this was not done, the Rabbies teach that Messiah at his coming will fulfil the command.

The exile of the accidental manslayer, in the city of refuge, continued until the death of the High Priest; after that he might return home in safety, under the protection of the laws. Besides these cities, the Temple, and especially the altar of burnt offerings, enjoyed the privilege of an *asylum*. Michaelis, vol. ii.

For the *asylum* under the Christian Church, see SANCTUARY.

ASYLUM in *Profane History*. Among the Greeks the temples, statues, and altars of the gods, protected all criminals who fled to them: and the historians record numerous instances of divine anger inflicted upon those who dared to violate the sacred precincts which had given a nullfactor impunity. To starve them out by closing the doors of the temple, or to force them away by fire was considered allowable. Of the first of these customs Pausanias has given an instance in his *Lacedonia*; Pausanias, King of Sparta, having being detected in a traitorous correspondence with the Persians, fled to the temple of Minerva Chalceiochus. The Lacedaemonians did not venture to pursue him; but they took off the roof of the temple, and left the fugitive to perish by cold and hunger. Andromache, in the play of Euripides which bears her name, when she had taken refuge in the temple of Thetis is threatened with fire by Hermione.

Ἡ ἐν αὐτῷ προσηύχων ἐ' ἐν τῷ τῷ προσηύχων, 256.
(so Musgrave amends the common reading *ἐν αὐτῷ*.) Similar instances occur in the *Hercules Furens* of Euripides, 2449, and in the *Rudens* and *Mostellaria* of Plautus. Turpinus (*Alcestris*, ix. 12.) has spoken largely on the custom. It does not, however, appear that all temples were *asyla*, but only such as received the privilege from the manner of their consecration (*Servius in Æneid*, xi.). The tombs and statues of heroes sometimes possessed this right of sanctuary.

Thebes and Athens each claimed the establishment **ASYLUM**. of the first *asylum*. Romulus, at the foundation of Rome, set apart a particular spot on the descent from the Capitoline hill, by the road called *inter duas lucas*, as an *asylum*, and thereby materially increased his population. (*Liv.* i. 8.) Hence Juvenal satirically refers all the aristocracy of Rome to this ignoble stock,

Et tamen, ab longe repetas, longæque revolas,
Nomen, ab infami gentem deducis *Asyle*.

Under the reign of Tiberius, the *asyla* had become numerous, and their privileges were so grossly abused throughout the Greek cities, that he set on foot a general investigation of their validity, and many of them voluntarily surrendered a privilege to which they could not have substantiated a claim. The names of many others are recorded by Tacitus (*Annales*, iii. 60, &c.) who successfully established their rights. Even those, however, which were admitted were abridged and regulated by a *senatus consultum*; though by no means abolished as Suetonius (*Tib.* xxxvii.) would make it appear: for the authority of Tacitus, who has treated the subject at length, must be preferred to the brief notice of the latter.

ASYMMETRY, } From *a*, *privative*, and *συνμετρον*,
ASYMMETRAL, } symmetry, proportion, from *συν*
ASYMMETROUS, } with, and *μετρον*, measure. See the Geometrical usage in the examples. Disproportion, irregularity.

Wherefore it cannot possibly otherwise be but that the finiteness, reason, and imperfection of our narrow understandings, must make them *asymmetrical* or *incommensurate*, to that which is absolutely and infinitely perfect.

Culverth, Intellectual System.

Quantities compared with respect to such a measure are by geometers wont to be called *symmetrical* or *asymmetrical*, i. e. commensurable or incommensurable.

Burrow, Mathem. Lectures.

It plainly appears what is *asymmetry*, or incommensurability, viz. an enormous, disproportionate, disagreeable, excessive, or defective quantity of a thing.

Id. Id.

ASYMPTOTE, in *Geometry*, is a line which approaches continually to another, and yet will never meet it, though indefinitely produced. The word is derived from a privative, *συν*, with, and *μετρον*, I fall. For the various kinds of asymptotes and their respective mathematical properties, see GEOMETRY.

ASYNDETON, in *Grammar*, *ἀσύνδετος* (from *a*, *privative*, and *σύνδεσις*, I bind together). A figure which supplies the conjunction copulative, as "*veni, vidi, vici*." (*Suet. in vita Julii* 37.) "*Heal the sick, cleanse the lepers, raise the dead, cast out devils*." (*Matt.* x. 8.) It is used to express celerity, and wherever strong emphasis is required; and it is opposed to *Polysyndeton*, by which conjunctions copulative are multiplied.

AT. This preposition is usually derived from the Latin *Ad*, *at*, *ab* A. S. *æt*, *ad*, *apud*, *ut*, a Lat. *Ad*. Skinner. In our old writers we find applications of the word differing from those in modern use. Thus, in Robert of Gloucester, *At stonde, and at holde*. Now, *with-stand*, and *with-hold*. In Chaucer, to see *at eye*, i. e. with eye, &c. By Wilkins it is used, touching by approach the surface; in opposition to *from*, touching on departure the opposite edge or surface.

[They] fight and slay such folk, for no man hem at stood.

R. Gloucester, p. 15.

at stonde. Id. p. 15.

His trunche at holde a yrr, for love he nolde negt. Id. p. 60.

Je kyng Camhel anon for joye made ys heste,
 Just alle je knyghtes of his land come to ys feste,
 To London at a certeyn day, and here wysen al so,
 Here sacrific to here Godes, as ryght was, to do.

Id. p. 52.

Sire, he seide, al þi wille þou hast þou mygt y se
 Of þe kyng, þat ys myn vncle, he ys at þi wille.

Id. p. 58.

Atte lute ys tricherie wel htel be by lowe.
 He seer told hym at as luscene and shog hym rytt jere.

Id. p. 64.

Eries, barons, knowe mad him þer founte
 With oth he did þam bowe, at his wille to be.

R. Bruner, p. 331.

For he had mayntene þe werre at his myght.

Id. p. 323.

For all the field was bot of sand
 As smol so men may see at eye
 In the desert of Lybie.

Chaucer, *The House of Fame*, book i. fol. 277. c. 3.

And than shal all this gold departed be,
 My dere frend, betwixen thee and me.
 Than moun we bothe our lustes all fulfillen,
 And play at dis right at our owen wille.

Id. *The Pardourer's Tale*, v. li. p. 22.

A. Seinte Mary, benedicite
 What sileth this love at me
 To binde me so sore?

Id. *The Rhyme of Sir Thopas*, ib. p. 64.

For in a clout faste by
 The duke was hid so princely,
 That she him might not perceive
 And he that thought to deceiver
 Hith such a seale upon anon,
 That whan he wolde vnde his come,
 It shoulde seeme at his ele,
 As then she verily seie
 God Asnub, in an suche wise.

Gower, *Con. Ast. book i.*

And thei holden the word at hemil seekinge what this schilde
 be, whanne he had risen agen fro deeth.

Wickl. *Mark*, chap. ix. p. 29.

And þrewe answerde and seyde to þem, a unchifful genera-
 cion and weyward: how longe schal I be at you, and suffre you?

Id. *Luk*, chap. ix. p. 43.

And dwelle ye in the same hous etinge and drynkynge the
 thinge that ben at hem, for a werkman is wortil his hire, nyle
 ye paste fro hous into hous.

Id. *ib.*, chap. i.

I take the thinge that I seigh at my fall; and ye doen the
 thinge that ye seighen at youre fall.

Id. *Ion*, chap. viii. p. 61.

Therefore we iustified of faith have we pes at god bi oure lord
 Ihesu crist.

Id. *Romans*, chap. v.

Be ge no thing biid, but in al prier and blechyng with doyng
 of thankynge bi gloure xpytis known at god.

Id. *Philipans*, chap. iv.

ATACAMA, a province of Peru, bounded on the north by the province of Arica; east by Lipa, Salta, and Tucuman; south by a desert extending to the kingdom of Chili; and west by the South Sea. Its population is under 3000. Its chief town of the same name, lies in long. W. 69° 30'. lat. S. 32° 30'. It is above 100 miles from the sea, and stands on a barren spot, surrounded by mountains, uninhabitable from cold.

ATACAMITE, a name given to a variety of muriate of copper, found in the district of Atacama,

between Chili and Peru, in minute crystals and fragments, resembling green sand. See MINERALOGY. Copper, Muriate.

ATALANTA, in *Mythology*, daughter of Schœneus, king of Scyros. She was fond of hunting, and determined to live in perpetual virginity. To preserve herself from the importunity of her lovers, she proposed to run a race with every suitor who offered himself, on condition that if beaten she would bestow her hand on him, but if she beat, her competitor should be put to death. Her speed was so great that the cooest proved fatal to many; till, at length, Hippomenes, the son of Macareus and Merope, entered the course. Venus had presented him with three apples from the gardens of the Hesperides. These, at different intervals of the race, he threw before Atalanta, who, delighted by their beauty, could not refrain from stooping to pick them up, and so came in second. The marriage was consummated in the temple of Cybele; and the goddess was so enraged at this profanation of her sacred precincts, that she changed the impatient lovers into lions.

Atalanta was present at the hunting of the Caladonian boar, and received from Meleager, who was enamoured of her, its skin and head, as a testimony of her skill in having first wounded the animal. This fatal gift roused the jealousy of his uncles, Toxæus and Plexippus, who endeavoured to strip Atalanta of her honourable spoil. Meleager killed them in her defence; and his mother Althæa, irritated by the death of her brothers, committed to the flames the charmed brand upon which the life of Meleager depended.

ATAXY, ἀταξία, from α, *privative*, and ταξία, disorder, irregularity

Disorder, irregularity

Neither is there any *ataxy* to be feared in bringing in this distinction, betwixt pastures and the flock: it is an *ataxy*, rather; and, as such, without which, nothing could come; but confusion.

Ap. Hall, *Polemical Works*.

ATBARA, in *Geography*, a province of Abyssinia, the capital of which, Teawa, lies in lat. N. 14° 8'. It is believed, by Bruce, to be the peninsula Meroc of the ancients, (*Travels* iv. 406.) The river Atabarwa, which flowed on one side of Meroc, is, according to D'Anville, called Taccax by the Abyssinians. So Athura, most probably, is a corruption of the second river Astapus. (D'Anville ii. 194.)

ATCHAM, in the county of Salop, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £11. 6s. 8d. Population in 1811, 378. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 1s. 6d. in the pound, £305. 13s. 9d. Five miles and a half S. E. from Shrewsbury.

ATCHE, the smallest coin in the Grand Signior's dominions, equal to two-thirds of a farthing. No copper coinage circulates in Turkey, unless in the province of Babylon. The atche, therefore, is of silver.

ATCIEVEMENT, or ACHIEVEMENT, corruptly called Hatchment in *Heraldry*. Armorial bearings affixed on the dwelling-house of a deceased person.

ATE, in *Greek Mythology*, the Discordia of the Latins, a daughter of Jupiter, and the goddess of Evil. She raised such dissensions among the gods, that Jupiter dragged her by the hair, and threw her from heaven among men. *Liad*, T. 90.

ATELLANÆ FABULÆ. Burlesque dramas first

ATEL-
LAN.
FABULÆ.
—
ATEU-
CHUS

acted at Atella, now Saint Arpino, a small town of the Osc, in Campania. The grammarian Diomedes speaks of them as resembling the satiric dramas of the Greeks; and Doussus, in his preface to Terence, characterizes them as a string of jests and witticisms, not refined by the elegance of later times. When introduced at Rome, they continued to be represented in the Tuscan language. (Strabo, v. 233.) and the dramatic persons were wholly Tuscan also. At first they seem to have kept entire possession of the Roman stage; but, on the progress of the drama to greater regularity, they were produced only as interludes between the acts of plays in better taste. Hence the term *exodia* is frequently used for *Atellana Fabule*. The *Exodus* of the Greek tragedy is strictly that part after which no heroic song occurs; and this has led to a mistaken belief that the *Fabula Atellana* were always represented at the close of a more regular piece. From Livy's account, however, (lib. vii. c. 9.) it is plain that they were intermedial, and scattered in various parts of the performance; and, therefore, were called *exodia*, not from the Greek *Exodus*, but because they were *quasi exōdion*, obiter, and not belonging to the argument of the larger drama; or, as Lubinus (in Juvenc. vi. 71.) is inclined to believe, they varied their name according to their position; being called *exodia* if they preceded the main drama, *Epibola* if they were intermedial, and *Epitola* if acted after it. However this may be, it is universally agreed that they were mimes and farces of the lowest and most detestable kind, consisting of little more than coarse and licentious rhapsody, and the most ridiculous, extravagant, and obscene gestures.

Great licence, even under the Emperors, appears to have been allowed to these representations. Suetonius (lib. xlv.) has recorded a bitter sarcasm which was thrown out in one of them against Tiberius; and, from Livy (at *supra*) we learn, that the Roman youths would never allow professed actors to take parts in them, (the original expression is strongly marked, *ab histrionibus pollui*;) and that certain honourable privileges were annexed to those who supported them. Thus they might bear arms in military service, an honour which was not permitted to actors by profession; and they were not like them, degraded into some tribe inferior in dignity to that to which they originally belonged.

ATERGATIS, a goddess of the Syrians, represented with the head and breast of a woman, and the trunk and tail of a fish. She is called also Derceto, and is supposed to have occupied the place of Venus, in the Syrian Mythology. Lucian *de dea Syria*. Strabo, lib. xvi. Macrobius, l. 23. Bryant's *Ancient Mythology*, ii. 294.

ATEUCHUS, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order Coleoptera, family Copropodæ. Generic character.—Antennæ, with nine articulations; body depressed: Elytra, when united, forming a square: Posterior feet not considerably longer than the body.

The insects of this genus enclose their eggs in little balls of dung, which they roll backwards with their feet into a sort of troughs, which they had previously prepared for their reception. *Ateuchus Saæri* (Nourahus Saæri of Linnaeus) is the insect which so often forms the subject of the hieroglyphics of the

Egyptians, and is an object of the religious worship of that people.

ATHAMANTA, in *Ancient Geography*, a country of Epirus, placed by D'Anville (l. 300) on the declivity of Mount Pindus. In the wars between Rome and Macedon, the Athamantians under their king Amyntander, were much distinguished; and frequent mention is found of them in the third remaining Decade of Livy.

ATHAMANTA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants; class *Pentandria*, order *Digynia*. Generic character.—Fruit ovato-oblong, striated. Petals inflexed, emarginate. An umbelliferous genus, containing several European species, one or two of which have been employed in medicine for their trifling aromatic properties.

ATHANASIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants; class *Syngenesin*, order *Polygamia Æqualis*. Generic character.—Receptacle chaffy. Pappus plumose. Calyx imbricate, calyculate. Corolla radiate. Florets of the ray five-toothed.

This genus contains two species, one a native of Spain, the other of Barbary.

ATHANOR, or ΑΘΑΝΟΡ, (Arabie,) in *Chemistry*, a digesting furnace, contrived to maintain its heat a long time, communicating with its chimney by a lateral canal. It is carried to a considerable height above the part into which this canal enters: fuel is placed upon its top, and it is closely covered. As the lower part is the fuel consumer, it is supplied by that which is above; so that a constant and equal heat is maintained without the necessity of close attendance.

ATHEISM,
ATHEIST, n.
ATHEIST, adj.
ATHEISTICAL,
ATHEISTICALLY,
ATHEISTICALNESS,
ATHEISTIC,
ATHEIZE,
ATHEOUS.

"*Atheos*, from *a*, privative, and *theos*, God. Perhaps *ἀθεὶς θεῶν*, that is, *ἄθεός*, to run. Plato supposes the ancient Greeks to have considered the sun, moon, earth, stars, and heavens, as the only gods, and to have called these *θεοί*, because they beheld them in a perpetual

course. *αὐτὸν ἑρμὴν ἱππῶν, αὐτὸν θεόντα*.

"*Atheos ἐν τῷ κόσμῳ*. Without God in the world. (Eph. ii. 12.)

God never wrought miracles to convince *atheists*, because his ordinary works convince it. *Bacon's Essay on Atheism*.

There is no knowledge, whereof God is not the author. He would never have bestowed any gift, that should lead us away from himself. It is an ignorant conceit, that enquiry into nature should make them *atheistic*. *Sp. Hall's Works, Conceptions*.

If there be not devotion enough in our hearts to make God ours, in vain shall we hope to stand before our enemies. This only, whatsoever the profane heart of *atheism* men may imagine, this is the great ordinance, which can batter down the walls of our enemies, yea the very black gates of hell itself.

Ep. Hall's Sermons, Defeat of Cruelty.

How can we hope that profane and atheistical instructions, if any such be employed in our wars, should return home loaded with success and honour? *Id. Saint Paul's Combat*.

Nay, there are some vile things, which, through the evil discouragements and worse manners of men, are posed into an artificial and false reputation, and men are accustomed with for talking *atheistically*, and valiant for being unchristian.

Taylor's Sermons.

Lead purge and powerfully work out of all hearts that profane men and *atheisticalness*, those sacrilegious threats and enormous violations of all that is holy, &c. which, in the shame of our unformed obdurate hearts, do still remain unsundered, unsundered among us. *Hemmings's Works, A Prayer*, vol. I.

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—
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ATHEISM. We shall now make a diligent search and enquiry, to see if we can find any other philosophers who *atheists* before Democritus and Leucippus, as also what form of *atheism* they entertained.

Cudworth. *Intellectual System.*

It appeareth in nothing more, that *atheism* is rather in the lip than in the heart of man, than by this; that *atheists* will ever be talking of that their opinion, as if they foisted in it with themselves, and would be glad to be strengthened by the consent of others: nay more, you shall have *atheists* strive to get disciples, as if forth with other sects: and, which is most of all, you shall have of them that will suffer for *atheism*, and not recant; whereas if they did truly think that there were no such thing as God, why should they trouble themselves?

Bacon's Works, v. 1.

Nor stood unsmil'd Abdiel to annoy
The *Atheist* crew, but with redoubled blow
Ariel and Archiel, and the violence
Of Rameil scorch'd and blasted overthrow.

Milton. *Par. Lost*, book vi. 370.

T'is fallacy, who is holy, wise, and pure,
Suffers the hypocrite, or *atheous* priest,
To tread his sacred courts, and minister
About his altar, handling holy things.

Milton. *Par. Regained*, book i. 487.

The epicureans did conceit and boast, that having, by their *atheistical* explications of natural effects and common events been, discarded the belief and dread of religion, they had laid a strong foundation for tranquillity of mind, had driven away all the causes of grief and fear, so that nothing then remained troublesome or terrible unto us.

Burrow's Sermons.

Speculative *atheism* is unreasonable, and that upon these five accounts: 1. Because it gives us no tolerable account of the existence of the world. 2. Nor does it give any reasonable account of the universal consent of mankind in this apprehension, that there is a God. 3. It requires more evidence for things than they are capable of. 4. The *Atheist* pretends to know that which no man can know. 5. *Atheism* contradicts itself.

Tillotson, Sermon I.

The *atheists* have been so pressed by this argument from the general consent of mankind, that, after great search and pains, they pretend to have found out a nation of *Atheists* I mean that polite people the Hottentots.

Spectator, ccccxxx.

After this manner, authority working in a circle, they endeavoured to *atheise* one another.

Sp. Berkley. *The Minute Philosopher*, v. 1.

Where England, stretch'd towards the setting sun,
Narrow and long, o'erlooks the western wave,
Dwelt young Mincathus; a scorner he
Of God and goodness, *atheist* in onset
Vicious in act, in temper savage, fierce.

Cooper. *Tusk*.

God proclaims
His hot displeasure against foolish men
That live an *Atheist* life.

Cooper. *Tusk*.

ATHEIST denotes a person who has no religious belief, true or false, in the existence of a Creator; and, consequently, who denies any providence in the affairs of the world.

According to Plato, there are three kinds of *Atheists*: 1. Those who deny absolutely the being of a God. 2. Those who admit his existence, but deny the truth of his supposed interposition in human affairs. 3. Those who virtually or professedly disbelieve in any distribution of future rewards and punishments. But Cudworth, in his "*Intellectual System*," (h. l. c. 3. vol. i.) reduces the ancient *atheism* of the Greek philosophers into four different forms. All the ancient *Atheists* agreed in this: that there was nothing but matter or body in the world; but some conceived this matter to be animate; others regarded it as inanimate; and they were, agreeably to these different ways of thinking, respectively termed either *hylozoists* or *atomists*. The *hylozoic* *atheism* is divided by Cudworth into Anaximandrian and Stoical: the *atomic* into Democritical and Stoical.

Anaximander endeavoured to explain all the phenomena of nature, by means of certain supposed qualities and forms which he invested with an existence distinct from the several substances in which they happened to inhere; and, by the fortuitous secretion or segregation of which from the infinite chaos of matter, all the elements, and every thing which we now see, were produced. Strato supposed that there was diffused throughout the creation a certain plastic quality, or principle of life, which he substituted in the place of the deity; and by which he imagined all that we ascribe to the divine form, to have been in reality effected. Democritus denied the existence of natural forms and qualities, and derived the original of all things from the fortuitous concurrence of atoms, whose only inherent principles were magnitude, figure, number, place, and motion: every other property of bodies, whether animate or inanimate, being simply the result of the accidental mixture and contexture of the above-mentioned atomical elements. The Stoical *atheism*, which was adopted by many of the followers of Herodotus and Zeno, seems to have differed from the Stratonian, only in respect to the supposed nature of the plastic principle to which they both ascribed the phenomena of creation: the latter, conceiving it to be an active and self-operating principle; the former, regarding it as an inert and passive necessity.

From this account of the opinions of the ancient *atheists*, they appear obviously to have built their arguments upon a dogmatical, and not, (as has been usually the case with modern *atheists*;) upon a sceptical philosophy. These last, for the most part, can hardly be said to have entertained any theory of *atheism*, by which they have attempted to explain the phenomena of creation upon material principles; and so far as such a supposition is involved in their opinions, it is plain that their notions are all virtually resolvable into one or other of the forms of *atheism*, which we have briefly enumerated from Cudworth. Spinoza's notion that God is the soul of the universe, is in fact only another way of stating the opinion of the Stratonian philosophy; as is likewise the theory of Hobbes, who conceives that matter, as such, is not merely endued with a capacity of motion, &c. but with actual sense and perception. All these opinions, however, agree in one point, viz. that they must necessarily suppose the present state and existence of things to have been from all eternity; and that every thing which takes place in the universe is the result of a blind necessity. It is in this particular conclusion that philosophical *atheism*, properly speaking, consists. The denial of the existence of a First Cause, is only a corollary from the doctrine of the necessary existence of matter. It is plain that either the world has existed from all eternity, or it has not. If it had no beginning, this supposition does not actually exclude the possibility of a Supreme Being; but it supersedes, by the very definition, all notion of a Creator. Upon the supposition, however, that there must have been a time when the universe did not exist, the necessity of supposing a First Cause, independent of matter and self-existent, is immediately evident; and this being once assumed, the attributes of that First Cause, his wisdom, power, and goodness, are easily deducible from what we are able to observe of his creation.

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It is plain, therefore, that in the argument to prove the existence of a Creator, the point to which our efforts ought in the first instance to be directed, is against the assertion of the adversary. If we can shew that the supposition of the self-existence of all the various phenomena which constitute that which is meant by the word matter, involves any impossibility, or that the difficulties which it presents are greater and more insuperable than are involved in the supposition of one Supreme and independent Being, the Cause and Parent of all things, in that case, the question of philosophy will be at once determined in favour of natural religion. The absurdity which is contained in the atheistical hypothesis, so far as it may be demonstrated from the nature and definition of matter, has been pointed out with great ability by Dr. Clarke, in his *Demonstration of the Being of a God*. His argument is, however, very abstract; and on that account does not always produce upon the mind of the reader, that intimate and overwhelming conviction, which it appears to have operated upon his own. We know so little respecting the nature of things, and our conception of matter in general, as distinguished from particular substance, is so vague and imperfect, that it is extremely difficult to deduce any certain deductions, as to what is or is not metaphysically possible, in an argument which, after all, may depend upon some fact of which we are ignorant.

To shew, however, that the hypothesis of the eternal existence of material substance, involves many more difficulties than the contrary supposition, is much more easily accomplished. Something, it is plain, must have existed from all eternity; and even admitting that we cannot demonstrate any philosophical impossibility, in the supposition of the atheist; yet, if it can be proved that his opinion is, beyond all calculation of numbers, more improbable than that which asserts the world to have been created, enough will have been effected to answer every purpose in which religion has any concern. Every man is bound to embrace, and so far as practice is affected, to act upon that opinion which he knows to be most likely. As to mathematical demonstration, it is so seldom that we can arrive at it, in any of the concerns of life, that we need not feel any alarm, even if it were true, that it is not to be obtained in that most important of all truths—the being of a God.

In considering the argument of the origin of things, it evidently is not the power, or greatness, or excellence of the objects which creates our difficulty; it is the very conception of the proposition. We cannot understand how any thing should have existed from all eternity, but we can just as readily conceive a man to have done so, as a worm, or a blade of grass; and by parity of reasoning, there is no more difficulty, metaphysically speaking, in the supposition of the eternal existence of such a Being as we presume God to be, than there would be in supposing the eternal existence of such a being as man. If there be any difference between the two cases, the former supposition is perhaps the easier of the two; because self-existence is an attribute which seems utterly incomprehensible, except when joined to the idea of a Being, whose other attributes are all infinite.

Again, it is evident, that whatever difficulty there may be in believing the existence of one Eternal Being, the difficulty would be greatly increased, if we were

to multiply the number of such supposed eternal beings. Whatever improbability there may be in the existence of one self-produced principle, there would be ten times the improbability in supposing the existence of ten such principles. In like manner, against the existence of ten thousand such principles, the chances, of course, would be increased ten thousand times; and, by the same reason, any hypothesis which would account for the existence of things by the supposition of one eternal cause, would be more credible, *a priori*, than that which accounted for them by the supposition of ten thousand, just in the same proportion.

Now this seems to be exactly the difficulty into which the atheist is necessarily driven, if he will lay aside the abuse of words. When the ancient philosophers endeavoured to refer all the phenomena of nature to the operation of one principle, or to the combinations of a few of the universal and necessary properties of bodies, they at least shewed themselves perfectly acquainted with the true point of the argument. Because, if all the variety of substances and appearances which the world exhibits could be referred to one single principle, the self-existence of that principle would be, in itself, just as probable as the self-existence of that other principle to which the generality of mankind have, in all ages, attributed the production of the world; or, at least, the burden of proof, that it was not, would remain with their adversaries. But the fact plainly is, that the phenomena of the universe depend not upon one, but upon innumerable secondary causes; which, if we exclude the intervention of a Supreme Being, will all be equally entitled to be considered as eternal and self-existent principles. Every distinct kind of organized matter obviously depends upon a separate principle for its existence. There is evidently no such thing as *being*, as matter. It is a mere name, by which we signify every object of which our senses can take cognizance, and it includes not one thing, but things innumerable, every kind of which, so far as we are able to judge, exists independently of every other. If matter existed from all eternity, then every animal, and every tree, and every organized substance, existed from all eternity; that is to say, we must suppose the necessity not of one eternal principle of production and reproduction, but perhaps of ten millions. Moreover, if these principles have existed from all eternity they must be self-existent; but this we know they are not; because there are in the world organic remains of innumerable animals, the existence of which can no longer be traced. A self-existent principle could not, by the very definition of the phrase, be destroyed; and this fact alone is indeed almost decisive against every atheistical hypothesis which has hitherto been framed; because the necessary existence of the present state of things forms a part of the very proposition which its advocates maintain, and is indeed inseparable from their opinion. And this remark is equally conclusive against the doctrine of the eternal and necessary existence of the material world, whether we refer the various forms of organic substances to separate, independent principles, as all that we know of their nature would compel us to do, if we deny the existence of a Supreme Being; or whether we suppose them to be only modifications of the same substance, and to originate in some one general principle, as is more usually

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ATHEIST. assumed. If matter, including under that name every thing that is the object of our senses, exists by an eternal necessity, it is as inconceivable that any substance or being, which once formed a part of it, should cease to exist, as that the whole should be annihilated. Whatever that principle may be, to which we are to refer the various operations of nature, if it be eternal, it must necessarily be the same yesterday and to-day; and by the same power that it originally produced any particular form either of animated or inanimate existence, it must of necessity continue to produce it, to all eternity. The fact, however to which we have already alluded is notorious, viz. that the remains of animals have been found, of whose existence we can find no trace in history. How many kinds may have ceased to be, of which the remains have not survived, it is impossible to guess; but in the present argument, use example is just as conclusive as a thousand would be; and those which we possess are abundantly sufficient to demonstrate that the material universe has not existed from all eternity: which being conceded, the question, so far as regards the atheistical hypothesis, is at an end. If the universe has not existed from all eternity, it must have been created. Admitting this, the being of a God follows by necessary consequence. The consideration of his attributes belongs to the subject of THEOLOGY.

ATHELHAMPTON, in the county of Dorset, a rectory, with the rectory of Bursledon, valued in the King's books at £2.; patron, Sir R. Long, Bart. Population in 1811, 54; Poor's rates in 1803, at 1s. 6d. in the pound, £20. 2s. 6d. 64 miles E. from Dorchester.

ATHELING; Saxon, *athel*, noble. The title was first given by Edward the Confessor to his great nephew Edgar, whom he, being without issue, named his heir. It was used for more than a century afterwards as the peculiar designation of the apparent or the presumptive heir to the crown.

ATHELINGTON, or **ALLINGTON**, in the county of Suffolk, a discharged rectory valued in the King's books at £4. 14s. 9d.; patron, the King; church dedicated to St. Peter. Population in 1811, 83; Poor's rates in 1803, at 5s. 1d. in the pound, £108. 13s. 1½d. 5 miles S. E. from Eye.

ATHELNEY, **ISLE OF**, a small inlet in the county of Somerset, formed by the junction of the rivers Thone and Parret a few miles below Taunton. It derives its name from two Saxon words, signifying the Isle of Nobles. Here Alfred took refuge during the victorious progress of the Danes; and, in commemoration of his retreat, here he founded an abbey of the Benedictine order, dedicated to our Saviour, St. Peter and St. Paul. Of this building not a vestige remains; but some antiquities which were dug up as far back as the year 1674, identified its site.

ATHENEA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants; class *Oclandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character. Calyx coloured, five parted; corolla, none; bristles eight, feathered between two filaments; stigma five parted, capsule globose, one celled, three valved. Seeds three to five.

This plant is a native of Cayenne. It has but one species.

ATHENEUM, *Ἀθηναιον*, a place built for public rehearsals, and deriving its name from *Minerva*, *Ἀθήνη*, who was supposed to preside over it. There were several in Athens; Adrian built one in Rome; and, in modern times, the name has frequently been bestowed upon establishments connected with learning.

ATHEOLOGY, from *a*, *privative*, *θεός*, God, and *λογος*, I speak, to discourse.

This, I say, was really nothing else but a philosophical form of *atheology*, a Gigantic and Titanical attempt, to dethrone the deity.

Cudworth. Intel. System.

A T H E N S.

ATHENS, in *Geography* and *Antient History*, the capital of Attica; so called from *Ἀθήνη*, *Minerva*, to whom it was dedicated. Long. 23° 53' E. lat. 38° 9' N. The history of Athens is the history of Greece, and will be found in its proper place, **DICTIONARY III.** At present, we shall confine ourselves to the antiquities and topography of the city.

Before the days of Cecrops, and indeed for some time after, little, with the exception of a few names, and these not always clearly distinguished, is to be stated concerning Athens. From *Ogyges*, who is placed by most Chronologers 1856 years before Christ, Attica received the name of *Ogygia*: but it is to Cecrops that Athens herself is, by general consent, supposed to owe her origin. This leader, an Egyptian, is believed to have been contemporary with Moses, and to have brought from Sais, in Egypt, the worship of Neith, adopted by the Athenians under the name *Ἀθήνη*. The rock of the Acropolis, or citadel, on which at that time stood all their habitations, received from him also the name *Cecropia*.

Tradition records as successors of Cecrops, 1. *Amphictyon*. 2. *Erechtheus* L. who is supposed to be the same as *Erichthonius*. He raised an image of *Minerva*,

made of olive wood, in the *Cecropia*, and instituted festivals called *Athenæa*, to be celebrated in honour of the goddess, by the twelve Attic cities. The spot in the *Cecropia*, in which he was buried, still bears the name *Erechtheum*. 3. *Pandion* I. 4. *Erechtheus* II. 5. *Ægeus* 6. *Theseus*. By him was established the *Pnyneum*, a court of judicature common to all Attica; and sacred festivals, the *Panathenæa*, were instituted, to be kept by the whole province, in the *Erechtheum*, every five years. Under his steady administration the power and population of Attica, and particularly of Athens itself, materially increased; and we may refer to him the concentration of the government of the other eleven cities into the capital of Cecrops. These changes are assigned to the year 1300 before Christ.

The arrival of the *Pelagi*, a people of uncertain Settlement origin, but who came to Athens from the north a. c. of the 1192, increased the strength of the city by the fortification of the *Acropolis*. It is to the *Pelagi* that the beautiful specimens of polygonal masonry which are still to be found in the ancient fortresses of Greece, and in parts of Italy, are commonly attributed. This architecture, though sometimes confounded with the

Founda-
tion.

ATHENS. Cyclopean, is widely different from it. The polygonal masonry is formed of irregular blocks carefully adjusted to each other without cement: the Cyclopean, on the other hand, consists of rude unburnt masses, the interstices between which are filled up with smaller stones.

Peisistratus In the long interval which elapsed between the settlement of the Pelagii and the usurpation of the enlightened and magnificent Peisistratus, nothing is recorded with certainty of the architectural progress of Athens. To him and to his sons she owes without doubt much of her early grandeur; they founded temples to Apollo Pythian, and Jupiter Olympius; they established a public library; and they were the first collectors and editors of the works of Homer.

Persian Invasion. The territory of the Athenians, before the invasion of Xerxes, exceeded that of any other people in Greece except the Lacedæmonians: and their rising greatness may be fairly estimated by a recollection, that the destruction of their city was the chief object of the most mighty armament which is known in the annals of mankind. The historians, it is true, assign private vengeance for an insult offered to an Asiatic city, as the motive of Xerxes in his expedition: but it is little probable that the whole energies of the vast continent which he ruled, would have been called out to gratify the lapulæ of this petty feeling only; and we may fairly mingle with the causes of the Persian invasion some degree of political foresight, which made the suppression of a state increasing in power, and dangerous from her maritime facilities, in the highest degree desirable.

Rebuilding of the City. It was to the early success of the Persians that Athens owed her subsequent height of splendor and beauty. The city arose from its ruins on an enlarged and improved scale, and the increased resources which the Athenians had acquired in the course of the war enabled them to gratify their national pride by the enrichment of their reviving capital. The naval superiority which they had won for themselves, and to which, for a time, it became the policy of the rest of Greece to consent, had placed at their command the islands of the Archipelago and the maritime colonies of Asia, Macedonia, and Thrace; and the wealth derived from these possessions was employed during the fifty years between the victory of Salamis and the breaking out of the Peloponnesian war, in the embellishment of the city of Minerva.

The expressions of Herodotus, (iv. 13.) that every street and building was to be restored, from its very foundations, after the retreat of the Persians, must be taken with considerable latitude. In the time of Pausanias there remained several monuments anterior to the date of the Persian war: but the devastation was sufficiently great to justify us in denominating the future Athens a new city.

Works of Themistocles. The first object of the administration of Themistocles was, to put the city once more in a state of defence; and he restored its military works with the most persevering diligence. Cimón with unbounded liberality directed the stream of his own private opulence into a public channel, and to him Athens was indebted for the Temple of Theseus, the Pæcile, the Dionysian Theatre, the Stoa, the Gymnasium, and the ornaments of the Academy and the Agora. But to Pericles was reserved the glory of making his native city the wonder of nations, and the exemplar of latest posterity. Without enumerating his minor works, it is only neces-

sary to mention the Odeium, the Propylæa, and the **ATHENS.** Parthenon.

The misfortunes of the Peloponnesian war but little affected the internal magnificence of Athens; than the defeat of Ægospotami led to no other injury than the destruction of the walls of Piræus. These again were restored after the victory of Cynos at Cnidus: and the revenues of the islands and the colonies were once more employed in the adornment of the city.

The rise of the Macedonian empire diminished the power of Athens as a state, but it had little influence over her internal prosperity: and we read of additions to her public buildings even while she was under the immediate control of a Macedonian garrison. The first severe blow which she suffered arose from her fidelity to the Romans. The Macedonians, (a. c. 200) under Philip invested her before her allies could come to her relief. The city itself successfully resisted the attack; but the fury of the invader, stimulated yet more by opposition, directed itself to the ravage of the suburbs and the surrounding country. The Cynosarges and the Lyceum, every retreat of pleasure and sanctuary of devotion, shrines, temples, images, and tombs, were rudely overthrown; and the precious marbles in which Attica abounded, and which would not yield to fire, were broken and crumbled to dust by the impetuous rage of the barbarian. (Liv. xxxi. 24.)

In the Mithridatic war (84 a. c.) Athens was again **Sylla.** subjected to the hostility of a conqueror. Sylla bent upon her reduction, invested the Piræus, and put all the treasures of Greece in requisition to assist his design, both by military force and by bribery. Epidaurum and Olympia were severally plundered; and profane hands violated the sacred deposits of Delphi. The groves of the Academy and the Lyceum once more fell beneath the axe: and the obstinacy with which Aristion maintained himself within the walls increased the desire of the Roman general to win them. The slow intruda of famine must eventually have subdued the garrison; but Sylla took advantage of an ill-fortified wall near the Heptachalchos: and having levelled to the ground every thing between the Peiræic and Sacred gates, he entered the city at midnight. The most cruel of the Roman conquerors did not belie his title in the sack of Athens: the streets are said to have run with blood through the whole extent of the Cerameicus. But his anger was contented with the sacrifice of human life. "Tell the Athenians," he replied to their intercession, "that I forgive the many for the sake of the few; the living for the dead." The city itself appears to have suffered but little: and it was only to prevent the resumption of maritime power that Sylla levelled the Peiræic fortifications, and destroyed the arsenal of Philo. His operations were most effectual; in less than a century after his siege, few remains of the lung walls were to be seen, and with them fell for ever the political importance of Athens. (Plutarch in *vita Syllæ*.)

Still, however, she remained the depository of science and the school of arts; and during the civil convulsions of Rome, however at times opposed to each of the ascendant parties, she claimed among her benefactors most of the great rivals in the struggle for the empire of the world. The Athenians had adhered to Pompey, yet Julius Cæsar presented them with a donation, which contributed to the erection of the Propylæa of the new Agora. They had raised statues to Brutus and Cassius close by those of Hannibolus

ATHENS. and Aristogeiton, yet Antony honoured them by a frequent residence, and enriched them with large additions of insular territory. Augustus did not resent their attachment to his rival. He left them in possession of Antony's gifts, he was initiated into the Eleusinian mysteries, and he testified his friendship by various acts of lenity and favour.

Hadrian. But of all the Emperors, Hadrian was the greatest benefactor and patron which Athens enjoyed after the downfall of her temporal power. He had visited her while yet he was in a private station: and on his elevation to the imperial dignity he was lavish in his bounties. By his assistance was finished the Temple of Jupiter Olympius, the foundation of which had been laid by Peisistratus, which had been continued by Aetolochus Epiphanes 360 years afterwards, and which on its completion by Hadrian exceeded in magnitude and costliness every other Athenian structure. Many other buildings testified his attachment and liberality; with a regard to the substantial wants, as well as the splendour of the city, extended itself to large supplies of corn and money.

Andronicus Cyrrhestes. Private munificence also contributed to its embellishment. The Horologium in the Agora (better known by the false title of the Temple of the Winds) was the gift of Andronicus Cyrrhestes. Agrippa raised a theatre: the ruins of another, built by Herodes Atticus, are still to be seen at the foot of the Acropolis; and the casing of Pentelie marble with which he covered the seats of the Stadium, was a work scarcely equalled by imperial prodigality.

The Antonines. It was perhaps in the age of the Antonines that Athens attained its greatest splendour; it had been increased by the accumulated magnificence of six centuries; and the works of the age of Pericles, as described by his biographer Plutarch, notwithstanding this lapse of time, still retained the freshness of modern buildings. The historian expresses his surprise that monuments constructed with such rapidity should yet be built for ages. He declares that there is a bloom diffused over them which preserves their aspect unimpaired by years; and that they seem as if animated by perpetual youth and un fading elegance.

Pausanias. Pausanias, who travelled not long after Plutarch had thus written, has preserved minute details of the state of most other countries through which he passed: but he seems, in his account of Athens, to have been oppressed with the copiousness of his subject. Strabo, who preceded him, is still more brief. Yet each has preserved information most important to the history of the arts; and such as could have been obtained from none other than an eye-witness.

Causes of decline. By singular good fortune, created no doubt chiefly by respect for her former eminence, Athens appears to have escaped comparatively harmless in the wide waste of plunder which followed the Roman conquest of Greece: and it was not until new causes of decay were called into action that we can perceive her decline. The zeal of the early Christians contributed in part to the destruction of Pagan works of art when dedicated to the purposes of superstition: but the gradual extinction of the superstition itself was yet more fatal to the hope of their reproduction; inasmuch as it deprived the artist not only of a demand for his labours, but of the chief stimulus which inspired him to those labours, a belief that he worked for the service, and sometimes under the guidance of the gods.

The early Byzantine emperors, however, continued their protection to Athens: and when Christianity at length established itself, the temples for the most part were dedicated to the service of the Cross. Twice before the close of the fourth century was Athens in possession of the Goths: but even Alaric forbore to accelerate her ruin; and the colossal statue of Minerva Promachus still towered in proud magnificence above the uninjured Parthenon. The gradual conversion of the Greeks tended to the preservation of their public monuments. The virgin Minerva, while the Pagan rites insensibly blended themselves with those of a purer faith, was easily succeeded by the Panagia, and St. George the Christian knight, supplied the place of Theseus, the hero of mythology.

Of the succeeding ages we possess no records which enable us to form a certain judgment of the state in which Athens remained: and even during the conquests of the Franks, and the brief ducal government which they established, we know little but that under the slow progress of decay the city dwindled to the rank of a provincial town. It emerged from the dark ages nearly as we now find it: and its degradation was completed when Omar, in 1436, took possession of its citadel in the name of the victorious Mohammed.

It remained for modern warfare to inflict, in three short days, more injury upon the works of Pericles, than had been caused by repeated former conquests: and the blow which had been withheld by the grasscut and most uncivilized barbarians, was to be struck by a people celebrated for their love of and their skill in the arts. In 1687, 9000 Venetians under Count Koningmark, a Swede, disembarked at the Peiræus; and having summoned Athens, proceeded to make regular approaches to the walls. Batteries were erected on the Pnyx, and at the eastern foot of the Acropolis.

The first effect of the bombardment was the explosion of a beautiful Temple of Victory without wings (*νίκης ἀστερος*) which was used by the Turks as a powder magazine; and the frieze of which is now in the British Museum. A shell next fell upon the Parthenon, which also was used as a magazine. The explosion reduced all the middle of the temple to ruins. It threw down the eastern wall, and all the statues on the eastern pediment. The western front received little injury. Part of the Opisthodomus, and some of the lateral columns of the peristyle adjoining the cell were left standing. Athens after this destruction of her chief glories, surrendered to the Venetians: but their triumph, if dearly purchased, was no less short-lived. After a few months occupation they were compelled to abandon their conquest, and the Turks re-entered the Acropolis.

During this brief possession, however, the idle vanity of the Doge Morosini, and the stupid carelessness of his followers, completed the destruction of some treasures of art which had escaped the wantonness of their bombardment. On the western pediment of the Parthenon stood a car of victory, with horses of the natural size. Morosini coveted it as a trophy, and resolved to convey it to Venice. By the clumsiness of the engineers this group of the most admirable workmanship fell while they were lowering it to the ground. It was not only broken, but for the most part reduced to powder.

Till the middle of the seventeenth century the antiquities of Athens were imperfectly known in Europe; and, strange to say, they had attracted but inconsiderable

ATHENS.

The Goths.

The Franks.

Omar.

Venetian.

siege.

Change of Religion.

ATHENS. attention. One traveller, in 1573, called the Parthenon the Pantheon; another spoke of it as the temple of the unknown God mentioned by St. Paul. This hypothesis was adopted fifty years later by the French Ambassador in the Porte, who, although he had actually visited Athens, described the Parthenon to be oval; and the first adequate idea which Europe received of the Athenian remains, was given by the publication of Dr. Spon and Sir George Wheeler, who fortunately travelled before the Venetian siege.

Spon and
Wheeler.

Stuart.

Chandler

Lord Elgin.

Ninety years after this, in 1751, Mr. Stuart, an English artist, employed three years in studying and drawing from the principal remains of Athens; and in 1764 the Dilettanti Society of London employed Dr. Chandler, a man of letters, to engage in the examination of its topography. The result of the labours of these gentlemen has long since been before the public.

But it was reserved for Lord Elgin to place beyond the reach of destruction many of the most precious relics of the choicest period in the history of the arts. That nobleman, on his appointment as ambassador in the Porte in 1799, obtained permission from the Turkish government to establish a corps of distinguished artists in Athens; and, at the close of three years, he was presented by them with a complete body of finished drawings of the plans, elevations, and details of the most important objects; and careful and minute measurements of every monument of which there are any remains in Athens or its neighbourhood. Besides these, most of the bas-reliefs and nearly all the characteristic features of Athenian architecture were moulded from the originals.

In the progress of this great undertaking the artists were forcibly impressed by the rapid strides with which destruction, in many cases wilful, had advanced in later years. Several buildings mentioned by Mr. Stuart in 1759 had wholly disappeared. Many of the statues on the Parthenon which had been thrown down in the Venetian bombardment, had been pounded for mortar; and the Turks were frequently in the habit of defacing sculptures from motives of superstition, or of breaking up marbles with the idle hope of gratifying their avarice by the discovery of some hidden treasure.

The last French embassy before the Revolution, had succeeded in removing some of the ornaments of the Parthenon, which had been transferred to the Gallery of the Louvre; and the same agents were still remaining at Athens during Lord Elgin's mission, in order to renew their operations whenever France should regain her former influence at the Porte. Lord Elgin determined therefore to secure for England such marbles as he could obtain permission to remove: rather than to leave them to the certainty of demolition by the Turks, or to the ultimate possession of the French.

The collection which he sent to England consists of several original metopes, from the interior frieze of the Parthenon, representing the combat between the Centaurs and the Lapithæ. They are all in such high relief as to seem groups of statues. A considerable portion of the outer frieze of the same temple, representing the procession at the Panathenæa festival. The fragments of the two groups which occupied the pediments of the eastern and western fronts. Some inscriptions written in the manner called Kineadon, from the Opisthodomos of the Parthenon: in which singular cure is taken to preserve an equal number of letters in each line; so that monosyllables are occasionally separated

for the sake of uniformity. Besides these, Lord Elgin procured from the Parthenon a Doric capital, *naïsses* of the columns, a triglyph, some modules from the cornice, and some of the marble tiles (*antefixa*) which roofed the ambulatory.

The temple of Theseus being in far better preservation, was left undisturbed: but the metopes containing the labours of Theseus and Hercules intermixed, and the interior frieze representing the battle of the Centaurs and Lapithæ, and some incidents of the battle of Marathon were carefully modelled.

Some fragments of the Temple of Victory without wings, on the right of the Propylæa, representing scenes from the battles of Marathon, Salamis and Plataea had been built into the wall of a gunpowder magazine; in which the finest block of the whole had been placed in an inverted position. Lord Elgin, with great difficulty, obtained permission to remove these, and some other sculptures, which had been used in repairing the modern fortifications. The vessel in which they were embarked was wrecked off the island of Cerigo. By incessant exertion, and the assistance of the most expert divers under the direction of Mr. Hamilton, a few of the cases were recovered while the ship lay in twenty fathoms water. The work was continued during two winters: but before the remainder could be extricated the timbers of the wreck had given way.

From the vestibule of the temple of Neptune connected with that of Minerva Polias, in the Erechtheum, were obtained a capital, a base, and some original blocks of the frieze and cornice: and the plans of both these temples have been accurately laid down. From the adjoining Pandroseion one of the Caryatides was removed. The walls of the city and the Long Walls were traced by extensive excavations; and from the numerous tumuli which were opened in the suburbs was formed a magnificent collection of the vases hitherto improperly called Etruscan. A sun-dial which existed in the time of the tragedians, and a large statue of the bearded Bacchus were procured from the temple of this god. The convents and private residences furnished many precious fragments; and a complete series of Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian capitals was arranged, from the birth of Athenian art to its greatest height, under Pericles. Bronzes, cameos, intaglios, and medals, were diligently gathered; and though the particular monument is not immediately connected with Athens, we must not omit to mention that the celebrated Boustrophedon inscription, from the Sigean promontory, was also removed. It formed of late years a seat at the door of a Greek chapel, and was resorted to by persons afflicted with ague: more than half the letters were already obliterated by the numbers who reclined on it, and a few years more would have rendered it completely illegible.

The first step which Lord Elgin took, after making these precious acquisitions, was to consult the most eminent artists on the propriety of attempting their restoration. Upon this Canova unhesitatingly pronounced a *veto* . He held it to be undeniable that the marbles of the Parthenon had never yet been retouched; that they were the works of the ablest artists the world had ever seen; and that it would be sacrilege for any man to presume to violate them with the chisel. They were therefore brought to England in their original state; and were soon after purchased for

ATHENS. £25,000, by a grant of Parliament, and deposited in the British Museum.

Maritime Athens. Our description of ancient Athens will commence from its ports. Maritime Athens is the most flourishing times of the Republic, comprised three demi,

forming a continued town more extensive than Athens itself: 1. Peiræus, now called by the Turks, Aslan Limanı, by the Greeks *Πειραιεύς*, and by the Italians Porto Leone; the two last names derived from a colossal lion of Pentelic marble which stood upon the beach till the Veconian siege. Peiræus anciently had

three subdivisions, Cantharus, Aphrodisium, and Zea; and it is said to have been able to contain 400 galleys at once. Several public buildings adorned it; a Stoa, two temples of Venus, the sanctuary of Jupiter Soter, the Hippodameia (so called from its architect Hippodamus) used as an agora, or exchange for business unconnected with maritime commerce; the tribunal called Phreatys, a bath called Serapium, a delgus, or maritime exchange, and a theatre. It is only of the last that any remains are at present to be found; and from these it is conjectured to have been above 240 feet in diameter. 2. Mynychia (to the east of Peiræus, and separated from it by a peninsula of the same name) a circular harbour now called Stratiotiki. In it stood a temple of Diana, the Doric remains of which are still to be found on the shore; a Bendideion, probably another sanctuary of the same goddess, whose Thracian name was Bendis; and also a Dionysiac theatre. 3. Phalerum, the most eastern and the most ancient of the three ports. Not a trace remains of the temples of Ceres, of Misoera Seiras, and of Jupiter, with which it is known to have been embellished.

Mynychia. The natural division of the Peiræus into three separate basins gave it a superiority over the other two ports; which induced Themistocles to recommend it to the especial notice of the Athenians; but it was not till the second year of the Peloponnesian war that it became completely fortified, as a closed port (*κλειστόν λιμήν*). The works which surrounded it are still traceable through the greater part of their circumference; they consisted of a wall somewhat more than six miles and a half in length, and sixty feet in height. Themistocles also projected, and Cimon and Pericles completed, the Long Walls (*οἱ μακρὰ τείχη, or τὰ στεγά*) which extended from the city or city, on the north to Peiræus, and on the south to Phalerum, a distance of five miles. We may consider these walls as analogous to a line of intrenchments in modern warfare, to maintain a communication between two distant posts: the northern wall effectually prevented an army entering Attica from the Peloponnesus from penetrating either to the south or east of Athens, unless by the pass between the city and Hymettus, or by making a circuit of Hymettus itself, two routes so difficult that neither of them was ever attempted by the Lacedæmonians. The southern, in like manner, protected the communication between Athens and the harbours, against an enemy who might have obtained possession of the eastern country. (Thuc. i. 99. 107.)

Fortifications of Peiræus. From the foundation of the walls, which are still distinguishable, it appears that they ran parallel to each other at a distance of 560 feet; forming a broad street from the centre of the Phaleric hill, in the direction of the entrance of the Aeropolis. The circumference of the whole walls, including those of the

Long Walls

ports, the city, and the Long Walls is estimated at nearly 30 miles.

ATHENS. The principal gates of Athens were Dipylum (called also Thuriac, Sacra, or Ceramicea), Dionæion, Diocharia, Melitiden, Peiræice, Acharacæ, Ithousia, Hippadæ, Ilericæ. The walls on all sides were surrounded with cemeteries. The Acropolis was embraced by the two streams of Ilissus and Cephissus, which united in the marshes of Phalerum.

Without the Peiræic gate was a cenotaph to Euripides; immediately within it stood the Pompeion, a building set apart for the arrangement of processions; and from this point porticoes, statues, and temples, thronged on the sight in quick confusion. To the right was placed the Phryx (*ὁ δὲ τὸ περικλυτὸν*) a place in which certain popular assemblies were held; the road continued on through the Ceramicus, (a large district, extending both within and without the walls, and called, as Pausanias says, from the hero Ceramus; or, as Herodotus more honestly allows, from the pottery works,) till it passed the Stoa Basileus, or portico of the king, in which the Archon held his court. Hence the street of Herma, so called, from the herms of Mercury with which it was decorated, terminated in a Stoa, named Peucilæ, from its pictures; the subjects of which were the battles with the Lacedæmonians at Græce and Argolis; the battle of Theseus with the Amazons; the taking of Troy, and the battle of Marathon. Here also were suspended a number of captured shields.

The Agora, which the Peucilæ fronted, had many sacred buildings; it was planted with walks of plane trees, and divided into markets, streets, and porticoes, which derived their names from the objects sold in them. The senate occasionally assembled in one hall within it; the Prytanes dined in another; and a temple to the mother of the gods, and altars to the twelve gods, to Pity, Modesty, Shame, and Impetuosity, attracted sacrifices. The Arctiopoia, or Hill of Murs, so called, because Mars was the first person here tried (for the murder of Hallithotius,) sloped down from it towards the north, to a plainer site, on which stood the Temple of Theseus.

The Theseion still existing is a peripteral hexastyle, Theseion. with thirteen columns on the sides. The cell is forty feet in length, and twenty in breadth; the depth of the pronaos and its portico, is thirty-three feet; that of the posticum, twenty-seven feet; the order is Doric and the columns are three feet four inches in diameter at the base. The height of the temple to the summit of the pediment is thirty-three feet. It is formed entirely of Peutelic marble, and in many essential points seemed to have furnished a model for the Parthenon.

The Gymnasium of Ptolemy and the temple of the Dioscuri were both in the neighbourhood; and to the south-east of the agora yet stands the Horologium of Andronicus Cyrrhestes, now converted into a chapel for dancing dervises. To the south-east is assigned the site of the Prytaneion or senate-house. Hence the street of the tripods led to the theatre of Bacchus. The decorations of this magnificent street were furnished by the victors in the prize games. The Choragic monument of Lysistrates (the lantern of Demosthenes) still testifies the splendour of their offerings; and its circular roof still preserves the triangular apex which was intended to receive his votive tripod. The

ATHENS. Odeum of Pericles adjoined the theatre of Bacchus. To the south-east, after passing through a gate-way erected by Hadrian in the modern walls, arose the temple of Jupiter Olympius, which the same Emperor completed and dedicated. It contained a colossal statue of the god, made of ivory and gold (chryselephantine). The whole length of the sacred precinct (*temple*) when entire, was six hundred and eighty-nine feet. Its circuit was about half a mile. The temple was decastyle; and consisted of nine hundred and twenty-four columns; sixteen of these alone are standing.

Leaving behind on the Ilissus the fountain of Enneacrusus or Callirrhoe, which was the only natural spring by which ancient Athens was supplied with potable water, at the extreme south western angle of the walls, we come to the hill Museum. The monument of the Syrian C. J. Antiochus Philopappus, grandson of Antiochus, the fourth and last king of Commagene, still crowns its summit. Philopappus attained high dignities in Rome, (he was Consul and Frater Arvalis) under Trajan, and having returned to Athens, he erected this building. Its lower compartment was decorated with one of the triumphs of his imperial benefactor, and seated above were statues of himself, his grandfather Antiochus, the last king, and Seleucus Nicator, the founder of the dynasty from which he was descended.

To the north east of the Museum, in the centre of this profusion of magnificence, rises the citadel, the hill of Acropolis.

It is ascended by a single path, which winding first in a westerly direction through two gates, then bends to the north, and by a sudden turn to the east, leads directly to the Propylæa. During the glory of Athens, no less than four temples were to be passed in this ascent. Those of Æsculapius, of Thémis, of Venus and Peitho, and of Tellus and Ceres. Two equestrian statues stood in front of the wings of the Propylæa. Pausanias expresses a doubt to whom he was to assign them. It is plain, however, from the inscription remaining on the pedestal of one of them, that it was an image of Marcus Agrippa, the other is reasonably conjectured to have been Calus Cesar Octavianna, for the seventh time consul in the year in which Agrippa was a third time nominated.

The west end of the Acropolis presented a frontage of 168 feet, 58 were left near the centre, (there is a difference of a few feet, which prevents the vestibule from being exactly central) for the entrance, and the remaining space was covered by the wings which projected 32 feet in front of the grand colonnade. The whole building received the name of Propylæa, from its furnishing a vestibule to the five doors by which the citadel was entered, and which still exist. It was intended jointly as a work of defence and of decoration.

Six fluted Doric columns, raised on four steps, supported the central pediment. The diameter of these columns was five feet, their height twenty-nine, and their intercolumniation seven; except between the two central columns, where there was a space of thirteen feet to admit the free passage of carriages. The vestibule behind, forty-three feet in depth, was sustained by a double row of six Ionic columns, three on each side. Their diameter was three feet and a half, their height thirty-four. Marble beams, resting on the lateral walls and the columns, supported a

richly adorned and painted ceiling. The central door occupied the whole space between the central columns; the two doors on each side were of less dimensions, the more distant being smaller than the nearest. They opened into a portico eighteen feet in depth, which stood on a higher level than that on the west, as five steps were ascended between them, but which was of the same dimensions; from this a single step descended to the platform of the Acropolis.

The wings presented a plain front, with a simple frieze of triglyphs, and antæ at the extremities. On their interior sides, three columns of three feet in diameter between antæ, supported a pediment, the summit of which was on a level with the frieze of the central building to which they stood at right angles. In the northern wing, a porch of twelve feet in depth conducted by three doors into a chamber, thirty-four feet by twenty-six, containing pictures, several of which were obliterated even in the time of Pausanias. The southern wing contained an open gallery, twenty-six feet by seventeen; which is supposed to have led to a postern gate.

In front of the northern wing, there stood as late as the year 1656, a small Ionic temple of two columns only between antæ. Some fragments of this are now in the British Museum, and it is supposed on strong grounds to have been the Temple of Victory without wings. From this spot, according to Pausanias, Ægeus precipitated himself at the sight of the black sails. The Propylæa comparatively was the most expensive work undertaken by Pericles. Heliodorus, cited by Harpocration, estimates it at two thousand and twelve talents, (£453,700), a sum exceeding the annual revenue of the Republic. It took five years in building, under the inspection and after the designs of Mnecides, and was completed 437 years a. c.

On the northern side of the Acropolis within the Propylæa, stood the celebrated brazen statue of Minerva. Minerva Promachos executed by Phidias. It was dedicated after the battle of Marathon, and was so placed, that the crest of the helmet and point of the spear were seen by persons sailing from Sunium towards Athens. Its height therefore with the pedestal (since it was seen above the summit of the Parthenon) must have exceeded seventy feet. Near to the statue stood a brazen quadriga, the tenth of the spoils won by the Athenians in their victory over the Boeotians and Chalcidenses (*Her. v. 79*).

The Parthenon, or the temple of the Virgin Minerva Parthenon, was so far elevated above the entrance of the Acropolis, that the pavement of its peristyle was on the same level with the capitals in the eastern portico of the Propylæa. The Parthenon was a peripteral octostyle of the Doric order, with seventeen columns on the sides, each six feet two inches in diameter at the base, and thirty-four feet high, raised on three steps. Within the peristyle at each end stood six columns, five feet and a half in diameter, forming a vestibule to the cell. This vestibule was ascended by two steps from the peristyle. The cell was divided into two chambers, each sixty-two feet six inches broad; the western, or Opisthodomeus, forty-three feet ten inches in length; the eastern, ninety-eight feet seven inches. Four columns, four feet in diameter, supported the ceiling of the former; sixteen, three feet in diameter, that of the latter. The dimensions of the whole temple were two hundred and twenty-eight feet by a

ATHENS.

hundred and two, and the height to the top of the pediment, sixty-six.

In the pediment were two compositions, each nearly eighty feet in length, and each consisting of about twenty colossal statues. One represented the birth of Minerva, the other the contest between Minerva and Neptune for the patronage of Attica. The mutilated state in which the remains of these groups have come down to us, together with an ambiguity of expression in the description of Pausanias, leaves it a matter of doubt to which of the pediments respectively each of these subjects is to be assigned.

The fragments of these pediments are preserved in the British Museum; and the following positions and names are assigned to the statues by Col. Leake. On the western pediment, beginning from the left, Theseus, Cecrops, Aglaurus, Hebe, Erechthion, Pandrosus, Victory without wings in a biga drawn by two horses, Erechtheus; then in the centre Minerva and Jupiter; hence decreasing to the right a space to be supplied by Neptune, who is wanting; Tialassa, Latona, Mercury, Maia, Vesta, Mars and Venus. The eastern pediment is much less perfect, the central figures being entirely destroyed. Those which remain are named, according to the same order, Hyperrion, Hercules, Peitho, Venus, Iris, Victory with wings, Vesta, Proserpine, Ceres, and the car of Night.

Frieze.

The frieze, it has been before stated, contained a representation of the Panathenæan procession. This was sculptured as advancing in two parallel columns, from west to east on each side of the temple, and after turning the angles at the eastern front, meeting towards its centre. At the head of each column, facing it, were placed six seated figures of deities, and a group exactly in the centre, supposed to represent the presentation of the peplos to the second archon, separated the two bodies from each other. Seven of these deities were male, five female.

Of the ninety-two metopes in the frieze of the peristyle, fifteen of the southern side are in the British Museum, and one in the Louvre; each of them contains a centaur. But in thirty-six remaining on the building itself, not one is to be found. Col. Leake assigns those of the eastern front to the actions of Minerva; on the northern to the war of the Amazons; on the southern to the war of the Centaurs; and on the eastern to some Athenian exploit which is not sufficiently explained to receive a decided name.

In the Opisthodomos stood a chryselephantine statue of Minerva, erect, with a robe reaching to the feet, in one hand was a spear, in the other a Victory six feet high. The goddess herself measured thirty-nine feet. The exterior of the *megas* which lay at her feet was sculptured with the battle of the Amazons, the interior with that of the Titans; her huskins with that of the Centaurs. The quantity of gold employed on this statue, according to Thucydides (xi. 13) was forty talents, (£123,500). The cost of the whole temple, exclusive of the gold, has been estimated at a million and a half of money. Phidias was the artist who carved all the sculpture. The architect was Ictinus.

Erechtheion.

To the north of the Parthenon, at the distance of 100 feet, stood the Erechtheion, containing the united temples of Minerva Polias and Pandrosus, the daughter of Cecrops, and also the sepulchre of Cecrops himself. It was an irregular structure. The eastern front presented a hexastyle Ionic colonnade,

the western front was pseudo peripteral, the establishment, being supported by half columns. Of the two divisions in its interior, the eastern is generally supposed to have been dedicated to Minerva, the western to Pandrosus. But antiquaries differ widely on this point. The Pandroseum opens into porticoes, at the northern and southern sides; the northern is tetrastyle. The southern, which is much smaller was supported by six Caryatides. One of these is now in the British Museum. The proportions of the Erechtheion were small, sixty-three feet by thirty-six, and not twenty is height. Within this temple, as Pausanias relates, were preserved the mark of the trident, with which Neptune struck the earth, the salt water fountain which gushed out when the horse issued forth, and the olive tree which sprang up at Minerva's command; concerning this olive tree, there is a slight difference between Pausanias and Herodotus; both agree that when the Medes burned the city, the olive tree also was burned, and that it sprouted out again the same day. The traveller asserts that its shoot was three feet in length, the historian more modestly contents himself with a foot and a half. Here also stood an image of Minerva, supposed to have fallen from heaven; before it hung a golden lamp, burning night and day, the wick of which being made of Carpathian flax, never consumed, and whose urn required filling with oil but once a year. A huzzas palm tree above it carried off the smoke. Among the votive offerings were a wooden Hermes presented by Cecrops, a chair by Demetrius, the breast-plate of Mniastus, who commanded the Media cavalry at Platana, and the scimitar of Mardonius.

Pausanias mentions numerous statues which adorned the Acropolis. He describes no less than forty-two groups; and it is probable that these were not half the sculptures which stood there in his time; for he passes over all which had been erected since the days of Alexander the Great; and indeed he professes only to enumerate those executed by the greatest masters. Such was the magnificence of this celebrated spot, uninhabited for the common purposes of society, and set apart by Athenian taste as a storehouse of the arts. The measurement of the hill on which these splendid works were raised, is less than a 1000 feet by 500.

The southern wall of the Acropolis is called the *Wall of Cimonian*, the northern the *Pelagie*. It is probable the Acropolis that the existing remains of both are the works of Cimon. Themistocles and Cimon, although the Pelagæ were the original fortifiers of the citadel. In the middle of the northern wall some fragments of Doric architecture are visible, supposed to be remains of the ancient Hecatompedum, the predecessor of the Parthenon, which was destroyed by the Persians, and the materials of which Themistocles used in his hasty repairs. A flight of steps on the northern side of the Propylæa led to a grotto sacred to Apollo and Pæan, in which the former is said to have received the favors of Creusa, the daughter of Erechtheus.

We come in the last place to the remains without Suburbs, the walls. A mile and a quarter to the north is the hill of Colonos, so celebrated in the history of Oedipus. It was sacred to Neptune, and upon it stood a temple of the Eumæides. At its foot, but nearer the city, at the extremity of the sepulchral plain of the outer Ceramicus, is the site of the Academy, a delicious Academy garden planted and supplied with water by Cimon.

ATHENS.

ATHENS.
ATHER-
INGTON.

Cynosarges

Lycæum.

Stadium.

Modern
Athens.

Population.

More easterly on the north rises a hill, one of the most remarkable features in modern Athens; it is crowned with the small church of St. George, and is supposed to be the mount Anchesmus of the ancients. Immediately below it, and close to the Diomeian gates, was the Cynosarges, a spot sacred to Hercules, and afterwards a school of the Cynics; its name was derived from the following circumstance. Diomus, an Athenian, (from whom the neighbouring gates were called), was sacrificing to Hercules, when a white dog carried off part of his victim. This was the position occupied by the Athenians after the battle of Marathon, when the Persians sailed to the Phalerum. Beyond to the south east was the Lycæum, sacred to Apollo Lycius. Here the Polemarch kept his court; and here was the chief gymnasium of the Athenian youth. The disciples of Aristotle derived their name of Peripatetics from walking to its groves. To the south was the Stadium, originally constructed by Lycurgus, 350 B.C. for the contest of the Panathenæan festival. Five centuries afterwards it was covered with seats of marble, by Herodes Atticus. The seats were capable of accommodating 25,000 persons, and a much larger multitude might occupy the slope of the hills above. The caves and some masses of stone still mark its site, and it measures about 675 feet by 130. It is now a cast field. The range of Hymettus flanks it on the east.

Modern Athens, occupied by the prefix of the article into Setines, occupies a far less space than the ancient city. The circumference of the walls is little more than three miles; the south side of the Acropolis is wholly uninhabited. The number of houses in the other quarters is about thirteen hundred, (four hundred inhabited by Turks, the remainder by Greeks and Albanians, the former exceeding the latter in the proportion of two-thirds), and the population, which in the time of Demosthenes, 350 B.C., was estimated at 116,000 souls has now dwindled to less than a tenth of that number. A wall about ten feet high surrounds the present town; the houses are ill built, and the streets

narrow and irregular. The Turks have eleven places of worship, though only four mosques with minarets. Thirty-six Christian churches are constantly open, and there are nearly two hundred consecrated buildings in all; none of them, however, have any architectural dignity. The Acropolis is converted into a fortress. Six columns only of the front of the Propylæa are standing; and even the intercolumniation of these is walled up, and two only have preserved their capitals. A terrace has been formed above them from the ruins of the vestibule and wings, and this at present bristles with the cannon of a battery; a huge tower built by the Venetians contributes to its disfigurement.

On advancing towards the Parthenon, the first object which presents itself is a mean house, the residence of the Diadar, or governor of the fortress. Within the cell of the temple itself all is desolation and ruin; but the remains which still are standing exhibit an unequalled nicety of finishing. In the timbours of the columns the junction is scarcely to be discovered. In the south-east angle of the area is a wretched mosque constructed out of the fallen marble. The little which is now left of the Erechtheion is rapidly decaying; and barracks and batteries fill up the remainder of the Cecropian hill.

Athens is now governed by the Waywode, or Lieutenant, of the Kislar Aga, the chief black eunuch of the seraglio. The Waywode is confined every year in his post; but he frequently retains it for many more, according to the satisfaction expressed by his subjects. He interferes but little with the Christians, unless in the collection of tribute. Their management is principally left to their own Archbishop. Five Archbishops and six Secretaries under them gather the revenue; the sum of which annually transmitted to the Porte amounts to seven hundred and fifty pases.

The classical authorities upon which the above account depends, are those cited in its course. In other points we have relied chiefly upon Col. Leake's able and elaborate work on *The Topography of Athens*.

ATHENS.
ATHER-
STONE.Govern-
ment.

ATHERINA, (from *ἀθήνη*, the point of a sword) Lin. Cuv. *Atherine* Penn. Shaw. In *Zoology*, a genus belonging to the family *Percoidæ*, order *Acanthopterygii*, class *Fishes*. Generic character—Jaws tenish, the upper furnished with very small teeth; five rays to the gills, two small dorsal fins well separated, and the ventral farther behind than the pectoral.

The most common species of this genus is the *A. Hepsetus*, Lin. Cuv. Mediterranean *Atherine*, Shaw, it is about four inches long, semi-pellucid, and covered with scales, on each side of the body is a long silvery band. Pennant says it is very common at Southampton, where it is not unfrequently called a sunet; it spawns in June. The other species are, *A. Schoma*, *Mesidia*, *Japonica*, and *Pinguis*.

ATHERINGTON, in the county of Devon, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £26. 2s. 1d. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 456. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 6s. 6d. in the pound, £310. 4s. 7 miles N.E. from Great Torrington.

ATHERINGTON, or ALDRINGTON, in the county of Sussex, a discharged rectory, valued in the King's

books at £7. 10s. 2½d. Patron the bishop of Chichester by lapse. The church is in ruins. 2½ miles W. from Brighthelmston. Anciently it was a considerable village, and had a cell to the Abbey of Sees in Normandy. It is supposed to have been the *Portus Adami*, where, when the Saxons infested the British seas, the Roman *exploratores* were stationed.

ATHERIX, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects of the order *Diptera*, family *Rhagionidæ*. Generic character—Antennæ moniliform; the third joint not ringed, terminated by a seta, palpi erect.

Atherix maculatus, a British species—inhabits woods.

ATHERSTONE, in the county of Warwick, in the parish of Mancetter, a chapel to the vicarage of Mancetter, of the clear yearly value of £11. 5s. Patron, the vicar of Mancetter. Chapel dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 2921. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 19s. 11d. in the pound, £2050. 13s. 4½d. 24 miles N.E. from Warwick, and 107½ N.W. from London. The market is on Tuesdays. Here is a free school. The manufactures are, hats, wool-combing, ribband.

ATHER-STONE. — weaving, and cotton-spinning. The town is situated in the Watling-street. It is 9 miles distant from Bosworth-field; and the Earl of Richmond had his quarters in it on the night before his victory over Richard III.

ATHERTON, upon Stour, in the county of Warwick, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £13. 1s. 6d. Population, in 1811, 79. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 2s. 9d. £110. 1s. 4½d. 3 miles S. from Stratford-upon-Avon.

ATHIRST, on or in thirst; thirsty. See **THIRST**.

Then shall they also answer him, saying, Lord, who saw us yet as hungry, or as thirsty, or as naked, or as perishing, or in prison, and did not minister unto us?

Bible, 1539. Matthew, c. xxv.

These are they who profess a certain wonderful and new doctrine, whereas they bring nothing worthy the profession of the gospel: being like wells that lack water, whereas if a man come a *thirsty*, he can find nothing but mud and clay.

Udal, 2 Peter, cap. ii.

With scanty measure then supply their food;
And, when athirst, restrain 'em from the flood.

Dryden's *Virgil* Geor. 3.

And now the warlike Hector through the gate
With Paris rush'd, their bounding hearts alike
Athirst for battle.

Cooper's *Hind*, book viii.

ATILETE, } Ἀθλητής, from ἀθλον, labour,
ATLETICK. } struggle, contest. One able to labour, struggle, contend.

For *athletes*, I take the subject of it largely, that is to say, for any point of ability, whereas the body of man may be brought, whether it be of activity, or of patience; whereof activity hath two parts, strength and swiftness; and patience likewise hath two parts, hardness against wants and extremities, and endurance of pain or torment.

Bacon's *Works*, v. i.

And health itself, if it be *athletic*, may by its very excess become dangerous: but wisdom, and duty, and conscience, and discipline, a good mind, and the fear of God, and doing honour to his holy name can never exceed.

Taylor, *Sermon* ix.

Was he (the wise man) in adversity; he equally returned thanks to the director of this spectacle of human life, for having opposed to him a vigorous *athlete*, over whom, tho' the contest was likely to be more violent, the victory was more glorious, and equally certain.

South's *Moral Sentiments*, v. ii.

ATHLONE, a market-town in Ireland, in the county of Westmeath, on the river Shannon, which intersects it, and is crossed by a long stone bridge. It is 65 miles W. from Dublin. It returns one member to Parliament. Athlone commands the great pass between Connaught and Leinster. After the defeat of James II. at the battle of the Boyne, it sustained a long siege in which the assailants were discomfited. In the following year, 1691, however, it was captured by Gen. Ginckle, who in consequence of this exploit received a title from the town.

ATHOL, the most northern district of the shire of Perth, in Scotland. It extends 45 miles in length and 30 in breadth. It is rough and mountainous, and contains a great part of the Caledonian forest. It gives the title of duke and marquess to the Murray family. The ducal residence is at Blair on the river Tilt. The most celebrated spot in this district is the pass of Killcrankie, renowned for the victory and death of the brave Dundee; a plain upright stone marks the spot on which he fell.

ATHOR, in *Mythology*, an Egyptian deity, who personified night.

ATHOS, in *Geography*, a mountain in the Chalcid-

dian district of Macedonia: 150 miles in circumference and projecting into the Aegean sea. The bays formed by this peninsula were the *Sinus Strymonicus* (gulph of Contessa) and *Sinus Singiticus* (gulph of Monte Santo), long. E. 24° 30'. lat. N. 41° 8'. Ptolemy and Pliny have both asserted that it is so high as to project its shade, during the summer solstice, into the market place of Myrina in Lemnos, a distance of eight leagues: a story which has been adopted by Apollonius Rhodius, in his first book of the *Argonautics*. It is said also that the inhabitants engraved the following line upon the brazen image of a cow, which stood in the agora at the termination of the shadow:—

Ἄθως καλύπτει πλεῖστα Ἀργεῖα βόει.

In the first armament of the Persians against Greece, the fleet of Mardonius, in doubling the promontory of Athos, was dispersed by a storm, and lost no less than three hundred vessels and 20,000 men. Xerxes in his expedition, was resolved to secure himself against this danger, and he formed a canal, navigable for the largest galleys, across the isthmus which joins the mountain to the continent of Thrace. For three years innumerable labourers were employed, under the whip, in this mighty work; which notwithstanding the satirical allusion of Juvenal, and the absence of any vestige in modern times to attest its former existence, is founded on the strongest historical testimony. Herodotus (vii. 21, 22.) and Diodorus Siculus (xi. 2.) positively assert the fact. Thucydides, who had property in Thrace, who lived some time there, and held an important command in the district, speaks familiarly of the canal of Athos, (iv. 109.) Plato, (*de Leg.* iii.) Isocrates, (*Panegy.*) and Lyfias, (*Orat.* furn), all distinctly mention it; and in the epitome of Strabo, though his Thracias are lost, it is confidently inserted.

Democritus, a sculptor, who followed the march of Alexander, offered to convert Mount Athos into a statue of the king, holding a town in his right hand, and in his left a basin large enough to contain all the waters that flowed from it; but the proposal was deemed too extravagant to be accepted.

Athos, under the title of Monte Santo, or as the Greeks term it, Agionoros, is now the resort of monks; more than 6000 recluses, supported by the voluntary contribution of the members of the Greek church, inhabit 30 monasteries on various parts of the mountain. They pay an annual tribute for protection to the Turkish government. The manuscripts in their libraries have been recently examined, and some account of them will be found in Dr. Clarke's *Travels*.

ATHREE, in three.

His loud was delat a pre among pre sones y wyrt.

R. Gloucetter, p. 23.

The to lone is al mi thought,
Bothe bi night and day;
That, bot thou wolt mi leuen be,
Y wis, min legg beareth a-thre,
No lenger libben Y no may.

Amis and Amalun in *Wyller*, v. ii.

ATHWA'RT, prep. } i. e. *Athwart*, or *Athwered*;
ATHWA'RT, adv. } wrested, twisted, curved,—
Tooke, i. 415. See **TAWART**.

A-
THWART.
—
ATLAN-
TIC.

WEST. My Liege; this boat was hot in question,
And many flouts of the charge yet down
But yesternight: when all *athwart* there came
A Post from Wales, laden with heavy news,
Shakespeare's Henry IV. Part I. fo. 46.

You do not love Maria? Longenile
Did never count for her sake compile;
Nor sower by his wretched arms *athwart*
His loving bosoms, to keep down his heart.
Shakespeare. Love's Labour Lost, fo. 133.

—Now we hear the King
Toward Calice: grant him there; there seems,
Heave him away upon your winged thoughts,
Athwart the sea: behold the English beach
Pales in the flood with men, with women, and boys.
Shakespeare. Henry IV. fo. 91.

As when a snake, surpris'd upon the road,
Is crush'd *athwart* her body by the load
Of heavy wheels. *Dryden's Fergus* fo. v.

We entered another valley, or rather a mountain-recess, called
the valley of Guacodoc. I call it a recess, because it is soon ter-
minated by a mountain running *athwart*, which denies any further
passage. *Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes*.

—As vetches on an swartly beam
Leap from the van, and fly *athwart* the floor,
By sharp winds driv'n, and by the winnow's force.
Cowper's Task, book xiii.

ATHY, a town of Ireland, in the county of Kil-
dare; 10 miles S. of Kildare; 32 S. W. from Dublin.
The River Barrow intersects it. Before the Union it
returned two members to the Irish parliament.

ATILT. On, or in, tilt. Raised, lifted up. See
TILT.

POCCLE. What will you do, good gray-beard?
Brooke a haunter, and runne a-tilt at death
Within a chace. *Shakespeare. Henry IV.* Part I. fo. 107.

—Speak, if not, this stand
Of royal blood shall be *athwart*, *atit* and run
Even to the leas of honour.
Beaumont and Fletcher. Philaster, fo. 30.

ATLANTEAN. Having the strength of *Atlas*.

Princely counsel in his face yet shone
Majestick though in rule: sage he stood
With *Atlantean* shoulders, fit to bear,
The weight of mightiest monarchies.
Milton's Par. Lost, book ii. 306.

Leaves so much wonder greater wonder still?
Where are the pillars, that support the skies?
What more than *Atlantean* shoulder props
TV incumbent lord? what magic, what strange art,
In fluid air these pondrous orbs sustains?
Young's Poem, Night, li.

ATLANTIC OCEAN, a name given to that great
basin of the sea, that separates Europe and Africa on
the east, from America on the west, and stretches,
from the arctic ocean on the north to a line which
joins Cape Horn and the Cape of Good Hope, on the
south. In this sense, it is divided from the north
sea, on the north-east, by the Straits of Dover, Great
Britain, the isles of Faroe and Iceland, The Mediter-
ranean with its gulfs, the Gulf of Mexico, and Hud-
son's and Baffin's Bay, are consequently branches of
the Atlantic. That part of it, however, between
Brazil and Africa, from the nearest approximation of
these countries to the southern limits, is sometimes
called the Ethiopic Ocean. Mr. Kirwan, in the sixth
volume of the *Irish Philosophical Transactions*, con-
jectures that the vast bed of the Atlantic was formed
at the time of the Deluge, by the great southern

ocean below the equator, rushing on the northern
hemisphere. This he thinks is justified by the shape
of the opposite shores, which have all the appearance
of having been formed by the action of water, the
great protuberances of the one corresponding to the
indentations of the other. This, however, must only
be considered as a conjecture.

When the nature of fluidity and the action of gen-
eral forces only are contemplated, the level of the sea
must be considered as every where the same; but
from the operation of local causes, the actual level
of some parts has been found to differ. On the coasts,
where the tides are strong, or the wind continues
long blowing towards the shore, the level of the sur-
face is raised by the accumulation of the waters. When
the openings of bays or gulfs face the east in the tor-
rid zone, or where the general current is from east
to west, the surface of the waters is also raised above
the usual level of the sea. From the position of the
Atlantic, it is obvious that several of the gulfs on the
west of that sea must be affected by these causes.
Impressed with this idea, M. Humboldt endeavoured
to ascertain the fact in reference to the gulf of Mex-
ico, and the opposite side of the isthmus on the shores
of the Pacific; when he found the surface of the for-
mer to be six or seven metres higher than that of the
latter. The depth of this sea is also extremely various;
in many places it is wholly beyond the power of man
to fathom. This power, however, it must be confessed
is not very great, for one of the greatest depths that has
ever been reached was 7,900 feet, which was done by
Captain Scoresby, in the Greenland sea, in 1817.
Many parts of the Atlantic, however, are thought to
be three times this depth, for there is no reason to
suppose that its greatest depths are not less than the
highest mountains.

The saltness and specific gravity also of the At-
lantic differ in its various parts. They are in a great
measure dependant the one upon the other, and, gradu-
ally diminish from the equator to the poles. In the
neighbourhood of the British Isles, the quantity
of salt has been stated at $\frac{1}{4}$ rd of the weight of the
water, or nearly 3 per cent. Dr. Thomson, in his
Chemistry observes, "as far as experience has gone,
the proportion of saline contents does not appear to
differ much, whatever may be the latitude in which
the water of the ocean is examined. Captain Phipps,
in north latitude 80°, and 60 fathoms under ice,
found the saline contents of sea water to be 0.0354;
in lat. 74°, he found them to be 0.036; in lat. 60°,
0.034. Pages found sea water, taken up in north
latitude 43° and 39° to contain 0.04 of saline con-
tents; and Bassein, obtained by analysis from water
taken up by Pages, in north latitude 34° and 14°,
exactly the same proportion of saline matter. In
southern latitudes, Pages found the following pro-
portions of saline contents, viz.

Latitude	Sal. Matter	Latitude	Sal. Matter
40° 50'	0.0416	25° 51'	0.04
46 0	0.043	20 00	0.039
40 30	0.040	1 16	0.035

The specific gravity of the water is greatest where
the saline ingredients contained are the most abun-
dant; as it is the mixture of these with the pure
water that increases its weight. The temperature of
the sea depends upon a greater diversity of causes;

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TIC.

and is consequently subject to more variety than either its saltness or weight. The water of the Atlantic ocean is said to be warmest between $5^{\circ} 45'$ and $6^{\circ} 15'$ of north latitude, where it has been found by actual observation to vary from about $82^{\circ} 5'$ to $84^{\circ} 5'$ of Fahrenheit's thermometer. There, too, the temperature of the sea is generally a few degrees higher than that of the air which reposes upon it. Nearer the poles the influence of the seasons on the surface of the ocean, becomes very sensible; but as the temperature of the water changes more slowly than that of the atmosphere, the means do not, in point of time, exactly correspond. Where not disturbed by local causes, the mean temperature of the surface water is not very different from that of the incumbent atmosphere. It is about 81° at the equator, 70° at 26° of north latitude and 60° at 45° . The temperature diminishes as the depth increases; and it was found by M. Peron that at the depth of 380 fathoms, the temperature was only $45^{\circ} 5'$, though at the surface it was 80° . Currents greatly modify the temperature by transmitting the water of one region to another, as well as in some degree by the agitation they create. The current which sets into the gulf of Mexico is much warmer than the adjacent parts of the sea; but not so that which flows through Magellan's straits into the Pacific. Baron Humboldt made numerous experiments on the surface of the Atlantic ocean between the 9th of June and the 15th of July, 1799, from which the following are selected.

North lat.	West lon.	Temperature of the Atlantic ocean, at its surface.	
		°	F
39 10	16 18	59	00 Fahrenheit
34 30	16 55	61	34
32 16	17 4	63	86
30 36	16 54	65	48
29 18	16 40	66	74
26 51	19 13	68	00
20 8	28 51	70	16
17 57	33 14	72	32
14 57	44 40	74	66
13 51	49 43	76	46
10 46	60 54	78	44

This able observer also remarks that, "from Corruna to the mouth of the Tagus, the water of the sea varied but little in its temperature; but from the 39th degree of latitude to the 10th, the increment was very sensible and very constant, though not always uniform. From the parallel of Cape Montego to that of Salvage, the progress of the thermometer was almost as rapid as from $90^{\circ} 18'$ to $10^{\circ} 46'$; but it slackened extremely at the limits of the torrid zone, from $29^{\circ} 18'$ to $30^{\circ} 8'$. This inequality is, no doubt, caused by the currents that mingle the waters of different latitudes, and which, as we approach the Canary Islands, on the coast of Guiana, set either to the south-east, or north-west. M. de Charuea, who crossed the equator in his voyage to the straits of Magellan, in the 25th degree of west longitude (in October) found the maximum of the temperature of the Atlantic ocean, at the surface in 6° of north latitude." Humboldt's *Personal Narrative*. The summer temperature of the Atlantic is lessened towards both extremes, by the icebergs, or floating islands of ice, which are found in higher latitudes, and which are annually

driven by the currents from the poles towards the equator, till they are dissolved by contact with warmer air and water; but this is sometimes not completed till they have reached the 40th parallel.

ATLANTIDES, in *Mythology*, the daughters of Atlas. See *PLAIDORES*.

ATLANTIS, an island, mentioned by Critias, one of the speakers in Plato's dialogue, entitled *Timæus*, as once existing in the Western Ocean, opposite to the Pillars of Hercules. Its size was said to exceed that of Asia and Africa jointly. During 9000 years, it was governed by the descendants of Neptune, who extended their conquests widely through Europe and Africa; till prodigious earthquakes and inundations uprooted the island, and merged it in the ocean. The speaker relates various particulars of its customs and government; and accounts for the dangerous navigation of the Atlantic by these sub-marine ruins.

The reality of the Atlantis has found many supporters among the moderns. Buffon conjectured that it was the land which united Ireland to the Azores, and the Azores to America. In this opinion he was followed by Whitehurst, who thought the Giant's Causeway a clear proof of sudden disruption; and pointed out the Canaries, the Azores, and the Peak of Teneriffe, as the summits of mountains belonging to some sunken land. (Buffon, ix. Whitehurst's *Inquiry*.)

M. Bailly maintained the existence of this island on the authority of many of the ancients; and cited Homer, Sanchoniathon, and Diodorus Siculus, as vouchers for Plato. From Plutarch's description of Ogygia, or the Atlantis and its adjoining islands, he was inclined to believe that these were Iceland, Greenland, Novn Zembla, and Spitzbergen. (*Lettres sur l'Atlantide de Platon*.) Professor Rudbeck of Uppsala asserted the claim of Sweden, (*Atlantica vici Manheim*) Kircher, (*Mundus Subterraneus*), and Beckman, (*History of Islands*), held that the Canaries and the Azores are such remains of the Atlantis as were not swallowed up by the sea. Perizonius and others imagined the account of Plato to be a proof that the ancients had some obscure knowledge of America; and lastly Sir William Jones was more willing to adopt the narrative of the Atlantis as descriptive of Iran (Persia) than of any other known spot on the habitable globe, (*Asiatic Researches*, ii.)

D'Auville (ii. 229.) has treated the whole account as a fable. He considers it an invention of Plato, to flatter the Athenians, who were stated by him to be the only people who had repulsed an invasion of the Atlantes; and in the account of the polity and government of the island he sees nothing more than philosophical speculations. Lord Bacon has adopted the name in a philosophical romance descriptive of an island in the South Sea, called the New Atlantis, to which the author was driven in a voyage from Peru to Japan. Part only of his design was completed. (*Bacon's Works*, iii.)

ATLAS, in *Mythology*, one of the Titans, son of Jupiter; by Pleione he had seven daughters, called Atlantides, or on their being changed into a constellation, Pleiades. Atlas was King of Mauritania, and having been informed by an oracle of Themis that he was to be dethroned by a descendant of Jupiter, he refused the rites of hospitality to Perseus as he was returning from the conquest of the Gorgons. Perseus

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showed him the head of Medusa, and instantly changed him into the mountain which bears the name of Atlas. The fable of his supporting the heavens on his shoulders, is referred to various causes. One that it was a punishment for assisting the Giants in their war against the Gods. Another from the height of the mountain under his name, which seemed to prop the skies. A third from his fondness for astronomy. He communicated this knowledge to Hercules, who thus is said at one time to have relieved him from the weight of his starry burden, (Ovid. Met. iv. Hygial Fab.)

ATLAS, a collection of Maps, so called from Atlas, who was fabled to have borne the whole world on his shoulders.

ATLAS, in Geography, an extensive chain of mountains stretching through the greater part of Barbary, and dividing most of its cultivated territory from the desert. The mountains forming the eastern boundary of Morocco are the loftiest in this chain. The height of some of them is 13,000 feet above the level of the sea. Towards eastern Barbary the height is much diminished, and the chain spreads into various branches. Dr. Shaw describes it in this part as a series of hills seldom exceeding twelve or fifteen hundred feet in height, covered with fruit and forest trees. Numerous rivers descend from them, both in a northerly and southerly direction. The geology of Mount Atlas is imperfectly known, but in its lower parts calcareous rocks appear to prevail. Lead and silver are found largely near Tunis, and in the southern provinces of Morocco there are very productive copper mines. Gold and silver are said to abound still farther south; and Mr. Jackson, the most recent traveller in these districts, says that he has seen traces of these mines, which the jealousy of the petty princes prevents from being worked. Antimony is drawn copiously from Mount Atlas. The most valuable kind comes from the eastern side bordering on Tafilet. Opposite to Terodant, sulphur is found in very large quantities; and throughout the range some masses of iron are occasionally detected.

ATLAS, a rich silk manufactured in the East Indies.
ATMOSPHERE, } Formed by composition of the
ATMOSPHERICAL. } Gr. *ἄτμος*, breath, and *σφαῖρα*, a sphere, or globe.

And though the height of the atmosphere, according to the famous Kepler, and some others, ascends exceeds eight common miles; yet other eminent and later astronomers would promote the confines of the atmosphere to exceed six or seven times that number of miles. Boyle. *New Experiment.*

I shall but just mention the admirable use of our Atmosphere in ministering to the enlightening of the world, by its reflecting the light of the heavenly bodies to us; and refracting the sun beams to our eye, before it ever surmounteth our horizon; by which means the day is protracted throughout the whole globe; and the long and dismal nights are shortened in the frigid zones, and day soonest approacheth them; yea the sun itself riseth in appearance (when really it is absent from them), to the great comfort of these forlorn places. Derham. *Physico-Theology.*

I question whether we have any air here below, that is in other than a preternatural or violent state; the lower part of our atmospheric air being constantly compressed by the weight of the upper parts of the same air, that lies upon them. Boyle. *On the received Notion of Nature.*

Our mind is pent up in the body, and looketh only through these clefts by which objects strike our sense; its intuition is limited within a very small compass; it resideth in an atmosphere of fancy, stuffed with exhalations from temper, appetite, passions, interest. Barrow's *Sermons.*

How as a tallman of magic fame,
This atmosphere conveys th' enlight'ning beams,
Reflects, infects, refracts the orient ray,
Anticipating shades the rising day.—
High from his seat the solar glory heaves,
(Whose image fires the horizontal waves)
Abridging, shears the sable robe of night,
And through the globe protrudes the cheerful light;
With sweet premoning twilight blinds the shade,
And gently lets our evening beam recede.

Brook. *Universal Beauty.*

The moisture, and vapour heaviness of our atmosphere, which produces the rich verdure of our lawns; gives birth also to another peculiar feature in English landscape; that obscurity, which is often thrown over distance.

Olivia's *Tour to the Lakes, &c.*

ATMOSPHERE, is the term under which we comprehend as one body, that gaseous or neriform fluid, which every where invests the surface of the terraneous globe, and which partakes of all its motions, both annual and diurnal.

We have already under various heads in our treatise on Pneumatics, illustrated most of the mechanical properties of the atmosphere, and of the air of which it is composed; and in our treatise on Chemistry will be found all the most essential of its physical properties; we shall also have again to examine the nature of this fluid in our treatise on Meteorology: it will therefore be sufficient in this place to give a concise enumeration of some of the most important characteristics of the atmosphere as a body; and of atmospheric air considered independently of the general mass. These may be stated as follow:

1. The atmosphere is a heavy fluid, which presses equally in all directions; the amount of that pressure being every where (at a medium) about equal to a column of 30 inches of quicksilver, or 34 feet of water, whose base is equal to the surface pressed, and therefore amounts to about 14½ lbs. upon every square inch. On this property of the atmosphere, depends the operation of many important hydraulic and pneumatic engines, as the syphon, the sucking pump, the atmospheric steam engine, &c. The barometer also owes its construction and operation to this property.

2. Atmospheric air is likewise an elastic body, and is therefore subject to a less and less degree of elasticity, as we ascend to different and greater altitudes; the law of that decrease being such, that as the heights increase in an arithmetical progression, the pressures diminish in a geometrical progression; and hence the application of the barometer to the measuring of heights. See section 3. PNEUMATICS.

3. Again, air being a transparent medium, possesses a refractive power, and thus produces certain phenomena, amongst which that which we denominate the crepusculum or twilight, is the most remarkable. It has also a reflective power, which is the cause of objects being so uniformly enlightened on all sides as we observe them. Without this property, the shadows of objects would be so impenetrably dark, and their enlightened sides so intensely bright, that our vision would be very imperfect, and all those beautiful gradations of light and shade so pleasing and gratifying to the eye, would no longer delight us; we should have only the extreme contrast of light and darkness, both perhaps incompatible with the optic powers of our organs of vision.

Figure of the atmosphere, its limits, &c. As the

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atmosphere envelopes all parts of the surface of the earth, if both the one and the other were perfectly at rest, then the figure of both would be that of a perfect sphere, agreeably to the universal laws of gravity; at least this would necessarily be the case, supposing the earth to have been originally in a fluid form. But the earth and its ambient atmosphere are invested with a diurnal motion, which carries them round their common axis of rotation; and the different parts of both having a centrifugal force, the tendency of which is more considerable and the centripetal force less, as the parts are more remote from the axis, it follows that the figure of the atmosphere must become that of an oblate spheroid, because the parts that correspond to the equator, have a greater centrifugal force than those near the poles; but this oblateness has its limits, and in the case where it is greatest, the ratio of the polar to the equatorial diameter is as 2 to 3. Laplace has shown in that part of his "*Système du Monde*," where he treats of the atmosphere of the planets, that in all the changes to which the atmosphere is subject, the sum of the products of the particles of the revolving body and its atmosphere, multiplied respectively by the areas they describe round the common centre of gravity, (the radii being projected on the plane of the equator), remains the same in equal times. Supposing therefore by any cause whatever, the atmosphere should be contracted, or that part thereof should become condensed on the surface of the body, the rotatory motion of the latter and its atmosphere would be accelerated; for the radii vectors of the areas described by the particles of the original atmosphere becoming smaller, the sum of the products of all the particles by their corresponding areas, cannot remain the same unless their velocities be augmented.

With respect to the limits of the atmosphere, we have no facts from which to draw any definite conclusions. If the earth were at rest, and the elasticity of the air every where as the compressing force, and matter infinitely divisible, we could have no other than an indefinitely extended atmosphere; but in consequence of the diurnal motion, we necessarily at length arrive at such a height, that the centrifugal force is equal to that of gravity, and beyond this limit no atmosphere can exist; as all its particles at this point would be projected into space; and if also the law of elasticity were such as we now generally assume, other particles would ascend by means of their inherent elastic force, and be in like manner projected; and this process would continue till the entire atmosphere was dissipated in space: and hence therefore we may conclude with certainty, that the limits of the atmosphere of the several planets are necessarily less than that distance where the centrifugal force in each is equal to the respective power of gravity; we may also hence infer that the law of elasticity, commonly attributed to atmospheric air, viz. that it is proportional to the compressing force, has also its limits, or that it stands in need of certain modifications which shall render it consistent with an atmosphere of definite extent, or that the particles of matter of which it is composed are not divisible *ad infinitum*. On this subject we have an ingenious paper by Dr. Wollaston, in Part I. of the *Phil. Trans.* for 1802, an abstract of which will be interesting to our readers. The author observes, that if we admit that air has been rarefied so as

to sustain only $\frac{1}{10}$ of an inch of barometrical pressure, and that this measure has afforded a true estimate of its rarity, we should infer from the law of elasticity observed within certain limits, that the atmosphere extends at least to the height of forty miles with properties yet unimpaired by extreme rarefaction. Beyond this limit we are left to conjecture, founded on the supposed divisibility of matter; and if this be infinite, so also must be the extent of the atmosphere, except so far as regards the centrifugal force to which we have already referred; for if the density be throughout as the compressing force, then must a stratum of given thickness at every height be compressed by a superincumbent atmosphere, bearing a constant ratio to its own weight, whatever be its distance from the earth. But if air consists of any ultimate particles no longer divisible, then must expansion of the medium composed of them cease at that distance where the force of gravity downwards upon a single particle, is equal to the resistance arising from the repulsive force of the medium.

On the latter supposition of limited divisibility, the atmosphere which surrounds us must be conceived to be a medium of finite extent, and may be peculiar to our planet, since its properties would afford no ground to presume that similar matter exists in any other planets. But if we adopt the supposition of unlimited expansion, we must conceive the same kind of matter to pervade all space, where it would not be in equilibrium, unless the sun, the moon, and all the planets possessed their respective shares of it, condensed around them, in degrees depending upon their respective force of attraction, unless in those instances where the tendency to accumulate may be counteracted by the interference of other kinds of matter, or of other powers of which we have no experience, and concerning which we cannot be supposed to reason correctly.

Now on this supposition, since we know the mass and diameter of the principal bodies in our system, we should know also the density of their atmospheres at their respective surfaces; and also at what distance from the surface of each, the density would be the same as at the surface of the earth; at which height a sensible degree of refraction that is more than a degree, ought to be produced on a ray of light passing through it.

For example, if the mass of the sun be considered as 330,000 times that of the earth, the distance at which his force is equal to that of terrestrial gravity at our surface, will be $\sqrt{330,000}$, or about 575 times the earth's radius; and if his radius be 111.5 times that

of the earth, then the distance will be $\frac{575}{111.5} = 5.15$ times the sun's radius. Now the mean apparent semi-diameter of the sun being $15' 49''$, we have $15' 49'' \times 5.15 = 1^\circ 21' 29''$; for the distance from the sun's centre, where the refractive powers of his atmosphere is equal to that at the earth's surface; that is where it would produce a deviation of a degree to a ray passing through it at that distance. We are able, as Dr. Wollaston has shown, to observe Venus within this distance of the sun; and since in this observation we find no effect produced by refraction, the observed and computed places agreeing to a fraction of a minute, we have a right to infer that at the distance we have computed, the density of the sun's atmosphere is not such as it would be if each body in

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the system possessed an atmosphere proportional to its own attractive power; but this must be the case if the elastic matter of the atmosphere were infinitely divisible: hence then again we may conclude that matter is not infinitely divisible, and consequently that the atmosphere of this earth is of a finite and limited height, and may be peculiar to it.

Some doubt, however, may hang over this deduction in respect to the sun, on account of the probable heat near his surface, which may produce a rarefaction far exceeding any thing that we can form an idea of; but this will not be the case if we select Jupiter as the body for observation.

Here, since the mass of Jupiter is full 509 times that of the earth, the distance at which his attraction is equal to gravity must be about $\sqrt{509}$, or 17.6 times the earth's radius; and since his diameter is nearly 11 times greater than that of the earth, we shall have

$17.6 = 1.6$ times his own radius; for the distance.

from his centre at which an atmosphere equal to our own should occasion a refraction exceeding one degree to the fourth satellite. This distance would subtend an angle of about $3^{\circ} 37'$, so that an increase of density to 34 times our common atmosphere, would be more than sufficient to render the fourth satellite visible to us when behind the centre of the planet; and consequently to make it appear on both or all sides at the same time.

Hence, whatever doubt may remain on the deduction made from observations on Venus seen through the solar atmosphere, in consequence of the possible effects of heat which cannot be appreciated, it is evident that no error from this source can be apprehended in regard to Jupiter. This planet therefore does not possess an atmosphere proportional to his mass, as he would do if the matter composing it were infinitely divisible, and therefore as we have seen, common to the whole solar system. Hence then we have a right to conclude, that matter is not infinitely divisible, and that each planet possesses an atmosphere peculiar to itself of limited height, composed of ultimate atoms, of definite magnitude, no longer divisible by the repulsion of their parts.

ATOM, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ATOMICAL,} \\ \text{ATOMIST,} \\ \text{ATOMICKE,} \\ \text{ATOMOLOGY,} \\ \text{ATOMY.} \end{array} \right. \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{"Atoom," from a primitive, and} \\ \text{v\acute{a}uon, I cut.} \\ \text{That which cannot be cut, or se-} \\ \text{parated into smaller particles.} \end{array} \right.$

Meaning therefore, the resolution of the soul into a thing that had neither intelligence nor any sense at all, which Epicurus holding to be a dissipation thereof into (I not not what) emptiness or voidness, and small indivisible bodies, which he termed *Atomy*; by that means cutteth off (so much the rather) all hope of immortality.

Holland's *Plat. Morals*.

These atomic theists utterly evince that grand argument for a God, taken from the phenomenon of the artificial frame of things, which has been so much insisted upon in all ages.

Cudworth, *Intellectual System*.

Now, I say, as Diogenes, and Archelaus, asserted the corporeal world to be made of *Atoma*, but yet notwithstanding held an incorporeal deity, distinct from the same, as the first principle of activity last; so in like manner did all other ancient *Atomists* generally before Democritus, join *theology* and *incorporeality* with their *atomical* physiology. They did *Atomize* as well as he, but they did not *atheize*; but that *atheistical Atomology* was a thing first set on foot afterward by Leucippus and Democritus.

Cudworth, *Intellectual System*.

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They all would vanish, and not dare appear,
Who *atom-like*, when their sun shined clear,
Danc'd in his beam; but now his rays are gone,
Of many hundreds we perceive not one.

Brown's Pastorals, book II.

Whether some Soul encompassing this Ball
Unmade, unmort'd, yet making, moving all;
Or various *Atoms* interfering dance
Leap into form (the subtle work of chance.)

Dryden's Religio Laici.

Matter is indefinitely divisible, and the first particles or *atoms* of which it consists, must be small beyond all our apprehensions.
Wallace's Religion of Nature.

As for the whole *atomical* hypothesis, either Epicurus or Democritus, I shall not, nor need I, spend time to confute it; this having been already scilicet and sufficiently done by many learned men.
Bay on the Creation.

They suppose the matter of which the world is constituted, to be eternal and of itself, and then an infinite empty space for the infinite little parts of this matter (which they call *atoms*) to move and play in; and that these being always in motion, did after infinite trials and encounters, without any counsel or design, or without the disposal and contrivance of any wise and intelligent Being, at least by a lucky casualty, entangle and settle themselves in this beautiful and regular frame of the world which we now see.
Tillotson, Sermon I. fo. 11.

Just where the breath of life his nostrils drew,
A charge of soul the wily vigils threw;
The Gnomes direct, to e'er'ry atom just,
The pungent grains of titillating dust;
Sudden, with starting tears each eye o'erflows,
And the high dome re-echoes to his noise.
Pope, The Rape of the Lock.

ATOM. In *Philosophy* there is a theory which is known by the name of the *atomical*; the object of which is to account for the origin and formation of things by the supposition of the union of *atoms*.

The inventor of this theory has furnished a topic of controversy. Its celebrity is chiefly owing to Epicurus, by whom it was adopted, and who gave it a degree of currency, from the large number of his disciples in philosophy, which it might probably not have otherwise obtained. The origin of it is however generally ascribed to Democritus; though Dr. Cudworth seems to think that it reaches much farther into antiquity, and that its real author was one Moechos a Phoenician, who lived before the Trojan war, and who has by some been supposed to be the same with Moses.

As the *atomical* theory formed a part of the opinions in philosophy embraced by Epicurus, it has been commonly considered as an atheistical doctrine. There does not seem however to be any sufficient reason for this conclusion. It is as lawful to suppose that the deity framed the present constitution of things out of certain atoms, endued with such and such properties, as that he employed any other assignable means in the production of this world: the *atheism* of Epicurus consisted in the hypothesis that the *First Cause* of things may be explained upon the principles of the *atomical* theory, which, if we set off by denying the existence of a God, it no doubt may be, just as readily as upon any other hypothesis; but in itself the theory appears to be no more connected with *theology*, than the *Huttonian* or *Wernerian*, or any other by which philosophers have attempted to account for the constitution of the world.

The ancient *atomic* hypothesis supposes, according to Cudworth, "that body is nothing else but *ἐκκεννὸν* *ἀκίνητον*, that is, extended bulk; and resolves therefore that nothing is to be attributed to it, but what is

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included in the nature and idea of it, viz. more or less magnitude, with divisibility of parts, figure, position, together with motion or rest; but so that no part of body can ever move itself, but is always moved by something else. And consequently it supposes that there is no need of any thing else besides the simple elements of magnitude, figure and motion, which are all clearly intelligible as different modes of extended substance, by which to solve the corporeal phenomena. The forms or qualities of bodies may easily be conceived to be nothing but the result of those simple elements, of magnitude, figure, site and motion, variously combined together in the same manner as syllables and words, in great variety, result from the combination of a few letters." *Intellectual System*, b. 1. c. 1.

It is plain that if we add to the above theory the supposition of the eternity and fortuitous motion of these atoms, we necessarily exclude the doctrine of the existence of a Creator and of his providence; even if we leave, as Epicurus gratuitously thought proper to do, the belief in certain superior beings whom he called the Gods; but these suppositions are manifestly no part of the atomic doctrine, considered by itself; nor have they ever been so understood by those philosophers, as Gassendi and others, by whom in modern times it has been revived, and applied to the explanation of many of the laws by which natural phenomena appear to be founded. See *Treatise upon CHEMISTRY*.

ATONE, *ad.* To be, or cause to be, of one.
ATONE, *v.* To be in unity or concord, in
ATONEMENT, } friendship or amity: to agree; to
ATONEMENT, } return or restore to favour; to
conciliate, to satisfy, to propitiate. See ONE and OCKMENT.

Is kyng & je first were at an, yet to wyl he tok
Hys dogger insynge, so hys lord he for sok.
R. Gloucester, p. 13.

Heo mæden ceterwe cōmraunt þæt heo wære al at an.
Id. p. 113.

þo were þe kyng of France, & þe erf of Flaunders also,
Were alle at an rede, & þe erf of Angero,
To make kyng Henry Normandy to lete.
Id. p. 456.

þer of Edward herd say, þæt Gilbert turned his wille,
To Gilbert tok his way, his luf to tok & tilde.
Some þei were at oar, with wille at an ascent.
R. Brunne, p. 229.

If gentillmen, or other of that contrie
Were wroth, she wolde bringe hem at an,
So wise and ripe wordes hadde she.
Chaucer. The Clerk's Tale, v. l. p. 336.

And thence ["Darab"] is borrowed for the pacifying and assuaging of wrath and anger, and for an amends making, a conciliating, satisfaction, a ransom, & making at ease, so it is to see abundantly in the Bible.

The Whole Works of Wm. Tyndal, 4r. fo. 394. c. 1.

But also [it is required] that thou be fervent & diligent to make peace and to go betwix, where thou knowest or hearest malice and enmity to be, or sent late or strife to arise between person and person, and that thou leave nothing unsought, to set them at ease.
Id. fo. 193. c. 2.

Of which good provision none of us hath any thing the lesse need, for the late made atonement, in wylche the king's pleasure hadde more place than the parties wille.
Sir Tho. More's Works, fo. 40. c. 2.

Paul saith, 1. Tim. c. 1. One God, one Mediatour (that is to say, advocate, intercessor, or an atonement) between God & man: the man Christ Jesus which gave him self a ransom for all men.
The Whole Works of Wm. Tyndal, fo. 128. c. 1.

Lon. Is there decision 'twixt my Lord, and Cassio?
Des. A most unhappy one: I would do much
To'teese them, for the love I bear to Cassio.
Shakespeare. Othello, fo. 330.

He her side
Can never seek, once dead in sins and lost;
Attonement for himself, or offering meet,
Indebted and undone, hath none to bring.
Milton. P. L. book III.

Now there we find, that *Indebtedus* and *Indebitatus* all along answer to the "ED," which signifies to appease, to pacify, to reconcile a person offended, to atone or make him at one again with the offender.
Beveridge. The Satisfaction of Christ explained.

The King and haughty Empress, to our wonder,
If not atton'd, yet seemingly at peace.
Dryden's Aureng-Zeb.

But yet thou may'st atone this difference betwixt us; verily,
thou may'st.
Dryden's Limberham.

ALMEIDA. Then prayers are vain as cursas.
ENFEROS. Much of one
In a slave's mouth, against a monarch's pow'r.
Dryden's Don Sebastian.

So rich a price was more than sufficient to ransom all the world from captivity; so greedy, so pure, so sweet, so precious a sacrifice might worthily expiate and atone all the guilts of men.
Barrow's Sermons.

His word acquaints us, that blessings of the highest importance depend upon what he has done and suffered for us; on his atonement and exaltation, our title to pardon of sin.
Secker's Sermons.

But if, the impulse of a wayward mind
Obeying, I have err'd, behold not, now,
Prepar'd to scold him with atonement large
Of gifts inestimable, by name
I will propound in presence of you all.
Cowper's Diod, book ix.

ATONEMENT, for the Christian doctrine of *Atonement*, see "OLOGOLOGY."

ATONIA, from a *primitives* and *reive* I stretch, in Medicine, defect of muscular power, relaxation.

ATOOI or ATOWAI, the largest of the westerly Sandwich Islands discovered by Cook in 1778. It is at least 16 leagues from east to west: it is much broader at the eastern than at the western extremity. It has a good road and watering place called Wymoa on the south west side. Cooke conjectured that the population amounted to 30,000 at least. Long. S. 200° 20'. Lat. N. 21° 57'.

ATOP, on top, at or on the top. See TOP. In Milton, P. Lost, h. 3. v. 506. The 3d Edition reads *At top*.

Or, when a top the hoary western hill
The midie Sunot appears to rest his chin,
When not a breeze disturbs the murmuring rill,
And midlie wren the falling dewen begin.
The pensive trout then shows her silverish skin.
Milton's Parn. Syr. Merop, canto 1.

ATRABILARE, } *Atrabiliare*, subject or be-
ATRABILARE, } longing to melancholy or
ATRABILARE, } black choler. *Catoptræ*. From
Ater (perhaps from *atōw*, I burn,) black, and *bilis*.
(*fel. xelq.*) bile, choler.

A preposterous sort of mirth hath turned you all into wits, quite down from the sanguine crest of the independent whig to the atrabilare blasphemous of the ultricies.

Warburton's Divine Legation of Moses vindicated. Def.

The atrabilare constitution, or a black, viscous and plethy coaiscence of the fluids, makes all secretions difficult and asping.
Arbuthnot on Diet.

From this black adust state of the blood they are atrabilaries.
Arbuthnot on Diet.

ATONE.
—
ATRABILARE.

ATRA-
BILIS.
—
ATRE-
BATES.

ATRABILIS (from *ater* black and *bilis* bile.) in *Medicine* black bile. The ancient physicians believed this to arise, either from the grosser parts of the blood, or from yellow bile highly concocted; and to it they attributed a melancholic or atrabiliary temperament. The moderns assign its origin to the gall rendered acid by stagnation in the gall bladder, and viscid by the absorption of its fluid parts. The symptoms produced by it, when in this state discharged into the duodenum, are quickness of pulse, headach, delirium, hicough, intense thirst, fetor of breath, and a violent purging or vomiting, or both. The remedies are evacuations, particularly by salomel and the *infus. Sennæ limoniatæ*.

TRACTOCERUS, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects of the order *Coleoptera*, family *Meloidæ*. Generic character; antennæ simple, nearly fusiform; elytra very short; thorax sub-quadrata. There is but one species of this genus *A. nectydalides*, *Nectydalia brevicornis* of Linnaeus.

TRACTYLIS, in *Botany*, a genus of plants. Class *Syngenesia*, order *Polygonia* *aynalis*. Generic character; calyx, outer, many-leaved. Corolla, compound, radiata. Stamen, filaments five; anther cylindrical. Petal, germ very short, style uniform, stigma biped. Seeds turbinate, receptacle villous. Seven species have been catalogued. Three natives of the South of Europe. Two of Japan. One of the Cape of Good Hope, and one of Mexico.

ATRAGENE, in *Botany*, a genus of plants. Class *Polygonia*, order *Polygonia*. Generic character; calyx, none. Corolla, double, petals numerous, the exterior larger. Seeds, caulate. This genus is nearly allied to *Clematis*; there are several species, inhabiting different parts of the world.

ATRAMENTAL, } *Atrare* (to blacken), *atratum*,
ATRAMENTUM, } *atramen*, *atramentum*. Vossius.

The second way whereby bodies become black, is an *atramentous* condition or mixture, that is, a vitriolate or copperous quality conjoining with a terrestrous and astrigent humidity.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Now if we enquire in what part of vitriol this *atramental* and degenerating condition lodgeth, it will seem especially to lie in the more fixed salt thereof. *Brown's Vulgar Errors*, p. 412.

His belov'd was of old rusty iron, but the vision was brass, which, tainted by his breath, corrupted into copper, nor wanted gall from the same fountain; so that whenever provoked by anger or labour, an *atramentous* quality of most malignant nature was seen to distil from his lips.

Slype. The Bottle of the Snake, vol. 1. p. 159.

ATRAPAXIS (*ἀτραπαξίς*, also in Theophrastus and Hippocrates *ἀτραπαξίς* and *ἀτραπαξίς*. It is said to be derived ἀπὸ τῆς ἀτραπαξίς, from growing quickly.) In *Botany* Orach. An annual plant. Class *Hexandria*, order *Digynia*. It is a native of Armenia, Persia, and Siberia, and flowers in August. It contains two species.

ATREBATES, or **ATREBATICI**, a Belgic tribe which inhabited the country now called Artois. Their capital was *Orléans*, now *Arras*. Their history will be found in Cæsar's *Commentaries*.

There was also a tribe of **ATREBATICI** in Britain, properly colonists from Belgium; Camden places them in Berkshire, Baxter in Oxfordshire. Both, however, agree that Wallingford, in the first county, was their capital. Horeley places their capital at Silchester, in Hampshire, and Stukeley at Farnham. These disagreements arise from the obscurity of the tribe, which was of little note, and soon disappeared. (Henry's *Great Britain*, 1. and ii.)

Vol. VIII.

ATRIplex, in *Botany, a genus of plants, class *Polygonia*, order *Monoecia*. Generic character. Perfect flower. Calyx five-leaved. Corolla none. Stamina five. Style two-partite. Seed one, depressed. Imperfect flower. Calyx two-leaved. Corolla none. Stamina none. Style two-partite. Seed one, depressed.*

ATROCIOUS, } *Atrox*, *Atrocis*,
ATROCISSIMUS, } *Atrox*, *Atrocis*,
ATROCISSIMO, } *Atrox*, *Atrocis*,
ATROCISSIME, } *Atrox*, *Atrocis*.

The *Scholast* interprets *Atrocem* by *constantem*, which favours the derivation from the *Gr* ἀτρός (from a and τρός) that cannot be turned, inflexible, immovable. *Atrociously* wicked, then, is inflexibly, immovably wicked; so wicked as not to be turned from wickedness; remorseless. And therefore applied to excessive, enormous, outrageous wickedness, or evilintinity.

At thy prices I say that I nothing need to speak of, as things so commonly known, that for the *atrocite* of the story, and the wonderful works of God therein, almost every child hath heard. *Sir Thomas More's Works*. fol. 1294. c. 2.

Bad as Herod was, the petition of Salome at first shocked him, 'The King was sorry.' He thought of John's character, the atrociousness of the murder, and the opinion which the world would entertain of the murderer.

Harper on the Life and Death of St. John the Baptist.

When Catiline was tried for some atrocious murders, many of the consulars appeared in his favour, and gave him an excellent character. *Parsons on the beneficial Effects of Christianity*, &c.

To rid the world of these devoted enemies to Catholic faith and piety, was represented as most meritorious. Nature, which is that rude people, was sufficiently inclined to atrocious deeds, was further stimulated by precept. *Hume. Charles I.*

I stand astonished at those persons, who do not feel a resentment, not more natural than political, at the atrocious insult that this monstrous compound offers to the dignity of every nation, and who are not alarmed with what it threatens to their safety.

Burke on Peace with the Regicides.

ATROPA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Monoecia*. Generic character. Corolla campanulate. Stamina distant. Berry globose, two celled.

The *A. Belladonna*, or Deadly nightshade is a native of Britain, but by no means common.

A. Belladonna. Stem herbaceous, leaves ovate, undivided. The whole of this plant is strongly poisonous. The berries have occasionally proved fatal to children, who were attracted by their beautiful appearance. In *Medicine*, it is exhibited internally as a narcotic. The extract when applied to the eye, possesses the valuable property of dilating the pupil, which renders it useful in some diseases of that organ, and especially as a means of facilitating the operation for cataract. The extract is the form in which it is employed both externally and internally. See *Poison*.

The *A. Mandragora*, a native of the south of Europe, is not at present in use, but seems to have been formerly employed as a narcotic.

— Not poppy nor mandragora

Nor all the drowsy syrups of the world,

Shall ever medicine thee to that sweet sleep,

Which thou ow'st thy yesterday. *Othello*.

ATROPHIA (from a *privatio* and *τροφή*, I nourish) in *Medicine*, a disease belonging to the class *Cachexia*, order *Marces* of Cullen. Emaciation, loss of strength, hectic fever. This disease is divided into several species.

ATROPHY, from a *privatio*, and *τροφή*, I nourish.

ATRI-
PLEX.
—
ATRO-
PHY.

ATRO-
PHY.

It reviveth those parts that moulder and feel no benefit or nutriment of meat, which they call in Greek *atrophia*.

Holland's Flieg.

ATTACH.

Some will have it called mildew, *quasi* mildew, or ill-cure, others mildew or boory-dew, as being very sweet (oh how lushious and noxious is flattery!) with the antipathy thereof coming an *atrophy* or consumption in the grain.

Foster's Worthies, Middlesex.

The shaking head, and the contracted limb;

And ling'ring *atrophy* and hoary age.

Jagu's Fucus, book iv. p. 305.

ATROPUS, in Zoology, a genus belonging to the family Scomberoides, order *Acanthopterygia*, class *Pisces*.

Generic Character; body compressed, muzzle shorter than the lower jaw; a single dorsal fin, with two or three spines, part of the soft rays of which are extended into threads: the lateral line crenated towards the tip; and two loose spines before the dorsal fin, as in the sea mackerel. This genus is the *Brama Atropus* of Schneider.

ATTA, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order *Hymenoptera*, family *Formicidae*. Generic character; pedicel of the abdomen formed of two knots. Antennae whitely visible; all the palpi very short; the maxillary ones having six distinct articulations. This genus differs in no considerable circumstance, except the shortness of the palpi, from *Myrmica*, which see.

ATTACH, *v.* *Attache*, Ital. *Attacher*, Gall. *Attacher*, Lat. *Attachare*, Latino-barbare. *Taccas Sax. copere*. (Hickes, *Gram. Fr. Theo*)

To take, or touch. To take, to seize, to bind, to fix, or fasten; both literally and metaphorically.

Two blossoms were fasten'd, but in je temper break,
Je godes attached were to je kyng of Cyren Inace.

B. Brune, p. 158.

Quia is *attachit* vult una stult, we see,

May go no further, but will catch at tre.

Douglas Kincaid. The Preface, p. 8.

Hastely shall death *attache* the for their wickedness sake, and quicke shall they droppe into hell with Clove, Dathan, and Ahyrone.

Bale's Image in both Churches, part 3.

The same thine also, Sir Richard Empson knight, and Edmunds Dudley Esquire, gracie counsellors to the late kyng, were *attacked* and brought to the Tower, not to the little revoycing of many persons, whiche, by them were graced, whiche *attacked* was thought to bee procured by malice of them, that with their authoritie in the late kynges daies were offended.

Hall. Henry VIII.

Many greater miracles hest thou done, one that bewrayed more mercy and meekness, than this last cure; of all other, this cure of Malins hath the loudest tongue to blame the praise of thy clemency and goodness to thy very enemies: wherefore came that man, but in a hostile manner to *attache* thee?

Rp. Hall's Contemplations.

First from the park let us conduct them thither,

Then henceward every man *attache* the bond

Of his faire mistress.

Shakespeare's Love's Labour's Lost. Ed. 155.

My father was *attatched*, not *attatched*,

Condemn'd to dye for treason, but no tortor;

Shakespeare's 1st Part King Henry 12. Ed. 161.

The King was greatly mov'd at her speech;

And all with coldish indignation freight,

Rode on that messenger rude hands to reach,

Elbowes on the gird, which on his state did wait,

Attack't that faineur false, and bound him strait.

Spenser's Faerie Queene.

There is no man but is more *attache*d to one particular set or scheme of opinions in philosophy, politics, and religion, than he is to another; I mean if he hath employ'd his thoughts at all about them. The question we should consider, then, is, how come we by these *attachments*. *Mason on Self-Knowledge.*

The *attachment* of the Roman troops to their standards was inspired by the united influences of religion and honour.

Gibbon's Roman Empire.

Xenophon, in his treatise on the Athenian republic, acknowledges that the courts of justice were to be influenced by bribes: that they favoured and saved from punishment those to whom they were *attache*d, and condemned those whom they hated.

Porteus on the beneficial Effects of Christianity. Ap.

Those who are *attache*d to the constitution of this kingdom, will take good care how they are involved with persons, who under the pretext of zeal towards the revolution and constitution, too frequently wander from their true principles.

Boke on the French Revolution.

ATTACHMENT, in Law, apprehension by writ or precept. It differs from an arrest, because he who arrests a man carries him before a superior power to be disposed of, whereas he who *attaches* keeps the party *attache*d and presents him in court on the day assigned in the writ. An arrest is only upon a man's body, an *attachment* is often on his goods.

Attachments are much used in cases of contempt, first, of the King's writs; 2dly, in the face of the court; 3dly, contemptuous words or writings concerning the court; 4thly, contempt of the rules of the court; 5thly, abuse of its processes; 6thly, forgeries and deceptions attempting to impose on it. They are usually granted on a rule to show cause.

Attachment of Goods is a distress upon goods and chattels where a man is sued for personal estate or debt by the legal *attachators* or bailiffs, as security to answer an action.

ATTACK, *v.* *Attack* differently written and applied. *Attack*, so written, does not appear a very odd word in the language; its place was supplied by *Assault*.

To touch, (sc. with force, violence), to assault, begin or commence hostilities.

Nato, who that day
Prodigious power had shewn, and met in arms
No equal, ranging through the dire *attack*
Of fighting Scythians, cool'd his, at length
Saw where the sword of Michael stood.

Milton. Par. Lost, book vi.

Æneas, gone to seek th'Aeneid prince,
Has left the Trojan camp without defence;
And, short of resources there, employs his pains
In parts remote, to rub the Tawcen swains:
Now snatch an hour that favours thy design,
Uste thy lovers and *attack* thy foes.

Dryden's Virgil. Æn. ix.

He (Henry V.) drew up his army on a narrow ground between two woods, which guarded each flank; and he patiently expected in that posture the *attack* of the enemy.

Hume. History of England, p. 161.

When Scipio took Carthage, he ordered his soldiers to *attack* the inhabitants and put them all to death without distinction, and to spare none, according to the custom of the Romans.

Porteus on the beneficial Effects of Christianity. Ap.

Let a man *attache* strive for victory if he be *attache*d, but let him not make war. Since, if two kings fight, both cannot be victors.

Sir William Jones's Holopodion.

ATTAIN, *v.*

ATTAIN, *v.*

ATTAINABLE,

ATTAINABLENESS,

ATTAINMENT,

Fortune him had ennobled so in pride,

That venally he wend he might *attain*

Unto the stars upon every side.

And in a balance seven echs mountaine

And all the floods of the sea restrain.

Chaucer. The Monk's Tale, v. 2. p. 160.

He arms he that will trassemble,
Or elies looses grate *attain*,
His lowe tongue he never restraine,
Whiche breneth of his honour the keie.

Gower. Court. Con. book i.

ATTAIN. ATTAIN.

In whose most perfect works arise craft's apperlyth playes,
That to the least of them there may no mortal hand attayne.

Sorcery.

But God forbid, that any man so lodge of Christe; or thinke
that the grace of his gospel dooth lack any perfection, so that
somewhat the attainment of salvation, we should neede to seek
somewhat out of Moses lewe. *Udal. Galatians, cap. ii.*

A true temper of a quiet and peaceable estate of the soul upon
good grounds can never be attained without the in-operation of
that holy Spirit, from whom every good gift, and every perfect
giving proceedeth. *Sp. Hall's Remedy for Discontent.*

Yet he who reigns while himself, and rules
Passions, desires, and fears, is more a king;
Which every wise and virtuous man attains;
And who attains not, ill aspires to rule
Cities of men, or head-strong multitudes.

Milton. Par. Reg. book ii.

If, for attaining or preserving a small stock of uncertain riches
in this world, we shall reduce ourselves into a state of most un-
comfortable nakedness and poverty in the other; it is clear as the
sun that we are downright fools and madmen.

Barnes's Sermons.

It (industry) sweeteneth our enjoyments, and seasoneth our
attainments with a delightful relish. *Id.*

For tho' a man endeavour never so much to settle himself in
the principles of infidelity, and to persuade his mind that there is
no God, and consequently that there are no rewards to be hoped
for, nor punishments to be feared in another life; yet he can
never attain to a steady and unshaken persuasion of these things.

Tillotson's Sermons.

Ambition is an insatiable folly; when it has attained to the at-
tempt pitch of humane greatness, it soon falls to making preten-
sions upon heaven. *Dryden. Life of Virgil.*

So pleas'd 't first the tow'ring Alps we try,
Mount o'er the heights and mean to tread the sky,
Th' eternal snows appear already past,
And the first clouds and mountains seem the last;
But those attain'd we tremble to survey,
The growing labours of the lengthen'd way.

Pope. Essay on Criticism.

While we are curious in tracing the progress of barbarism we
wonder more that any arts existed, than that they attained no de-
gree of perfection. *Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting.*

Yet there is left attainable by man,
What may survive the grave; it is the frame
Of gen'rous actions; this do you attain.

Gloucester's Athenian, book xxiv.

From the attainment of every desired object the desire is satis-
fied; a man rich in himself, has obtained his object?

Sir Wm. Jones's Hissopadha.

ATTAIN'T, v.

ATTAIN'T, n.

ATTAIN'T, adj.

ATTAINMENT, n.

ATTAINURE, n.

ATTAINDER, n.

Attainder, perhaps from the
Fr. *Teindre*, Lat. *Tingere*, to
stain. Whence *Teint*, Lat.
Tinctus, stained, as we say he is
attainted or tainted of treason,
&c., that is, stained. Minshew.

At his coming he flood of clerks & men of playnt,
And justice of ye lord of falsnes was attynt.

R. Brune, p. 246.

Here sþre was a synour. Jut nevere sþre treuthe.

On Robert two lounge. a freyl at rebe enqueste.

The Fines of Peter Plunkman, p. 400.

The last three which were Powell, Petherstone, and Abell, were
put to death for treason, and in their attainders, in special men-
tion made of their offences, which was for the denying of the
king's supremacy, and affirming that his marriage with the Ladic
Katheryn was good: These with other were the treasons, that
they were attainted of, and suffered death for.

Grafton, vol. ii.

For, Amoret right fearful was and faint
Lest she with blame her honour should attain,
That every word did trouble as she spake,
And every look was coy, and wondrous quaint.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book iv. c. l. 3.

The king did give them all the earles lands there, which now ATTAIN.
were forfeited by vertue of his attainders.

Speed's History of Great Brittain.

ATTAIN-
DER.

A man unto whom nature hath so crowded humours, that his
valour is coust into folly; his folly succeed with discretion;
there is no man hath a vertue, that he hath not a glimpse of,
nor any man as attainted, but he carries some stain of it.

Shakespeare. Troil. and Cress. fol. 79.

Was not thy father, Richard, earl of Cambridge,
For treason executed in our late king's days?
And by his treason, standst not thou attainted,
Corrupted, and exempt from ancient gentry?

Shakespeare. 1st part of King Henry VI. fol. 104.

The question will be, whether these canons for blood were in
use in this kingdom or no? the contrary whereof may appear by
many precedents in R. 3. and H. 7. and the beginning of H. 8.
in which time there were many attainted than since or scarce
before.

Selden's Table Talk.

The strong Umb'd steed beneath his harness faists,

And the same shir'ing sweat his lord attaints

Dryden's Brit. Red.

ATTAINER, from the Latin *attinere*, *stained*,
denotes so immediate legal consequence of judgment
of death, which attaches to the culprit on the instant
that judgment is passed. Attainer in high treason
causes a forfeiture to the crown for ever of all the tri-
tor's estates of inheritance; and of the rents and profits
of all his lands not of inheritance, so long as the estate
which he had in them shall continue. On judgment
of death for all other crimes to which that punish-
ment attaches, the property of which the convict is
seized in fee-simple, is forfeited for his life, and a
year and a day only after his life only: other estates of
freehold for the term of his life only; and his chattel
interests (as estates for years, &c.), absolutely. In
all cases, the forfeiture consequent on attainder, has
relation to the time of the commission of the crime
(treason or felony), and not to that of the attainer.
These effects of judgment of death existed under our
ancient Saxon laws. But there is yet another con-
sequence of attain, arising out of the Feodal system,
introduced with it, and which has survived the major-
ity of its oppressive corollaries. This is technically
called *corruption of blood*; and is a part of the doctrine
of Escheat; whereby, all lands, being supposed to be
held of some lord, reverted to him on failure or defect
of inheritable blood in the tenant. Attainer was
deemed to introduce such defect, or corruption, of
blood, as led to escheat; and, therefore, on judgment
of death, all the estates of the offender revert in the
Feodal lord for ever, without possibility of revocation
by any authority less than an act of the legislature.
Such was the Norman Law. But on its introduction
into this country, the Saxons rules of forfeiture in-
tervened; and by vesting in the King, took away
from the Feodal lord, the estates of inheritance in
cases of treason, for ever; and, in other cases of
attainder, for the periods for which we have seen above
that they vested in the crown; after the expiration of
which they became absolutely vested in the lord, in-
stead of returning into the line of descent from the
culprit. Nor was this all, an attainted person is not
only incapable of inheriting himself, or transmitting
his own possessions to his heirs, but he will be an
obstacle in the course of future descents from his
remotest ancestors to his remotest posterity.

The cruelty and extravagance of this doctrine was
felt very early; and in most, if not all, of the new

n q

ATTAIN-
DER.

ATTASTE.

felonies, created by acts of Parliament, since the reign of Henry VIII., corruption of blood has been saved. By the Vith Ann. chap. 21, all corruption of blood, and the forfeiture for ever of a traitor's estate of inheritance, were to have ceased on the death of the then Pretender; but the legislative policy or panic of the reign of George II., caused a further extension of these vindictive principles of law, to the time of the death of the Pretender's sons. And, by an act of the 39th of the late King, the provisions of the statutes of Anne and of George II. for the future abrogation of these hard consequences of attainder, were repealed, and the law stood in its original severity.

At length, by an act, introduced by Sir Samuel Romilly, in the 54th year of his late Majesty's reign, corruption of blood, and forfeiture beyond the term of the offender's own life were abolished, except in cases of treason, petty treason, and murder; thus, in part, realising the hope expressed by Mr. Justice Blackstone (Comm. b. iv. c. 89). "That as every other oppressive mark of Feudal tenure is happily worn away, corruption of blood, with all its connected consequences, not only of present exchequer, but of future incapacities of inheritance, even to the twentieth generation, may in process of time be abolished by act of Parliament."

The same moderate, candid, and cautious writer enters into and defends the principle of forfeiture of inheritance in cases of high treason, in a passage of his *Commentaries*, (vol. iv. p. 383, 384), too long to be extracted, and too elegant to be mutilated. To it, therefore, we refer our readers, who may wish to satisfy themselves whether the greater severity of the law of forfeiture in treason than in other felonies, be founded on a philosophical, or on a specious and technical distinction.

ATTAIN, a process at common law, whereby a Jury of twenty-four were empowered to inquire whether a former Jury had given a false verdict:—that is, a verdict contrary to evidence; for, where a false verdict was given in point of law, from the misdirection of the judge, the jury were not answerable. It seems that this writ lay, not in criminal, but in civil cases only. See Bushel's case, a leading authority on the powers of juries, reported by Chief Justice Vaughan, p. 164. Originally, a writ of attaint lay only upon the finding of an *Assise*. (See *Assise*.) but subsequent enactments have extended it to all verdicts. The practice, however, of granting new trials, upon motion, has caused this process to fall into entire disuse. The latest instance, as we believe, occurred in a case reported by Croke, in the reign of James I. The punishment at common law was the imprisonment of the attainted jurors, the razing of their houses, and other violent severities; which, by an act of Henry VII. were changed for fine and infamy; so that a juror, convicted on attaint of verdict, could not be admitted as a witness in any future trial. Attaint must be brought during the joint lives of the party against whom the false verdict had been given, and of at least two of the jurors who gave it.

ATTAK, in *Geography*, the largest of the Aleutian Islands.

ATTASTE, i. e., a taste, to taste. See TASTE.

Yes, dame, quod his paramour, he thou not agast;

This is his aw staff thou seyst, therof he shall astast.

The Pardoner and Popsters in Chaucer.

Well, thus did I for want of better wit,
Because my parents naughtily brought me up;
For gentlemen (they said) was nought so fit,
As to attaste by bold attempts the cup
Of conquest wine.

Mr. For Magistrate.

The first day she was attasted with leading & fire, and that the more grievously, because the tormentors were angry, that a woman should set them so light.

Fleur's Instruction of a Christian Woman.

ATTELABUS, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects of the order *Coloptera*, family *Cercuonites*. Generic character; Antennae terminated by a club formed of the three last articulations, and inserted upon the rostrum, which is short, thick, dilated at the extremity; head received into the corselet posteriorly; no obvious neck; thighs terminated by two strong spines. Latreille.

The females of this genus, and of *Apodera*, *Rhynchites*, &c., roll up the leaves of the plant on which the young is destined to feed, in the shape of a trumpet or fauon, in which the eggs were laid, and the larvae are thus furnished at once with food and a safe retreat.

ATTEMPER, v. From the Lat. *Attemperare*, constantly so rendered by Chaucer, in his version of Boethius. To moderate, to regulate, to accommodate.

There male no with so poserte

Attemper thou long to the deserte

Of busynnes by no wise.

For ofte tyme that deserte

The good fortune as the bad.

Gower. Con. Ast. book I.

This hath ever ben seen in all stories. That the emperours and bigges will *attemper*, benche and bowe all religious and helifes into their owne profit and pleasures.

The Expensacion of Devils, by Jape.

The noble and worthy person, that did not slouch away from them, hase left of their ciceriall memory, not wyllyng to learn all onlie one science to *attemper* their understanding with, but also trasualled to learne diuers other, wherewith they sharpened their wittes, to the extent that they shoulde not be dilled and made blent.

Golden Booke.

Repletion re made here never stike;

Attemper diete was all hire phylosy,

And exercise, and hertes saluance.

Chaucer. The Nonnes Preestes Tale, v. li. p. 176.

As wel in gost as body, chast was she:

For which she flourid in virginitee,

With all humilitee and abstinence,

With all attemperance and patience,

With mesure che, of beving and array.

Id. The Doctores Tale, v. l. p. 484.

His *attemperance* it was so greet, and shewed himselfe so lust with one and other, that neither his friends, that agreed with him, were sorrowfull, nor his enemies, for any displeasure, went away complaining and saggy.

Golden Booke.

Also the humilitee of mouth is in foure thinges; in *attemper* speche; in humilitee of speche; and in his confowth with his owne mouth, that he is wisest as he is thought that he is in his bette.

Chaucer. The Paresons Tale, v. li. p. 321.

For goddes love drinke me *attemperly*:

Win maketh man to lesse wretchedly

His mind, and eke his finnes cverich on.

Id. The Semprouses Tale, v. l. p. 307.

A man shoulde love his wif by discrecion, patiently and *attemperly*, and than is she as though it were his mistres.

Id. The Paresons Tale, v. li. p. 363.

There was not as yet, that reflect and contempt of the gods entered into the world, which now reigneth every where and is so vile: neither did men interpret their owne and contrarie lawes, to serve their own purpose, but rather *attemper*, and framed their lives and decaunance thereunto.

Holland's Lory.

ATTASTE
—
ATTEM-
PER.

**ATTEM-
PER,** —
ATTEMPT Though the water being a cold element, the most wise God hath so *attempted* the blood and bodies of fishes in general, that a small degree of heat is sufficient to preserve their due consistency and motion and to maintain life. *Key on the Creation.*

But if any one do use these conclusions for the directing of his practice, and *attempt* his actions accordingly: then do these sciences and conclusions become practical. *Hutton's Mathematical Lectures.*

—Thick as winter-famish'd birds
Perch on the boughs, which icicles encrust,
Yet chirp and flutter in th' *attempting* sun,
There, at the hero's presence, wave their hands.
Glover's Athenaid, book x.
Here feebly form a structure of their own,
And bind the vault of solitary stone;
Or clay, to timber, oft *attempting*, mould,
And round their form the ductile massum fold.
Brookes' Universal Beauty, book vi.

ATTEMPT, v. } Fr. *Attendre*. Lat. *Tento*, from
ATTEMPT, n. } *tentum*, (the past. pret. of *tenco*)
ATTEMPTABLE, } held, tried, examined.
ATTEMPTER, } To try, to put upon trial or
ATTEMPTATIVE, } proof, to essay, to endeavour, to
enterprise, to undertake.

But his horrible cruelty,
That might *attempt* no piece,
Out of thy chamber forth he wente
All full of wrath in his entente,
And took the counsellor in his beris,
That she shall not the death *atteste*.
Gower. Con. Am., book iii.

Thou art his wife; I tell it is for the
For to *attempt* his fassie by request.
Surrey. Armois, book iv.

It is our duty to employ our diligence to this end, that we may *avoyde* the thing we goe about, if God be favourable unto our *attempts*, without whose ayde, mannes endevour is able to bring nothing to effect. *Cal. Hebrews*, cap. vi.

Complaints of this most execrable *attempte* were made, and several oaths to confirm this were offer'd. *Wood. Athen. Oxon.*

A strange *attempte* to the stage
If that thou dost commit,
And darste a personage rascene,
In novell manner sitte;
Marke well, wherwith thou didst begin.
Dread's Horace. The Arte of Poetry,
And king of this great nation, populous,
Stout, valiant, pow'rfull both by sea and land;
attempte, able, trial, venture,
Which joyfully embraces thy command.
Daniel. Panegyric Congratulatory.

This gentleman, at that time reaching (and upon warrant of bloody affirmation) his to be mere false, virtuous, wise, chaste, constant, qualified, and lewse *attempte* than any, the rarest of our ladies in France. *Shakespeare. Cymbeline*, in. 372.

—I am afraid they have *struck'd*,
And 'tis not dour: th' *attempt*, and not the deed,
Confounds us: heere: I lay'd their daggers ready.
Shakespeare. Macbeth, in. 137.

Seek not temptation then, which to avoid
Were better, and most likelie if from me
Then never not: trial will come unsought.
Wouldst thou approve thy constancie, approve
First thy obedience; th' other who can know,
Not seeing thee *attempted*, who attest?

Milton. Par. Lost, book iv.
New ways I must *attempt*, my grovelling name
To raise aloft, and wing my flight to fame.
Dryden's Virgil. Geor. iii.

No man can cozen nature, escaping the labour to which he was born; but rather *attempting* will delude himself; then finding most, when he shunneth all labour. *Barnes's Sermons*.

This is that most illustrious House of Nassau and Orange, which God hath so highly honoured above all the families of the earth, to give a check to two great aspiring monarchies of the West, and bold *attempts* upon the liberties of Europe: to the use in the last age; and to the other in the present. *Philaster's Sermons*.

It is certainly a sign of great self-ignorance, for a man to venture out of his depth, or *attempt* any thing he wants opportunity or capacity to accomplish. *Mason on Self-knowledge*.

Attempting too much will be more likely to mislead, than to improve us. *Steele's Sermons*.

The state that strives for liberty, though foil'd,
And forc'd to abandon what she bravely sought,
Deserves at least applause for her *attempt*,
And pity for her loss. *Cowper. The Task*.

ATTENBOROUGH, in the county of Nottingham, a discharged vicarage, with Broomcote, valued in the King's books at £4. 15s. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 870.

ATTEND,

ATTENDANCE,

ATTENDANT, n.

ATTENDANT, adj.

ATTENDER,

ATTENT,

ATTENTION,

ATTENTIVE,

ATTENTIVELY,

ATTENTIVENESS.

Attends, to stretch to or towards, from *ad* and *tendo*, to stretch.
To stretch, reach, lean or bend to; to wait upon or accompany, to watch or observe, to follow or ensue.

And at the threshold of her chamber door,
The Carthage lords did on the queen *attend*.
Surrey. Armois, book iv.

They are not his lambs but vile pates, that rather *attende*d to the voice of strangers, than to the true shepherd Christ.
Bald's Image in both Churches, part ii.

A man shal winne us best with flatterin;
And with *attendants*, and with business
Ben we ynned both more and lewse.

Chaucer. The Wife of Bathes Tale, v. l. p. 263.

Tell some (in France) how much they love to dance,
While scours dancere, *attendance* at the dore.
Gaucyngs.

This xijth yere, was a parliament holden at Seynt Edmundes Bury in Suffolke, to y^e which towne, all the citizens of that countie were wayeyd to come in theyr moost defencible aray, to gyve *attendance* vpon the hyngre. *Polyan*.

But of the asynthes as thei telle,
In every place where thei dwellle,
Thei ben all *only* observant
As *demagogs* *attendant*
To the goddes, whose service
Thei must obeye in all wise.

Gower. Con. Am. book v.

Farewell deere love whome I have loved and shall,
Both in this world, and in the world to come,
For proofe whereof my spirite in Charon's thrall,
And yet my corpse *attendant* on thy toome. *Gaueigne*.

The disciples being more *attent* and diligent by this lyth chydynge, understode that Jesus meant that they shuld take hede diligetlye, and beware of the doctrine of the Pharisees, which had nothing that was sincere and cleane but was corrupte with ambition, envie, covyse, and other vices: whereas the doctrine of the gospel tasted of no such thyngre. *Cal. St. Mathew*, cap. xli.

But Gabriel exhorteth Daniel to be *attent* that he might in very dede and in expresse wordes understand the visions.
The Expansion of Daniel by Jeye.

My senses all take heed,
And eye my wittes beware
That your *attention* be on hie
And for none other care. *Turberville*.

ATTEND.

While thus he spake, Erminia kneels and smil
His wise discourses heard, with great attention
His speeches graze those idle fancies kill,
Which in her troubled soule bred such dissention.
Fairfax's Trance, book vii.

But still attentive was his longing ear,
If noise of horse, or noise of arms he hear.

Id. 76.

And Cryt himself doth not onely deduce vs into the reading of
this booke (but also commendeth vs attentively to consider of how
weighty and great things Daniel's prophesie teacheth vs.
The Explications of Daniel by Joye.

Seem your admiration for a while
With an attent ear; till I may deliver
Upon the witness of these gentlemen,
This marvel to you.

Shakespeare. *Hamlet*, fo. 155.

One of the prettiest touches of all, and that which ang'd for
mine eyes was, when at the relation of the Queen's death, (with
the manner how she came to't bravely couler'd, and lamented
by the King,) how attentiveness wounded his daughter.

Id. *Winter Tale*, fo. 361.

I heard my selfe proclaim'd,
And by the happy hollow of a tree,
Escap'd the hunt. No port is free, no place
That guard, and most vnusall vigilance
Do's not attend my taking.

Id. *King Lear*, fo. 253.

I had thought
They had parted so much honestly among 'em,
At least good manners, as not thus to suffer
A man of his place, and so nere our favour
To daze attendance on their Lordship's pleasures.

Id. *King Henry VIII.* fo. 228.

But all the while that hee these speeches spent,
Upon his lips long faire Dame Helicon,
With rapt regard, and due attend,
Fashioning worlds of fancies euermore
In her fraile wit.

Spenser's *Faerie Queene*, book iii. c. ix. s. 25.

Some noies, . . . help sleep; as the blowing of the wind, the
trickling of water, humming of bees, soft singing, reading, &c.
The cause is, for that they more in the spiritus a gentle attention;
and whatsoever smooth attention without too much labour stilleth
the natural and discursive motion of the spirits.

Bacon's *Works*, v. l.

All knees to thee shall bow, of them that bid
In heav'n, or earth, or under earth in hell;
When thou attend'st gloriously from heav'n
Shall in the sky appear. *Milton's Par. Lost*, book iii.

He now prepar'd
To speak; whereat their doubt's ranks they bend
From wing to wing, and half inclose him round
With all his Peers: attention held them mute.

Id. book i.

—The words
Attentive, and with more delightful ears,
Divine instructor, I have heard, then when
Cherubic songs by night from neighbouring hills
Aerial music send.

Id. book v.

—Where stand of old
Myriads between two barren mountains hold'd
Against a solemn day, harvest at hand,
Celestial equipage; and now came forth
Spontaneous, for within their spirit liv'd,
Attend on their Lord.

Id. book vii.

Ision seems no more his pains to feel,
But leans attentive on his standing wheel.

Dryden's *Virgil*, *Geor. Iv.*

His leave obtain'd, our natives and we name
And tell th' important cause for which we came.
Attentively he heard us, while we spoke.

Id. *Æn. xi.*

The natural reason of this rule is plain, for two different independent serious discourse the attention and concentration of the audience, and consequently destroy the intention of the poet.
Dryden's Pref. to Troilus and Cressida.

ATTEND.
ATTEND.

As when some great and gracious monarch dies,
Soft whispers first and mournful murmurs rise
Among the sad attendants; then, the sound
Soon gathers voice, and spreads the news around.

Dryden's *Eleonora*.

What is learning but diligent attendance to instructions of mas-
ters, skilful in any knowledge, and conveying their notions to us
in word or writing?

Barrow's *Sermoes*.

He that would know what a man believes, let him attend rather
to what he does than to what he talks.

Tillotson's *Sermoes*.

Whereupon Enchirion . . . beg'd Eugenius to tell us what it
might be, which his attentiveness to the motions of the lark makes
us pronounce he was thinking on.

Boyle's *Meditations*.

His words how charming, affable, and sweet!
How just his remembrance, and how sharp his wit!
How did his charming conversation please,
The blest attenders on his hours of ease.

Duke. *On the Death of Charles II.*

Men should not, indeed, be superstitiously scrupulous; but they
should be conscientiously attentive to their hearts and lives.

Secker's *Sermoes*.

Self-knowledge, implies a due attention to the several relations
in which we stand to our fellow-creatures; and the obligations
that result from thence.

Moses on *Self-knowledge*.

Due attention to the inside of books and due contempt for the
outside, is the proper relation between a man of sense and his
books.

Cotterill's *Letter clxiv.*

ATTENTION, of the mind. See METAPHYSICS.
ATTENUATE, v. } Attenuate, to thin; from ad
ATTENUATE, adj. } and tenuis, thin; (from tendere,
ATTENUATION. } to stretch,) because things
which are stretched or extended, are thereby attenu-
ated or thinned. Vossius.

To thin, to make thin or small, to lessen, weaken,
or impair.

Dry ligges and old, having power to attenuate or make hu-
mours current, make the body scabbe, and do crosse the reynes.
Sir Thomas Elyot. Castel of Heulth.

The evils that come of exercise are, first, that it smother the
spirits more hot and prebony. Secondly, that it doth absorb
humours, and attenuate too much the moisture of the body.

Bacon's *Works*, vol. i. p. 199.

By fire the spirit of the body is first refined, and then emitted,
wherefore the refining or attenuation causeth the light.

Id. p. 269.

Of such concentration too is drink and food,
T' increase, or attenuate the blood.

Dryden's *Trago. of Lucius*.

By the water-temper the account was not regular from attenu-
ation and condensation, whereby the element is altered, the hours
were shorter in hot weather than in cold, and in summer than in winter.

Bacon's *Vulgar Errors*.

ATTENUANTS, in Medicine, such medicines as di-
minish the consistence of the fluid secretions. Water
uncombined is not an attenuant, yet, with almost every
substance which acts as an attenuant water must be
largely combined. Soap, the neutral salts, sweet
fruits, and sugar are attenuants.

ATTEST, v. } Attestor, to witness to, from ad
ATTEST, n. } and testor, to witness; which Vos-
ATTESTATION, } sius thinks is from the Gr. *Attestor*,
ATTESTER. } to put or place a person (sc.) to
see, observe, notice, witness.

To witness, to call upon or invoke as witness, as
one who sees, observes, knows.

ATTEST.
ATTICA.

Fathers, that like so many Alexanders,
Have in those parts from morn till noon fought,
And sheath'd their swords, for lack of argument,
Discontinue not your mothers: now attest,
That those whom you call'd fathers, did beget you.
Shakespeare. Henry V., fo. 37.

Sids yet there is a credence in my heart:
An experiment so obstinately strong,
That doth incur that test (th' attest) of eyes and ears;
As if those organs had deceptive functions,
Created easily to delude us.

Id. Troil. and Cress. fol. 100. c. l.

If chance the radiant sun with farewell sweet
Extend his ev'ning beam, the fields revive,
The birds this note renew, and bleating herds
Attent their joy, that hill and valley rings.

Milton's Par. Lost, book ii.

No sooner had the star brought them within the noise of Jerusalem, then it is vanished out of sight. God would have their eyes lead them so far, as still their tongues might be set on work, to win the vocal attestation of the chief priests and scribes to the fore appointed place of our Saviour's nativity.
Eph. Hall's Contemplations.

That heard the adversary, who eaving still
About the world, at that assembly had
Would not be lost, and with the voice divine
Nigh thunder-struck, th' exalted man to whom
Such high attest was giv'n, awhile survey'd
With wonder. *Milton's Par. Lost, book i.*

So let Latona's double offspring bear,
And double fronted Janus, what I sever;
I touch the sacred altars, touch the flames,
And all those powers attest, and all their names.
Shakespeare's Virg. Æn. xii.

Prodigious actions may as well be done
By waver's issue, as by prince's son.
This arch-attester for the publick good,
By that one deed enables all his blood.

Dryden's Absolon and Achitophel.

This is my beloved Son, in whom I have been well pleased,
was the attestation given from God to our Lord.

Barrow's Sermons.

This, I say, is what deivers can never possibly be supposed to do; for, 'tis very remarkable, the apostles did not lay down their lives for their opinions, (which enthusiasts may possibly be supposed to do) but in attestation to facts of their own knowledge.
Clerke's Works, vol. ii.

The congregation attested the completion of this prophecy of the psalmist, in one branch of it,—in the "grace" which literally, it seems, "was poured upon his lips."
Barrow's Sermons.

There is satisfactory evidence that many, pretending to be original witnesses of the Christian miracles, passed their lives in labours, dangers, and sufferings, voluntarily undertaken and undergone in attestation of the accounts which they delivered, and solely in consequence of their belief of the truth of those accounts; and, that they also submitted, from the same motives, to new rules of conduct.
Paley's Evidences, vol. i.

ATTICA, in *Ancient Geography*, a district of Græcia Propria, bounded on the north by Bœotia and the Euripus, on the west by Megaria, on the south by the Saronic gulph, and on the east by the Ægean sea. Thus it is a sort of triangular peninsula, containing about 560 square miles. The soil is naturally barren and every where mountainous; but it produced harley in abundance, and Aristotle has remarked that the fruits of Attica had a sweetness not to be found in those of other countries. The culture of the olive tree was protected by law: and a fine of 300 drachmæ (above £28. sterling) was paid by any person, who rooted up in his grounds, more than two olive trees in a year, unless for religious uses. The olives called *corymbades* were considered larger in size and richer

in flavour than any produced elsewhere. They still retain their name, and the Grand Signior monopolizes them for his own table. The fig and the vine also were among its celebrated fruits.

The ancient name of Attica was *Atthis*, *Actæa*, or *Actæ*, from its maritime position. The chief mountains were *Hymettus*, near *Athens*, famous for its honey; *Pentelicus*, rich in its quarries of white marble; and *Launium*, near the *Sunian promontory*, celebrated for silver mines. The *Athenian navy* during the *Peloponnesian war* was supported by the revenue arising from these mines, which a wise law proposed by *Themistocles* had appropriated to that service. Latterly the republic let them out to adventurers, who besides a premium for the privilege of working, engaged to pay a twenty-fourth part of their profits to the public treasury. As a bonus, however, the income arising to individuals from these mines was not subject to taxation. The veins of *Launium* had failed in the time of *Strabo*. The other mountains were *Parnethus*, *Icarus*, *Ægialeus*, *Brilessus*, and *Lycabettus*. Its rivers were the *Eridanus*, *Ilissus*, and *Cephissus*.

The city of *Attica*, next in rank to *Athens*, was *Eleusis*. The road between these two cities was dignified by the title of the sacred way; and was nearly four leagues in length. The temple of *Ceres* and *Proserpine* stood on a hill above *Eleusis*. It was built of *Pentelic marble*, in the time of *Pericles*, and no cost was spared to increase its magnificence. Its dimensions were 384 feet by 325. In this temple the famous *Eleusinian mysteries* were celebrated. *Eleusis* is now a miserable village of thirty mud houses.

Ten miles north east of *Athens*, stood the town of *Marathon*, immortalised by the victory gained there by *Miltiades* over the *Persians*. The *Athenians* erected on the plain small columns, on which the names of those warriors who fell in the battle were inscribed. That which was afterwards raised to *Miltiades*, was only distinguished by being set apart a small distance from the rest: and in the intervals between each were placed trophies, bearing the arms of the *Persians*.

Rhamnus was built near the sea, on the south arm of the *Euripus*, seven miles north east of *Marathon*. On a neighbouring eminence stood the temple of *Nemesis*, the goddess of vengeance. Her statue was sculptured by *Phidias*, from a block of *Parian marble*, which the *Persians* had brought thither to assist in erecting a trophy. It was ten cubits high, and was inscribed, not with the name of the artist himself, but with that of his favourite pupil *Agarostus*.

The whole of *Attica* was divided into ten tribes, *φύλαι*; and these again were subdivided into 174 boroughs, *δῆμοι*. The inhabitants were of three classes; 1. Citizens, *πολίται*: the numbers of these underwent little change from the time of *Cecrops*, and averaged about 20,000, who had a right from a certain property, to vote in the general assembly; and about 60,000 others, who were freemen without this privilege. Those sprung from parents both of whom were *Athenian citizens* were considered freemen: though occasionally, as during part of the administration of *Pericles*, who modified the law for the sake of his own natural children, we find the privilege extended to such as had one parent only of this class. The honour was conferred on foreigners by a vote of the people, ratified at two solemn assemblies; at the

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—
ATTICISE.

second of which it was requisite that not less than 6,000 citizens should be present. But no one, except a free born Athenian, could hold an Archonship. 2. Foreigners settled in Attica, and enrolled in the public registers, *patroci*. They were protected by the state; but were not permitted to hold any public office. Each *patroci* selected a citizen as his protector, *epitropos*; who stood to him much in the same relation as the Roman *patronus* did to his *cliens*. They paid an annual tribute to the state, of 12 drachmæ (about nine shillings), and in default of payment they were sold as slaves. Their number (males only) in the time of Demetrius of Phalerum, (307 a. c.) was 10,000. 3. Slaves, *δούλοι*, who who numbered at the same time, amounted to 400,000. All the agricultural, mining and menial labour was performed by them; as well as the greater part of that of the public works, and of private manufactures, even to the workshops of the statuary and the potter. The entire population of ancient Attica may be assumed therefore at about half a million, or nearly 800 to a square mile; which is about one fourth of that of Middlesex, and double that of Lancashire.

ATTIC, any thing belonging to Attica.

ATTIC DIALECT, the dialect used in Attica. In the earliest times of Greece the Attic dialect was almost the same as the Ionic; for the Ionians had inhabited Attica: so that Homer uses many words which afterwards became peculiar to the Attics. In this dialect the laws of Solon were written. By frequent intercourse with the Dorians in the Peloponnese, and the neighbourhood both of Æolians and Dorians in Boeotia and Megara, the Attic gradually departed from the Ionic. The first marked differences were the use of the long *α*, where the Ionians employed *η* after a vowel, or *β*; the contraction of two vowels into one; and the substitution of aspirates for *lenes*. This is the middle Attic, in which the first writer was Gorgias of Leontium. Thucydides, the Tragedians, except in the Choric songs, and Aristophanes employed this dialect. In the later Attic *φ* is used instead of *π*, and *ν* instead of *σ*. Softer forms also prevailed, as *ἔπος*, *ἔπειρ*, for *ἔχθον* *ἔχθισ*; *εἶν* for *εἶν*, &c. Plato, Xenophon, Lysias, and Isocrates, have many of its peculiarities; but Demosthenes and Æschines may be held to write it most purely.

ATTIC STORY, in Architecture, a frontage on the upper part of a story to conceal the roof. No specimen of it exists in the ruins of Athens, though it is said to have derived its name from its use in Attica. It is of frequent occurrence in Roman buildings; pilasters are employed in it instead of columns.

ATTIC HARE, in Architecture, a hare consisting of two Tors and a Scotia. Its proportions are as follows: the two Tors and the Scotia are to be one-third of the diameter of the column, the plinth the remaining two-thirds. The lower Tors and Scotia are equal, and each is to the upper tors as 3 to 2. This hare is applicable in every order except the Tuscan.

ATTICISE, *Atticisere*, to imitate the manner of speaking or writing of the Attic or Athenians.

These while they acted and over acted, among other young scholars, I was a spectator; they thought themselves gallant men, and I thought them fools; they made sport, and I laugh'd; they mis-pronounc'd and I mislaugh'd; and to make up the atticism, they were out, and I lost. *Milton. Apology for Sweetness.*

Now if this be not the comend attical acception of it; yet it will seem agreeable to the meaning of the New Testament, in which whosoever will observe, only good words and phrases which perhaps the Attick purity, perhaps grammar, will not approve of. *Hammond. Sermon 12.*

If any will still excuse the tyrant for atticism in those circumstances, it is hard to deny them the glory of being the faithfullest of his vassals. *Bentley. Dissertation on Phalaris.*

If you will needs be witty, take once more your example from the fine author of The Difficulties and Discouragements, and learn from him the difference between Attic irony and elegance of wit, and your intemperate scurrility and illiberal banter. *Warburton. Divine Legation of Moses demonstrated. Ded.*

ATTIRE, *n.* Skinner thinks *Attire* may be from *ATTIRE*, *n.* the French *Attour*, (head dress), from *ATTIRING*, *v.* *Attourner*, to clothe, to adorn. Spelman thinks that *Attire* is from *Tournier*, to turn, to change. Menage, that the French *Tournier* and the Italian *Tornare*, are from the Latin *Tornus*, and Vossius that *Tornus* is that instrument with which any thing *retrovertitur*, that is, *retulit*, *calatur*. *Teres atque rotundus*. Perhaps all are from the A. S. *Tyrnan*, to turn, bend, wheel or whirle about. And by so turning, to smoothen, to polish. And then generally, to dress or put on dress or clothing; to adorn, to dress or prepare for any thing.

His boue vnder bookes, & newe kalizes made,
And armee & attired booe. *R. Gloucester, p. 547.*

He attired him to battaile with folk just he had.

R. Brunne, p. 22.

What doe ye kyng of France? attire him good manie
Tyle Inglond, ocalance to wynde it with maniere.

Id. p. 297.

Then we began to drewe vs in our gins
That folke shoulde say we were not repurposed
And good wagers among vs there we laid
Which of vs was attired most graciously
And of vs all which should be praised best.

Chaucer. The Awakning of London, fo. 159. c. 4.

But when she was fully arrayed,
And hir a fyre was all summed,
Tho was she fouler vnto see.

Guicci. Com. dm. book 1.

And yet she stode ful low and still alone
Behind other folke in hie beld
And she the dore vnder shewes drede
Simple of ature, and debonaire of there
With full assured looking and manere.

Chaucer. Troilus and Criseyde, book 1. fo. 153. c. 2.

By her attire so bright and shene
Men might perceive well and see
She was not of Religious
Nor I nil make meuous
Nor of robe, nor of treasure
Of bruch, neither of her rich attour.

Id. Rom. of the Rose, fo. 133. c. 2.

Her lord and ladies all this while disioie
Themselves to setten forth to strangers sight;
Some treaures their curied haire in cowardly gear,
Some prauke their ruffes, and others timely sight
Their gay attire; each others greivous pride does spight.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book 1. c. 4. s. 14.

He hath some meaning in his mad attire,
We will persuade him be it possible,
To put on better ere he goe to church.

Shakespeare. Tem. of Shrew, fo. 219.

Sir, Sir, be patient: for my part, I am so attired in wonder, I know not what to say.

Id. Much Ado about Nothing, fo. 115.

The housemen handsomely attired in their green liveries, as though they were children of summer, with stars in their heads to beat the gullies earth. *Selden's Arcadia.*

ATTICISE.
—
ATTIRE.

ATTIRE There is a sort of aps in India, caught by the natives thereof, after this manner: they dress a little boy in his sight, undress him again, leave all the child's apparel behind them in the place, and then depart a competent distance. The ape presently *attireth* himself in the same garments, till the child's cloaths become his chain.

**ATTLE-
BURGH.**

An easy bank near to this place there was
A seat fair Flora us'd to sit upon,
Curling her clear locks in this liquid glass,
Putting her rich gems and attires on,
Fitter than this about us there was none.

Dryden's Legend of Robert Duke of Normandy.

Now hear's in all her glorie shon, and row'd
Her motions, as the great first movers hand
Fiercely whorl this course: earth in her rich attire
Consummate lovely smil'd.

Milton. Par. Lost, book vii.

Now by good heaven
That blushes at my scarted robes, I'll d'off
This womanish attire of golly peace.
And cry, lo there Lord Cardinal of Guise.

Dryden. D. of Guise.

Whose herds with milk, whose fields with bread,
Whose flocks supply him with attire,
Whose trees in summer yield him shade
In winter fire.

Pope. Ode on Solitude.

Behind these mountains arise, in order, Mountains-fell—Carrion—
and Candlebeck—the tops of which we sometimes saw, from the
higher grounds, peering, in their blue attire, over the concave
parts of the browner mountains, which stood nearer the eye.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes.

With his protruded spear her gentle hand
He woundled, piercing through her thin attire
(Ambrosial texture by the Graces wrought)
Her inside wrist, fast by the rosy palm.

Cowper's Task, book v.

Er'ry maiden nest attird
In facet linen, and the youths in vena
Well-woven, glossy as the glass of oil.

Cowper's Task, book xviii.

ATTITLE, used by Gower as we now use *Entitle*.

The twelve moneths of the yere
Attitled under the power
Of these twelve signes stonde.

Gower. Con. Am. book vii.

ATTITUDE, Ital. *Attitudine*. Low Lat. *Aptitudo*.
Lat. *Aptare*, to fit. Generally applied to the position
or gesture fitted for the display of some grace, or
beauty, or other quality of form.

A particular advantage of this attitude, so judiciously assigned
to virtue by ancient masters, is, that it expresses as well her as-
piring effort, or ascent towards the stars of Heaven, as her victory
and superiority over fortune and the world.

Shafsbury. Characteristics.

It would add new terrors to the scene, to see an animal browsing
on the steep of a perpendicular rock; or hanging on the very
edge of a precipitous precipice. Virgil seems to have looked at
these attitudes of terror with delight.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes.

ATTLEBRIDGE, in the county of Norfolk, a dis-
charged vicarage with Alceford; valued in the King's
Books at £4. 6s. 10d. Patrons, the Dean and
Chapter of Norwich. Church dedicated to St. Andrew.
Population in 1811, 93. Poor's rates in 1803, at 7s.
In the pound, £105. 1s. 9d. 4½ miles S. from
Reepham.

ATTLEBURGH, or **ATTLEBOROUGH**, in the coun-
ty of Norfolk, a rectory (Major pars) with Attle-
burgh Minor Pars, valued in the King's Books at
£19. 8s. 9d. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Po-
pulation in 1811, 1413. Poor's rates in 1803, at 4s.

VOL. XVII.

in the pound, £1124. 13s. 9d. 15 miles S.W. from
Norwich: 93½ N.E. from London. Attleburgh (Minor
pars) is a discharged rectory, valued in the King's
books at £8. 2s. 6d. Church dedicated to Holy
Cross. Market on Thursdays.

ATTOCK, (properly Attak, the boundary), a town
on the Indus in lat. 33° 6' N. long. 71° 15' E. It is
a celebrated pass over the Indus, which is here nearly
a mile across, even in the middle of summer. Its
ancient name of Attac Vanarasi or Benares, is still
preserved, but the first part only is commonly used.
It is on the site of the ancient Taxila, and is almost
the only place where the stream is calm enough to
allow of a bridge being thrown over. That is prob-
ably the reason why Alexander, Tamerlane and Nadir
Shah, all crossed the river at that place. (Hemell,
Asiatick Researches; Elphinstone's *Cashmir*.)

ATTOLLENT, *Ad and tollit*, tollens, from *Til-lan*,
Sax. to till, to raise.

All I shall further take notice of, shall be only the exquisite
equilibrium of these opposite and antagonistic masses, effected
partly by the natural posture of the body, and the eye; which is
the case of the *attolent* and deprimment muscles.

Darke. Physico-Therapy, book iv.

ATTORN,

ATTORNEY, v.

ATTORNEY, n.

ATTORNEYSHIP.

Attourner, to turn over or
transfer. A. S. *Tyrann*, to turn.

Thou shouldst have waited upon the attorneys and the clerks,
thou shouldst have runn' loosely by and downe, thou must have
sued for the favour of the judges.

Udal. Mether, cap. 5.

The holy woman Susan held his peace, & overcame his enemies;
for she deflected not his self w' railing of words, nor with
any attorney, but the holy woman her self holding his tongue,
her chastity speaks for him.

Freel's Instructions of a Christian Woman.

Reignier of France, I give thee kindly thanks,
Because this is in trifles of a king.
And yet me thinks I could be well content
To be mine own Attorney in this case.

Shakespeare. 1st part E. Hen. VI. fo. 116.

Your Friar is now your Prince: As I was then
Advertising, and holy to your business,
(Not changing heart with habit.) I am still,
Attorned at your service.

Id. Measures for Measure, fo. 82.

He [David Jenkins] was a person of great abilities in his pro-
fession, and his counsel was often used by Sir Jo. Banks and Will.
Noy in their *Attorneyships*.

Wood. Athene Græcæ.

He [Henry VII.] reigned as an attorney would have reigned;
and would have preferred a conveyance to *Praxiteles*.

Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting.

A government of five hundred country attorneys and obscure
curates is not good for twenty-four millions of men, though it
were chosen by eight and forty millions.

Burke on the French Revolution.

This concept of the usual was expressed by what was called
attorning or *profuming* to become the tenant of the new lord;
which doctrine of attornment was afterwards extended to all leases
for life or years.

Blackstone. Commentaries, vol. ii.

An attorney at law answers to the procurator, or procurator,
of the civilians and canonists. And he is one who is put in the place,
stead or turn of another to manage his matters of law.

Blackstone. Commentaries, vol. iii.

ATTORNEY, in Law, (*alternatus*) one that is ap-
pointed by another man to do any thing in his absence.
An attorney is either public, in the courts, by warrant
from his client; or private, upon any particular
business, by letter. An infant appears by his guardian,
since he cannot constitute an attorney: an idiot for

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**ATTLE-
BURGH**
—
**AT-
TORNEY.**

ATTORNEY.

ATTORNEYMENT.

the same reason must appear in person. Corporations cannot appear otherwise than by attorney, appointed under their great seal.

ATTORNEYS AT LAW, those who are authorised to transact the business of others in courts of law. The attorney is distinguished from the solicitor, who practises in courts of equity. Before 15 Edward I. all attorneys were made by patent under the great seal; but a statute then passed (West ii. cap. 16) which gave all persons liberty to appoint their own attorneys. By 3 Jac. I. c. 7, none are to be admitted attorneys in courts of record but such as have been brought up in the said court, or are well practised and skilled, and of an honest disposition. By 2 George II. c. 93, all attorneys shall be sworn, administered and enrolled, before they are allowed to sue writs in the courts at Westminster; and, after the 1st of December, 1730, none shall be permitted to practise but such as have served a clerkship of four years to an attorney, and they shall be examined, sworn, and admitted in open court. Any person duly admitted a solicitor, may be admitted an attorney, and vice versa. An attorney's bill may be taxed, and if it be reduced a sixth part, he is to pay the costs of taxation. By 34 George III. c. 14, every person bound as clerk to an attorney of the courts at Westminster, pays £100. stamp duty. After admission in one court, no farther duties are required for the others. Nor are farther duties required for new contracts with new masters. An attorney is privileged from being pressed as a soldier, but he may be drawn for the militia. He need not serve any parochial or borough office, against his will. They may sue and be sued only in their own courts. Special bail is not required of them as defendants; as plaintiffs they may demand it. Payment to the attorney is payment to the principal. An attorney has a lien on the money recovered for his client, and he may retain the amount of his bill. Attorneys may be summarily punished by an attachment, or by being struck off the rolls of the court for ill-practice, fraud, or corruption. Sometimes (in order to be called to the bar) they may be struck off the roll on their own application. In this case they must be disbarred by their Inn, before they can be readmitted attorneys.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL, a great law-officer, under the King, made by letters-patent. His duty is to exhibit informations, to prosecute for the Crown in matters criminal; and to file bills in the Exchequer for any thing concerning the king in inheritance or profit. He usually sits within the bar, in the face of the court; but his proper place on solemn occasions is under the judges, on the left hand of the clerk of the Crown. The Queen Consort is entitled to an Attorney-general.

ATTORNMENT, (*attornare*, old French, to turn over to,) under the Feodal system, the assent of a tenant to his lord's alienation of the seignory. This was a right of the tenant, securing him against having his fealty and services transferred to another without his knowledge; and was reciprocal to the obligation cast upon him, of obtaining the lord's consent to any alienation of his own lands. In the eighth year of Edward I., by a statute commonly called "*Quia Emptores*," passed for the purpose of preserving the Feodal profits of lords paramount from being lost by a multitude of subfeudations intervening between them and the tenant in possession, it was enacted, that in all sales of land, the purchaser should be considered as

holding, not of the immediate seller, but of the chief lord of the fee. Hence, where the seller had previously granted a lease, his tenant, being thereby bound to him and persons claiming under him, it was deemed necessary for the purchaser to obtain an attornment of the tenant, in order that the grant to him might be complete. Two subsequent statutes relating to real property, dispensed with the necessity of attornment in particular cases; the statutes of uses (27 Henry VIII.) and of wills (34 and 35 Henry VIII.) the legislature, in those cases, considering the *cestui que use* (see *USE*) and the devise as clothed with the legal possession. An Act of the 4th and 5th of Anne dispensed with the necessity of attornment in all cases; and, to prevent the collusion of tenants with persons setting up claims to their landlord's estates, the legislature, in the 11th of George II. took away also its effect and operation altogether.

ATTRACT, v.

ATTRACT, s.

ATTRACTIBIL'ITY,

ATTRAC'TION,

ATTRACTIVE, s.

ATTRACTIVE, adj.

ATTRACTIVELY,

ATTRACTIVENESS,

ATTRACTOR,

Attraho, I draw to, from
ad, and traho (from trans and
velo, quasi trahere. Vossius.)
I draw.

To draw to; to induce, to
invite, to tempt, to allure.

So the Lady Margaret, Countess of Richmond, brought into a good hope of the procurement of her niece, male Reginald Bray her most faithful servant, chief solicitor and prime procurer of this conspiracy, groying him in charge secretly to enquire and attract such persons of y nobility to joyn with her and take her part as he knewe to be ingenious, faithful, diligent, and of actialitie.

Grafton, vol. II.

Drawn by th' attractive virtue of her eyes,
My toweh'd heart turns it to that lassy coyle;
My joyfull North, where all my fortune lies,
The level of my hopes desired moyle.

Daniel. Sonnet 59.

Attraction is a ministering faculty, which (as a lodestone doth iron) draws ment into the stomach, or as a lump of doth oyle; and this attractive power is very necessary in plants, which suck up moisture by the root, as another mouth, into the sap, as a like stomach.

Barton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

Whom to behold lost their creature's desire,
In whose sight all things joy, with ravishment
Attracted by thy beauty still to gaze.

Milton's Par. Lost, book v.

So spoke our general Mother, and with eyes
Of conjugal attraction unrepent'd,
And meek surrender, half embracing kiss'd
On our first father.

Milton's Par. Lost, book IV.

What charms, that can reverse extent,
And null decrees and exiles?
What magical attracts and frees,
That can redeem from sure graces!

Beller's Heliades.

Which attraction, or tendency (particularly of the lesser bodies to the greater, and most prevaiently the earth) is called their gravity.

Derham's Physico-Theology.

Whom attracts the favour of God, purchaseth a glorious reward, and secureth perpetual felicity to us. Barrow's Sermons.

Allowing those things, which are now usually ascribed to attraction, we shall still be necessitated to own some superior being, whose influence mixes itself with matter, and operates upon it.

Wallston's Religion of Nature.

Some stones are endued with an electrical or attractive virtue.

Key on the Creation.

If the eye be agitated or the body moved either way; it emits the equilibration, and disposes itself into the nearest attractor.

Brown's Falger Errors.

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TION.

But now, (to apply this to the scope of this whole discourse) tho' as pure and spiritual a pleasure is a very allowable attraction to elevate our thoughts to the most glorious and amiable objects; yet it ought to be the design and the effect of our admiration of God, to produce in us worthy ideas, and more honourable and reverent thoughts of that wonderful and unparalleled being

Begin on Pervasion to God.

There were then the same incentives of desire on the one side, the same attractiveness in riches, the same relish in sovereignty,
Smith. Sermons, xiv. 293.

Cato's soul

Shines out in every thing she acts and speaks,
While winning mildness and attractive smiles
Dwell on her looks and with becoming grace
Softens the rigour of her father's virtue.

Addison. Cato, Act I. scene 3.

And what the lead-stone is to the steel, or the sensible good to the appetite, the attractive is to the intelligent nature.

Hales on the Existence of God.

It is, therefore, the first and most obvious use of retirement, to take off our attention from the things of this world, and thereby to destroy for a time, at least, their attractions.

Porteus's Sermons.

ATTRACTION, in Philosophy, is a term employed to denote that power, force, or principle of action, by which every particle or mass of matter has a tendency to approach every other particle or mass. When the attraction is of that kind which connects the particles of a body with each other, and whereby they constitute a solid mass, it is termed cohesion, or the attraction of cohesiveness.

When it takes place between the surfaces of contiguous bodies, whereby they adhere to each other, it is denominated adhesion, or the attraction of adhesion.

When between two distant bodies, by which they have a mutual tendency to approach each other, it is called universal attraction, or the attraction of gravitation.

Of the first two species of attraction little is known beyond that of their actual existence; but, of universal attraction, or gravitation, must or all of the laws are adequately and fully understood; although its cause is still and probably ever will be, one of the hidden mysteries of nature. Besides these species of attraction, which may be considered as appertaining to all material substances, we have other principles of attraction which belong only to certain bodies, or to powers exerted in them. Such are magnetic, electric, and electro-magnetic attractions.

These several powers will be treated of at length in the particular treatises of this work to which they respectively belong; and it will therefore only be necessary for us, in this place, to offer a few observations on the nature of attraction generally, without reference to any specific case.

The term attraction was not unknown to the ancient philosophers; although it was not understood in the same light as it is at present. The phenomena of the loadstone, for example, as far as relate to its action on iron, were of a kind which necessarily gave rise to some notions of such a force, and even the attraction of gravitation was surmised, although very imperfectly stated by astronomers, many years before it assumed its present important character as one of the principal operating powers of nature. Copernicus, for example, in his celebrated work, *de Revol. Orb. Coelest. lib. i. cap. 9*, says, "as for gravity, I consider it nothing more than a certain natural appetite (*appetitus*) that the Creator has impressed upon all the parts of matter, in order to

their uniting or coalescing into a globular form, for their better preservation; and it is probable that the same power is also inherent in the sun, moon, and planets, that those bodies may constantly retain that round form in which we see them." Kepler, also, as we have seen in our history of Astronomy, had formed still more correct and specific ideas of the nature of universal gravitation; and Hooke had yet approached still nearer to the actual principle of action. But, notwithstanding, till Newton published his *Principia*, no specific laws had been advanced whereby the action of attraction as a physical force could be reduced to the dominion of analysis. Newton, however, while he employed the term attraction in common with many other philosophers, very studiously distinguished between his own and their ideas of this power. The attraction of the ancients was conceived to be a kind of quality inherent in certain bodies themselves, and arising from their particular or specific forms. But, attraction according to Newton's idea of it, is a more indefinite principle, denoting not any particular kind or mode of action, nor the physical cause of such action, but only a general tendency, to whatever cause, physical or metaphysical, such an effect he owing; whether to a power inherent in the bodies themselves, or to the impulse of an external agent. He accordingly uses the words attraction, impulse, and propension to the centre, indifferently; and cautions his readers not to imagine, that, by attraction, be expressed, or meant to express the *modus operandi*, or its efficient cause; as if there were any proper powers in the centres, which are in reality only mathematical points, or as if centres could attract. He thus considers centripetal forces as attractions, adding, that what is thus denominated attraction may possibly be effected by impulse, or after some other manner altogether unknown to us. Hence it appears that all which Newton understood or meant to indicate by the term attraction was, that unknown principle by which all bodies, and every particle of bodies had a tendency to approach each other where no mechanical impulse was apparent, and is consequently rather to be understood as expressive of an effect than as being itself the cause of action.

By what mechanical or physical agency a body, or a power of action appertaining to it, can operate upon a distant body, so as to draw the latter towards itself, is perhaps altogether beyond the powers of the human mind to conceive: that a power emanating from a central body, should repel another body from it in the direct line from its action, seems at first sight incomprehensible, although on a closer examination, we might still find the hypothesis equally obscure; but that a force proceeding from one body should draw another body or material particle towards it, is certainly involved in incomprehensible mystery: yet there can be no doubt that an effect tantamount to such an action is actually existing; because, by admitting it, we are enabled to explain all the phenomena which the various celestial and even terrestrial bodies exhibit, by their reciprocal action on each other; and as far as mathematics are concerned, it is all that is requisite to be known; for effects, and not causes, are the subjects of mathematical investigation.

One of the finest demonstrations of the existence of such an action between the different parts of terrestrial bodies on each other is, the experiment which

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some years back was made on the mountain Schehallion, in Scotland; when it was found that the attractive power of this mountain, was such as to deflect the plumb line from its vertical direction about $5\frac{1}{2}$ seconds on each side of it, thereby causing a difference in the zenith distance of the same star, when observed from the opposite stations, (besides that due to the difference of latitude) of rather more than eleven seconds. See our *History and Treatise of PHYSICAL ASTRONOMY*.

We have hitherto spoken only of the existence of such a power as that which we express by the word attraction: but it will be proper, before we conclude this article, to devote a few paragraphs to an indication of its laws. With respect to the attraction of cohesion and adhesion, we have already said that little is known beyond the fact that such forces actually exist; which is rendered manifest by the power requisite to separate the parts of bodies from each other, but is imperceptible at all sensible distances; and so far it must differ essentially from that more universal principle of attraction known by the term gravitation. The law here being such, that the power of one body on another, or on any distant particle, is always proportional to the mass of the attracting body, or to the cube of its diameter in case of a sphere, and inversely as the square of its distance. The simple admission of this law and that of an original and determinate projection of the planetary bodies, have been found sufficient, by the aid of the modern analysis, to explain every known phenomenon of the solar system, at least all such as are dependent on these effects.

In Magnetism the law, as it is dependent on distance, is still the same; that is, it varies universally as the square of the distance, but it is dependent on the surface of the attracting body, and not on its mass, as in the former case. The satisfactory establishment of this unexpected fact we owe to Mr. Barlow, of the Royal Military Academy. See his *Essay on Magnetic Attractions*. In Electricity also the power of attraction varies as the surface of the electrified body.

In the two latter sciences, however, in order to illustrate the various phenomena presented to them, we are under the necessity of admitting the existence of another power; i. e. that of repulsion, which is perhaps still the same force as attraction, but presenting itself in a different form; and these two active principles, or modes of action, are the only two which have hitherto been admitted into the modern philosophy; but a new science, that of Electro-magnetism, renders it now necessary to admit a third force, and one of which, to the present time, we had no idea. The phenomena exhibited in this case are of the most curious and interesting kind, and it has been shown by Mr. Barlow, in a paper read before the Royal Society during the present year, that in order to explain them, we are under the necessity of admitting the existence of a power, which is neither reducible to attraction nor to repulsion, the direction of its action being in all cases tangential; that is to say, instead of drawing the particle on which it acts directly towards the centre of force, or repelling it directly from it, its tendency is to urge that particle at right angles to the line of its direction: at least by the admission of this force, and assuming that it varies inversely as the square of the distance, and that it is reciprocal between the particles on the surface of the two bodies, it is demonstrated that not only all the

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varied and novel phenomena which this science presents, may be explained and illustrated, but that the effects may be computed, and that these computed results agree numerically with observation and experiment. See our *Treatise on ELECTRO-MAGNETISM*.

Capillary Attraction is used to denote that species of attraction which takes place in capillary tubes, when slightly immersed in fluids, the term capillary being derived from the very narrow cavity of this tube, which ought to approach to the fineness of a hair. If such a tube, open at both ends, be held vertically, and its lower end slightly immersed in water, alcohol, or any other fluid that moistens, the liquid will immediately be found to ascend within the tube, and remain there considerably elevated above the surface of that in the vessel. So also, if two plates of glass be brought nearly in contact with each other, and their lower edges dipped in the fluid, this will rise between them, and stand at a greater or less height above the general surface, according to the degree of their proximity. The power by which these phenomena are produced is denominated *capillary attraction*.

The principal phenomena of capillary tubes may be stated as follow:—

If we plunge into water a tube open at both extremities, its interior diameter having a certain extent, the level will still exist the same within as outside the tube; but if the tube be capillary, at the moment of immersion, the water, as we have said above, will shoot forward within it, and will there remain suspended at an altitude very perceptibly above the level of the exterior water; and this effect will be found to increase as tubes of less and less internal diameter are employed. The law of this elevation, as given by experiment, is this, that the same fluid in different homogeneous tubes, will rise to heights which are in the inverse ratio of their diameters. Observation, however, shows at the same time that the heights to which different liquids are elevated in the same tube, are not proportional to the densities of those liquids; alcohol, for example, does not rise so high as water.

Mercury, on the contrary, without particular precautions, is retained below the level, and its depression is in the inverse ratio of the diameter of the tube; but it great care be taken to have both the tube and the mercury perfectly dry, then the mercury will rise the same as the other fluids to which we have referred. Lastly, if the interior of the tube be coated over with a layer of greasy matter, such as oil or tallow, the effects will cease, and the fluid will retain its level. If, instead of employing capillary tubes, we use plates of glass or other matter brought nearly in contact, the same phenomena are exhibited; and, if instead of their being placed parallel to each other, they are inclined at a very acute angle, and if we then plunge them into water, keeping the line of their junction perpendicular to its surface, the water will be seen to rise suddenly between them, and to form a curve which turns its convexity towards the line of junction, and will pass through the extremities of the different heights to which the liquid would be elevated, in proportion as the intervals between the two glass plates diminishes, forming thus the figure of the common conic hyperbola. In an experiment made by Newton with two parallel plates of glass one-hundredth of an inch asunder, the water rose between them to an inch above its general level. It is proper to observe that

ATTRAC-TION. all these effects take place precisely the same when performed in vacuo.

Having thus stated most of the principal phenomena of capillary attraction, it remains for us to say a few words on the theory of its action; a subject which has engaged the attention of many eminent philosophers, without, however, producing much accordance in their resorts or opinions. The theory now more generally admitted, and which indeed is now reduced to calculation, is that of Laplace. This celebrated mathematician has determined by the formula in his celestial mechanics, the action of a fluid mass terminated by a spherical surface, whether concave or convex, upon a fluid column contained in an infinitely narrow canal, coinciding with the axis of that surface. By this action, he means the pressure which the fluid contained in the canal, will exert in virtue of the attraction of the entire mass, upon a plane base situated in the interior of the canal, perpendicularly to its sides, at any sensible distance whatever from the upper surface; this base being assumed for the unit. He shews that this action is smaller when the surface is concave, than when it is plane, and greater when the surface is convex. His analytical expression is composed of two terms, the first of which, much greater than the second, expresses the action of the mass terminated by a plane surface; and he thinks that on this term depends the phenomenon of the adhesion of the bodies to one another, and of the suspension of the mercury in a barometer tube, at an altitude two or three times greater than that which is due to the pressure of the atmosphere; the second term expresses the part of the action due to the sphericity of the surface; and is positive or negative according as the upper surface is convex or concave.

The same author shews, that in both cases this term is inversely as the radius of the spherical surface; whence he deduces this general theorem, "that in all the laws where the attraction is only sensible at insensible distances, the action of the body terminated by a curve surface, upon an interior canal, infinitely narrow and perpendicular to that surface, in any point whatever, is equal to the half sum of the actions upon the same canal of two spheres, which have for radii the greatest and the least radii of curvature of the surface at such points."

The application of these results gives the true cause of the ascension or depression of fluids in capillary tubes in the inverse ratio of the diameters. If by the axis of a tube of glass, we conceive an infinitely narrow canal which turns up a little below the tube, till it comes to the plane and horizontal surface of the water of a vessel, in which the lower extremity of the tube is immersed, the action of the water of the tube upon this canal will be less, by reason of the concavity of its surface, than the action of the water in the vessel upon the same canal; the fluid must therefore rise in the tube to compensate for this difference, and as this is, by what has preceded, in the inverse ratio of the diameter of the tube, the elevation of the fluid above its level must conform to the same ratio.

If the fluid be mercury, its surface in the interior of a glass capillary tube under common circumstances is convex, its action upon the canal is therefore stronger than that of the mercury in the vessel, and the fluid must sink in the tube in proportion to that

difference, and consequently in the inverse ratio of the diameter.

Thus the attraction of capillary tubes has no other influence on the elevation or depression of the fluids which they contain, than as it determines the inclination of the first planes, constituting that part of the upper surface of the interior fluid which is extremely near the sides of the tube; an inclination on which depends the concavity or convexity of that surface and the magnitude of its radius. If by the effect of the friction of the fluid against the sides of the tube, the curvature becomes either augmented or diminished, the capillary effect will be augmented or diminished in the same proportion.

Laplace considers likewise the suspension of fluids between parallel planes extremely near to each other; and finds by his analysis, that a fluid must rise or fall according as the upper cylindrical surface is concave or convex; the elevation or depression conforming to the inverse ratio of the distance of the planes; and that the elevation or depression is equal to that which obtains in a cylindrical tube of which this distance is the interior radius. This result is confirmed by experiments made by M. Hally, at the request of Laplace, and is indeed conformable to the experiments stated by Newton in his *Optics*.

The species of action which we have above illustrated, is perpetually occurring before our eyes; such for example, as the ascent of any fluid through a piece of loaf sugar, in which only its bottom part is slightly immersed. The ascent of water along the branch of a tree which bends down, so as to have its extremity just dipped in the water; the moistening of a heap of sand or sables, which has only its base resting in the water, and various other phenomena of the same kind, are attributable to capillary attraction.

ATTRACTION, for the attraction of dissimilar matter, at insensible distances, see *Affinity*, art. *CHEMISTRY*.

ATTRAP, *Attraper*, Fr. to catch, apprehend, overreach; used as we now use *entrap*. See *TRAP*.

Thel being thereof advertised, departed in great haste toward King Henrys army, but they mete with some that first looked not for, and were *attrapped* or they were wares.

Gesta, v. 2.

But Richard his brother being an expert and politique man, so craftily conveyed, and so wisely ordered himselfe in his stormy tempest, that he was not *attrapped* or they with net or snare.

Gesta, v. 2.

And shall your horse bee *attrapped* and barbed more richly, and better set out with his apparition, than your wife araid is her apparrell.

Holland's Livy. The 34th booke, p. 656.

For, all his armour was like salvage weed
With woody moone bedight, and all his steed
With oaken leaves *attrapt*, that seemed fit
For salvage weight.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book iv. c. 4. s. 39.

ATTRIBUTE, *v.* } *Attribuo*, to appertain to,
ATTRIBUTE, *n.* } from *ad*, and *tribuo*, of un-
ATTRIBUTABLE, } settled Etymology.
ATTRIBUTION, } To give a part or portion,
ATTRIBUTIVE, *n.* } to appertain, to allot, to
ATTRIBUTIVE, *adj.* } ascribe, to impute, to assign.

Now therefore with his manhood in a creature, it cannot have glory which only is appropriated to the godhead. To attribute to his manhood y^e property, which only is appropriated to his godhead, is to confounde both y^e natures in Christ.

St. Thomas's Works, fol. 1121. c. 1.

For Daniel acknowledged the sinnes of the people attributing to God the praise of righteous making; and that he had justly punished them.

The Exposition of Daniel, by Jeyes.

ATTRAC-TION.

ATTRIBUTE.

ATTRIBUTE.

But who soever breaketh promise, then he that is mooste trusted, or who soever deceiveth, then he to whom mooste credence is attributed.

Holl. *Edward IV.*

But, if her heart and her desires

Do answer mine with equal fires,

These attributes are then too poor,—

She is all these, and ten times more.

Thomas Nashe, in *Effie*, v. 3.

Most commonly their titles were wont to be exceeding copious of attributes; with which or the like they now use to over-lad those princes to whom they write.

Selden's *Tales of Honour*, part I. p. 98.

His be the praise, that this stichler's merit wrought,
Who made my hand the organ of his might;
More than good-will to me attribute sought:
For, all I did, I did but as I ought.

Spenser's *Fairie Queene*, book ii. c. l. n. 33.

HOT. Well said, my noble Scot, if speaking truth

In this fine age, were not thought flattery,

Such attributes should the Douglas haue,

As not a souldier of this season's stampe,

Should go so general current through the world.

Shakespeare. 1st Part of *Henry IV.* fol. 65.

Si inaequalibus aequalia addis; omnia erunt inaequalia; in a rade in multitudine; et adde nomen in ethiques concerning attributes justice.

Bacon. On Learning.

Goodness, of all the attributes, by which a man may be stiled, hath chief place and sovereignty.

Hall's *Golden Remains*.

So spoke domestic Adam in his care

And matrimonial love; but Eve, who thought

Less attributed to her faith sincere,

Thus her reply with sweet sweet reuer'd.

Milton. *Par. Lost*, book ii.

God attributes to place

No sanctity, if none be thither brought

By man who there frequent, or therein dwell.

Milton. *Par. Lost*, book xi.

DOLABELLA. —Heav'n has lost

Our sorrow for our sin; and then delights

To pardon erring man; sweet mercy seems

In doing attribute, which limits justice.

Dryden's *All for Love*.

Good heron's, whose darling attribute we find

Is boundless grace, and mercy to mankind,

Altho' the cruel; and the deeds of night

By wondrous ways reveals in open light.

Dryden's *Fables*.

It (goodness) should beget in us hearty love and reverence toward God, in regard to this attribute, so excellent and suitable in itself, so beneficial and advantageous to us.

Burrow's *Sermons*.

Great lord of life, from whom this humble frame

Derives the pow'r to sing thy holy name,

Pardone the lowly muse, whose ardent lay,

Has dar'd thy sacred attributes survey.

Byss. On Glory.

It is a practice much too common in enquiries of this nature, to attribute the cause of feelings, which merely arise from the mechanical structure of our bodies, or from the natural frame and constitution of our minds, to certain conclusions of the reasoning faculty.

Burke on the Sublime and Beautiful.

Harris classes verbs, participles, and adjectives together under one head, viz.: attributes. Harris should have called them either attributes or attributables, but having terminated the names of the three other classes; substantive, definitive, connective, in *see*; he judged it more regular to terminate this class also in *see*; having no notion whatever that all common terminations have a meaning.

Tooke's *Discourse of Purvey*, v. ii. p. 428.

ATTRIBUTES of God, the qualities and perfection which we conceive as forming his essence, as power, justice, wisdom, &c. See THEOLOGY.

ATTRITE, } *Attira, attritum*, to rub against, and *Attitru*.
Attrition, } and *terro*, I rub.

Rubbed against, worn by rubbing. bruised. The usage of these words by Roman Catholic divines is sufficiently explained in the examples subjoined.

Contrition and repentance are both one and nothing else but a sorrowful and a mourning hart. And because that God hath promised mercy unto a contrite hart, that is, to a sorrowful and repenting hart, they to beguile God's word and to establish their wicked tradition, have fayned that new word *attrition*, saying: thou canst not know whether thy sorrow or repentance be contrition or attrition, except thou be shrewd. When thou art shrewd, that is the true contrition. Oh fury Pharisee, that is thy lure, of which Christ so diligently had to beware.

The Whole Works of Wm. Tyndale, fol. 148. c. ii.

I do not, with some camists, flatter thee with an opinion of the sufficiency of any slight attrition, and empty wishes that thou hadst not sinned.

By Hall's *Beats of Guilt*.

What we were three of the grain, but for the edge of the sickle, wherewith it is cut down; the stroke of the flail, wherewith it is beaten; the weight and attrition of the mill wherewith it is crushed; the fire of the oven wherewith it is baked?

By Hall's *Contemplations*.

Considering thirdly and lastly, that if they did not with contrition, yet it is very probable they may die with attrition; and that this pretence of yours, that contrition will serve without actual confession, but attrition will not, is but a sleight or fancy, or rather to give it the true name, a device of your own, to serve ends and purposes; God having no where declared himself, but that whosoever he will accept of that repentance, which you are pleased to call contrition, he will accept of that which you call attrition.

Chillingworth's Works, fol. 55. c. i.

For instance; that after the long course of a most lewd and fugitious life, a man may be reconciled to God, and have his sins forgiven at the last judgment, upon confession of them to the priest, with that imperfect degree of contrition for them, which they call attrition, together with the absolution of the priest. Now attrition is a trouble for sin, merely for fear of the punishment of it.

Tillotson's Works, v. ii. p. 45.

From these premises it follows, that if the priest can absolve him that is attrite, he may pardon him who hath affection to sin still remaining; that is, one who fears hell, but does not love God.

Taylor's *Polemical Discourses*.

Though the horse-shoe I have taken up have not been consumed upon the account of travelling, it has been extra up by rust, which wastes it as much as attrition would have done.

Bryce's *Occasional Reflections*.

ATTENTION, the rubbing of bodies against each other by which their superficial particles are worn away. Grinding and polishing are performed by Attention. For its various effects see the separate articles of ELECTRICITY, FIRE, HEAT, LIGHT.

ATTRY, A. S. *Ætran*, to poison. (Perhaps for Attr or Adder. See ADDER.) Applied to virulent anger.

Then cometh also of ire *attrer* anger, wha a man is sharply amounted in his shrift to leave his sinne, than he wol be angry, and answerer hokery and anger, to defend or excoise his sinne by unselffastness of his finke.

Chaucer. The Persones Tale, v. ii. p. 332.

The kyle made moche to done,
For ache fild both cloth and cop;
Nathies that is are gadered 7p.
Swithe sore ache him attrid;
Cortes, he was wel loel i paid.

The Seven Sages in Webster, v. iii.

ATTUNE, to tune, or set to a tune. See TUNE.

And then before, the fry of children young
Their wooten sports shibboleth with child play,
And to the maidens sounding tymbrels sang,
In well attuned notes, a joyous lay.

Spenser's *Fairie Queene*, book i. c. xii. a. 7.

AT-
WAINE.
—
ATURAS.

His muse, by nature form'd to please the fair,
Or sing of heroes with majestic air,
To melting strains attun'd her voice, and strove,
To waken all the tender powers of love.

Poison. To Lady Conradish Herby.

He said, and lightly touch'd his warbling lute,
Like fountain rilling, or mellifluous voice
Of birds, a soft and lulling flow attun'd
The ambient air.

Gloucester's Attended, book ii.

Th' ethereal glow that stimulates thy frame,
When all th' according powers harmonious move,
And wake to energy each social aim,
Attuned spontaneous to the will of Jove;
Be these, O man, the triumphs of thy soul.

Brutic. Judgment of Paris.

ATWATNE, } In twain, in two. Gothic, *twos*,
ATWEN, }
ATWAT, }
ATWA. }

And when he was withlooe, & fault as a wilde leon,
He fondred jo Sarasin stryane, & fault as a dragon.
R. Branne, p. 183.

Thy wif and thoo moote hangen for a-twaine,
For that detestoun ye shal be so sinne,
No more in lokynge than they shal in dede.
Chaucer. The Millers Tale, v. l. p. 141.

But trouble it is, as synnethen Gaultre, and other, that after
the dedes of Sarasin, stryfe arose attwene the Brytton and the
Romanys, thesre beynge within the londe of Brytayne.
Fabyen.

Jo heo to helle com, þat so longe a two were,
With hem was so greet deyth, þat bitwene hem þere
His grete was þe helle hooy, þat ever was in þis londe,
þat cur Arthure þe oolde man, þat cur wof vnderstunde.
R. Gloucester, p. 159.

Hise thoughte hire curred herte brast a-twain;
She wolde not that hire aow had so;
Chaucer. The Men of Lawes Tale, v. l. p. 206.

The lady moorned and was full woo,
And thought þat hert wold brent a-two.
The Life of Ispoyndon, in Webber, v. l.

And Jherus gaf out a greet cry and diiede. And this reyl of the
temple was torent a two fro the higheste to bythe.
Wiclif. Mark c. xv.

And with that word he gan sigh as sore,
Like as his hert rice wold a-twaine
And lerd his pece, and speke so mare.
Chaucer. The Complaint of the Black Knight, fol. 276. c. iv.

Sir Mirth her by the finger lade
Daunste, and shew him also
Greet loue was a-twain hem two.

Chaucer. Rom. of the Rose, fol. 120. c. li.

Welcome my swete, also, the stev of my welfare,
Thy presence bringeth forth a true a-twain me, and my care.
Surry.

The letters eke, that she of old time
Had him sent, be wold alone rede
As hainful with, a-twain none and prime
Refuging byr shape.

Chaucer. Troilus and Criseide, book v. fol. 167. c. iii.

Here takes them to the, and dispatch that which thy frowles
sorechew may be done; than in the report goeth, without more
shoe, he cut the whetstone quite a-twain.

Holland's Liby.

With that an hideous storm of wind arose
With dreadful thunder and lightning a-twain,
And an earthquake, as if it straight wold loose,
That world's foundations from its centre fist.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book ii. c. xli. a. 2.

ATURES, falls of three catenacts at a small dis-
tance from each other in the river Orinoco, about a
hundred miles from its mouth.

ATWICK, in the East Riding, county of York, a
discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at
£4. 7s. 11d. Patron, the King. Church dedicated
to St. Laurence. Population in 1801, including the
townships of Arran and Skirlington, 368. Poor's rates
in 1803, at 1s. 4½d. in the pound, £115. 4s. 6d.; 13
miles N.E. from Beverly.

ATYCHIA, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the
order Lepidoptera, family Zygenids. Generic charac-
ter: palpi rising considerably beyond the clypeus,
anteriorly very hirsute with long hairs, wings short;
posterior tibia with scales and elongated spurs.
Latreille.

ATYPUS, in Zoology, a genus of the class Arachnides,
order Acera, family Araneides. Generic character:
eyes on each side geminate; labium inserted under
the base of the maxillae; very small, quadrate; palpi
placed at the base of the external dilatation of the
maxillae.

Atypus Sulzeri has been found in this country by
Dr. Leach. This spider inhabits turf decedities,
where it forms a deep cylindrical excavation, seven or
eight inches long; in this it weaves a kind of funnel
of white silk of the same dimensions. The cocoon
in which the eggs are deposited, is fixed at the bottom
of this cavity by means of threads attached to each
end.

ATYS, in Mythology, a shepherd of Phrygia, of
whom Cybele became enamoured. She exacted from
him a vow of celibacy, and intrusted him with the
care of her temple. The Goddess enraged at his viola-
tion of this vow, by an amour with the Nymph
Sangaris, inflamed him with a paroxysm of delirium,
during which he castrated himself. The most spirited
Poem of Catullus is a lamentation of Atys. Pausanias
(Achaica xvii), relates a different story from the above,
to which we must refer the reader. Ovid (Metam. x),
adds that Cybele changed Atys into a pine-tree at the
moment in which he was about to commit suicide.

AVA, properly Anawa, a town in the Berman
Empire, four miles west of Amansapura, the metropolis.
It is in lat. 21° 51' N., and long. 95° 58' E. It was
formerly the capital but is now in ruins; two large
temples still remain, in one of which there is an image
of (Gautama, (Gautama) or Buddha, 24 feet in
height, and 10 feet across the breast. There are also
the reliques of many other temples in decay; and
there cannot be a more striking picture of ruin and
desolation than the whole city presents. (See Berman
Empire and Synes's Embassy. At. Res. v. iii. vi. 163.)

AVACHA (AWACHA), a large river, in the Penin-
sula of Kamchatka, falling after a course of 90 miles
from west to east, into a bay which bears the same
name. Its mouth is rather narrow, but deep enough
to admit ships of the greatest burden, and abounding
in good anchorage; the best of which is the harbour
of St. Peter and St. Paul. On the north side of the
bay is the Volcano of Avacha, which constantly
smokes, though it has had no considerable eruption
since 1734, and that only lasted twenty-four hours.
A small town called the Avachinski Ostrog was begun
in 1740; it is in a tolerably flourishing state, and
principally supported by the trade in beaver skins.
Those animals are more abundant here than at Bols-
heretsk; but the water is bad, and there is a great
dearth of wood. Lat. 53° 51' 45" N. 158° 52' 15" E.
(Petri in Ersch's Encycl.)

ATWICK.
—
AVACHA.

AVAIL.

AVAIL, v.

AVA'IL, n.

AVA'ILABLE,

AVA'ILABleness,

To be well, able, strong, efficacious; to have force or effect, influence or power; to serve or assist.

Here now of Jo' Bruu, how he Daniel can make,
With word just was true, if it not out avail.

A. Brauer, p. 116.

But nathless, if this may done phalano,

To any lower, and his cause avail.

Have he my thanks, and mine be the trouble.

Chaucer. *Tristram and Criseide*, book l. fol. 152. c. ii.

And once this thou shalt eke see,

That if thou of the note fail,

There shall none other thyng avail,

That thou ne shalt thy deth receive.

Geoffr. *Con. Art.* book l.

Now ich see nable Lof, just surgerie ne phalano

Nof nat a myte avail, to merica agens eide.

The *Faint of Peter Pluckman*, p. 401.

Fickell treasure, abhorred of reason:

Dangerous to deal with, value, of none avail.

Surrey.

Nay my Cousyn saye, there wylke you somewhat wile: for
they you defende your owne righte for your temporal avails.

Sir Tho. More's *Works*, fol. 1151. c. ii.

Such was the deerved wyl of the father, that Christ should
suffer these paynes for our offences; and he shewed himself
willingly obedient in all thyngs, not shryking in any condition
to shyde what so euer was assigned to our saluacyon.

Udall. *Philippians*, c. ii.

They receyved also the custome to halowe and consecrate
Rygnes on Good Friday, which were reputed good and availeable
against the crampe.

Grafton, v. l.

Ye seeme to grue vs secretly to vnderstande, that Christia
preiers were availeable for the Pope, to keepe him from error, not
in the church, or pulpit, or closet, or any other common, or
private place, but only in the consistorie and counsell, in debail-
lings doubtful cases of religion.

Jauch's *Defence of the Apologie*.

And all the honors that can flye from vs,

Shall on them settle: you know your places well,

When better fall, for your avails they fall.

Shakespeare. *All's well*, fo. 241.

But prayer against his absolute decree

No more avail then breath against the wind,

Blows stifling back on him that breaths it forth.

Milton's *Par. Lost*, book xi.

For sure I am, unless I win in arms,

To stand excluded from Euclid's charms:

Not can my strength avail, unless by thee

Endu'd with force, I gain the victory.

Dryden's *Fables*.

We are to offer up all our devotions in the name of Christ, and
for his sake must implore all mercies and blessings from God;
which how can we do seriously and with faith, if we may reason-
ably question whether Christ's merits do respect us, and conse-
quently whether they can be available in our behalf?

Barrow's *Sermons*.

If we do sincerely endeavour to please God, and to keep his
commandments in the general course of a holy and virtuous life,
the merit of Christ's perfect obedience and sufferings will be
available with God for the acceptance of our sinners through
imperfect obedience.

Tillotson's *Sermons*.

'Ah! what ead his plume, varying dies,

His purple crest, and scarlet-cleaved eyes,

The vivid green his shining plumes unfold,

His palated wings, and breast that flutes with gold?

Pope. *Windsor Forest*, v. l. p. 44.

The availableness of harmony to promote a pious disposition of
mind will appear, from the great influence it naturally has on the
passions.

Atterbury. *Sermon* ix.

If, then, arither Scripture nor experience teach us, that re-
pentance alone will avail for our pardon with God, does the light
of nature assure us that it will?

Porteus's *Sermons*.

—If neither trench or wall

Constructed with such labor, and support'd

Of strength to guard imperiously secure

Our navy and ourselves, avail us naught,

It became Almighty Jove hath will'd,

That the Achæan host should perish here

Injurious.

Cowper. *Lines* xiv.

AVAIL, (AWAL) the chief of the Bahrein Islands,

lat. 26° 45' N. long. 48° 56' E. (See BAHREIN.)

AVALANCHES, the name given to those immense

masses of snow which are precipitated from the Alps,

and often overwhelm whole villages in their destruc-

tive course. When the snow begins to melt by the

heat of summer, the water which is produced, in its

attempt to run off below, destroys the adhesion be-

tween the snow and the earth, and a new snow, fall-

ing upon the old and almost detached mass, increases

the weight and determines its fall. In 1719, an

avalanche from a neighboring glacier overpaved the

greater part of the houses and baths at Leuk, and

destroyed a considerable number of the inhabitants.

In 1760-70, an avalanche produced by the immense

quantity of snow which had fallen during the winter,

rolled down upon the pastures on the mountain of

Sixt in the Alps, when the impulse was so great, that

it levelled with the ground a forest of beeches and fir

which covered the declivity of the mountain, stopped

the course of the river Gipe, which runs through the

subject valley, and overthrew a number of trees

and barns on the opposite shore of the stream. In

August, 1820, two gentlemen from Oxford, Mr.

Dornford, fellow of Oriel, and Mr. Henderson, fellow

of Bruennose College, set out in company with Dr.

Hamel and M. Selligie, (who abandoned the enter-

prize at the end of the second day) attended by twelve

guides, to ascend Mont Blanc. They encountered the

greatest danger, attended, indeed, with destruction

to three of the party, from an avalanche. When

within four hundred yards of the summit of this

interesting mountain the snow suddenly gave way

beneath them, and carried them all within a few

paces of an immense crevasse. Our readers will like

to read an account of this moment of danger in Mr.

Dornford's own words:—"The difficulty of breath-

ing gradually increasing and our thirst being inces-

sant; I was obliged to stop half a minute to arrange

my veil, in this interval my companion H. and three

of the guides passed me, so that I was now the sixth

in the line, and of course the centre man. H. was

next before me, and as it was the first time we had

been so circumstanced during the whole morning, he

remarked it, and said we ought to have one guide at

least between us, in case of accident. This I over-

ruled, by referring him to the absence of all appear-

ance of danger at that part of our march, to which he

ascended. I did not attempt to recover my place

in front, though the wish more than once crossed my

mind; finding, perhaps, that my present one was

much less laborious. To this apparently trivial cir-

cumstance I was indebted for my life. A few minutes

after the above conversation, my veil being still up,

and my eyes turned at intervals towards the summit

of the mountain which was on the right, as we were

crossing obliquely the long slope, which was to

conduct us to Mount Maudit, the snow suddenly gave

AVAIL.

—

AVA-

LANCHES

—

AVA-
LANCHES

way beneath our feet, beginning at the head of the line, and carried us all down the slope to our left. I was thrown instantly off my feet, but was still on my knees, and endeavouring to regain my footing, when, in a few seconds, the snow on our right, which was of course above us, rushed into the gap thus suddenly made, and completed the catastrophe, by burying us all at once in its mass, and hurrying us downwards towards two crevasses about a furlong below us, and nearly parallel to the line of our march. The accumulation of snow instantly threw me backwards, and I was carried down in spite of all my struggles. In less than a minute I emerged, partly from my own exertions, and partly because the velocity of the falling mass had subsided from its own friction. I was obliged to resign my pole in the struggle, feeling it forced out of my hand: a short time afterwards I found it on the very brink of the crevasse. At the moment of my emerging, I was so far from being alive to the danger of our situations that, on seeing my two companions at some distance below me, up to the waist in snow, and sitting motionless and silent, a jest was rising to my lips, till a second glance shewed me, that with the exception of Mathieu Balmat, they were the only remnants of the party visible. Two more, however, being those in the interval between myself and the rear of the party, having quickly re-appeared, I was still inclined to treat the affair rather as a perplexing, though ludicrous delay, to having sent us down so many hundred feet lower, than in the light of a serious accident, when Mathieu Balmat cried out that some of the party were lost, and pointed to the crevasse, which had hitherto escaped our notice, into which, he said, they had fallen. A nearer view convinced us all of the sad truth. The three front guides being where the slope was somewhat steeper, had been carried down with greater rapidity and to a greater distance, and had thus been carried into the crevasse, with an immense mass of snow upon them, which rose nearly to the brink. Balmat, who was fourth in the line, being a man of great muscular strength, as well as presence of mind, had suddenly thrust his pole into the firm snow beneath, when he felt himself going, which certainly checked, in some measure, the force of his fall. Our two hindmost guides were also missing, but we were soon gladdened by seeing them make their appearance, and cheered them with loud and repeated hurrahs. One of these had been carried into the crevasse, where it was very narrow, and had been thrown with some violence against the opposite brink. He contrived to scramble out without assistance, at the expense of a trilling cut on the chin. The other had been dragged out by his companions, quite senseless and nearly black from the weight of snow which had been upon him. In a short time, however, he recovered. It was long before we could convince ourselves that the others were past hope, and we exhausted ourselves fruitlessly for some time, in fathoming the loose snow with our poles. When the sad truth burst upon us, our feelings may perhaps be conceived, but cannot be expressed. Such is Mr. Dornford's account of this calamitous adventure. The survivors did not pursue the attempt, but after every endeavour, although fruitless, to recover their lost companions, abandoned the enterprise, and returned to Chamounix.

VOL. XVIII.

AVALE, Fr. *Avallier*, to let, put, lay, cast, fell down, to let fall down. Cotgrave. Barb. Lat. *Avallare*: which, according to Menage, is from *ad* and *vallus*, a valley; as *Montes* is formed from *mons*, *Montis*. But in the German, we have *Fallen*; in the Dutch, *Fallen*; in the A. S. *Fellan*, *Afallan*, to fall. And Skinner is of opinion that the French, *Avallier*, is of German origin.

Itk *avallier* his helme, and to coneele drove.

R. Branne, p. 97.

The Miller that for-drooken was all pale,
So that woethen upon his hors he sat.
He told *avallier* neither hood ne hat.

Chaucer. *The Miller's prologue*, v. l. p. 123.

The best snow with her horses pale
Sourous and Jowr, in Cancro *ignow* were
That such a raise from heaven gun *avallie*
That every maner woman that was there
Had of that smoky raise a very kerre.

Id. *Travels and Conquests*, book iii. fo. 170. c. 1.

When then this strange rascall sigh
Com in, and bath his smile *avallie*,
The towne thereof hath spoken and taled.

Gower. *Con. Ast. book viii.*

All suddenly her fresh and roven hue
Full oft-time gun changen and rewe,
An hundred sicken in a little space.
For now, the bloude from her goodly face
Unto her heart unwarily gun *avallie*:
And therewithal she waxeth dead and pale.

Lydgate's Troy, in Ellis, v. 1.

And often it hath befellen, that some of the Jews has gon up the Mountaynes, and *avallied* down to the vales: but gret nombre of folk is sayd not to do so.
Sir John Mandeville.

They rather march: but when they come in sight,
And from their ready couriers *avall* away,
They found the gates fast barred long ere night.
Spenser's *Fairie Queene*, b. ii. c. ix. s. 10.

AVANCE, AVANT, see AVANCE.

AVANTAGE, see ADVANTAGE.

AVANTURINE, in *Mineralogy*, a variety of common quartz, containing a number of minute fissures, or sometimes crystals of mica. These lie in parallel, or nearly parallel planes: so that when the stone is cut into a doubly convex figure, the imaginary plane of junction of the two spherical segments being parallel to the planes in which the fissures lie, a play of light is produced on the surface of the stone. The most beautiful varieties have been found in Spain, and are sometimes used as ornaments in rings or brooches.

AVARES; one of the predatory tribes, northward of Asia Minor, who made great ravages in the Eastern Empire. There is still, on the banks of the Kádjú, in Lezgiania, and on the eastern side of Mount Caucasus, a tribe called Aor or Avár, which signifies man, in the ancient Scythian language, and their country is called Khun-zag, or abode of the Khuns, in Georgian. The language of this people is a peculiar one, but has an affinity with several others used in the neighbouring districts. They are a courageous warlike people; and their chief, the Avár Khán is much courted by the Russians. He was raised to the rank of a Lieut.-General, with a pension of 10,000 silver rubles (s. 20000) in 1807. He can bring 20,000 men into the field, and his dependant khán 10,000 more. It is not improbable that these Avárs may be the same tribe as that mentioned above, whose gigantic stature and ferocious manners are so feelingly described by the Byzantine historians. They forced their way through the Slavonian and Greek territories, to the banks of the Danube, where they ap-

AVALE.
AVARES.

AVARES. peared for the first time, A. D. 560. They established themselves at Sirmium, and in the Upper Hungary; but their riches, the splendid court of their princes, and their alliance with Thasilo, chief of the Bail, alarmed Charlemagne, and in A. D. 803, he attacked them in person, and drove them out of their possessions. Some of them were removed into Carinthia, and others dispersed through the countries then newly added to the kingdom of Hungary. They have been also conjectured to be the Aorni, or Adorai, of Strabo. (Strabo. Pliny, iv. vi. Kummel's *Caucas. Region*, Klaproth's *Reise in Kaukasus*, ii.)

AVARICE, } *Avaritia, Avarus*; from *Avo*,
AVARICIOUS, } *avere*, to covet or desire. Of
AVARICIOUSLY, } unsettled etymology.
AVAROUS, } Covetousness, greediness, eager
 desire; stinginess, niggardliness.

Avarice, after the description of Saint Augustine, is a likemessness in her to have earthly things. Some other folk say, that *avarice* is for to purchase many earthly things, and nothing to give to him that has none. Sothly, this *avarice* is a sinne that is ful dampnable, for all holy writ curreth it, and speaketh against it, for it doth wrong to Jeou Crist; for it berereth him the love that men to him owe, and turemeth it backward against all reuon, and maketh that the *avaricious* man hath more hope in his cust than in Jeou Crist, and doth more obseruance in keeping of his treasure, than he doth in the service of Jeou Crist. And, therefore, sayth Saint Paul—That an *avaricious* man is the thraldome of Molatire. *Chaucer. The Prioress Tale*, v. li. p. 350.

But *avarice* nethels,
 If he maie gotten his euices
 Of gylde, that woulde he serue and kepe,
 For he taketh of naught eke hope,
 But for to fylle his bagges large.

Guic. Con. Am. book v.

Let all covetous and *avaricious* people know, that never among noble men was gotten good renowne with spreading abroad of ill gotten goods. *Golden Book.*

But father I herde you say,
 How the *avaricious* both yet some way
 Whereof he maie be glad. For hee
 Maie, when hym list, his treasure see,
 And gape, and fele it all aboute.

Guic. Con. Am. book v.

Arre none hardier ne honnyrour. Jus men of holy church
Avarous and jvile willid wenne thei bea *avarous*
 And unkynde to our hynde.

The Vision of Pierre Plouman, p. 22.

And greely *avarous* by him did ride,
 Vpon a cartell loaden all with gold;
 Two iron colfers hung on either side,
 With precious metall, full as they might hold,
 And in his lap a bosome of coine he told.

Spenser's Faerie Queene, book i. c. iv. a. 27.

Now, as all virtues keep the middle line,
 Yet somewhat more to one extreme incline,
 Such was her soul; abhorring *avarice*,
 Bounteous, but, almost bounteous to a vice

Dryden's Eleonora.

"But why all this of *avarice*? I have none."
 I wish you joy, Sir, of a tyrant gone,
 But does no other lord it at this hour,
 As would and need? The *avarice* of power?

Pope. Imitations of Horace.

Avarice is the passion of inferior natures: money the pay of the common herd. *Goldsmith, on the state of Politic Learning.*

Your *avaricious* money-getting man is generally a character of wonderful discretion.

"Still however," said Aem. "the inhabitants must be happy; each is contented with his own possessions, nor *avariciously* endeavours to lump up more than is necessary for his own subsistence: each has therefore leisure for pitying those, that stand in need of compassion."

Goldsmith's Essays.

AVAST; when used by seamen, always precedes some orders, or some conversation. It answers the same purpose as—Harkye, list, attend, take heed, bold. Like the Ital. *Avveci*, I think it means—be attentive, be on the watch, i. e. Awake. Tooke, ii. 367.

AVATAR; in *Hindu Mythology*, an incarnation of the Deity. Such descents in a human form are believed by the Hindus to have occurred without number; but ten are peculiarly distinguished, and four of them are the subjects of Purānas, or sacred poems. These ten are incarnations of Vishnú, the Supreme God, in his character of preserver. Nine of them are believed to be past, and the tenth is yet to come.

The first is the *Mataya Avatár*, or descent of the deity in the form of a fish. Of what species this fish was, the sages have not determined; but Vishnú's object was the recovery of the holy Vedas from the ocean, in which they remained after one of the periodical dissolutions of the universe.

The second is the *Kachyapa*, or *Kúrama Avatár*, in which the same god appeared in the form of a tortoise, in order to sustain and give stability to the newly created earth.

The third is the *Vardha Avatár*, when he appeared in the shape of a boar and plunging into the waters which had overwhelmed the earth, in one of its periodical destructions, fixed his tusks in it and drew it up.

The fourth is the *Nara-singha*, or *man-lion Avatár*. *Kasyapa*, one of the descendants of *Daksha*, the first created man, had two wives, whose characters, to judge from their children, were very different, for one produced the gods and the other the giants. Among the latter were two *Hiranyaksha* and *Hiranyakasipu*, who it seems stole a march on *Brahma*, and almost compelled him, by dint of their assterities, to grant what he had no mind to give them—immortality. Their strength was already quite terrific, so that to give it an endless duration was more than the god thought prudent. However, he could not resist the claim of assterities practised for some thousands of years, and, therefore, to release himself from this dilemma, he engaged that no ordinary being should destroy them; and that they should not die either by day or by night, in earth or in heaven, by fire, by water, or by the sword. Satisfied with this assurance, they immediately began to shew how well they understood the value of their powers, they conquered the whole earth in a trice, and then de-throned *Indra*, king of heaven. He immediately carried his complaint to *Brahma*, who very coolly answered that he could take no part against those upon whom he had bestowed a blessing; but that perhaps *Vishnú* would. This latter deity kindly undertook to settle the business, and restore *Indra* to his kingdom. To effect that purpose he assumed a mixed form, half man and half lion, concealed himself in a column in *Hiranyakasipu's* palace, and, when that gigantic monster struck the column, in a fit of rage and profuseness, out started *Nara-singha*, seized the giant by his thigh and ripped him up in an instant. This was certainly the action neither of fire, water, nor the sword; it was certainly not done by any ordinary being; neither was it done by day or night, for it was in the evening, and it was also under the eaves, and consequently between earth and heaven. Thus was *Brahma's* promise fulfilled. How

AVAST.
AVATAR.

AVATAR, the other worthy Hiranyāksha, or Gold-eye, was killed we are not told; but Vishnú consoled Pralhāda, Hiranyā-kāś'pū's pious son, by assuring him that his father would ascend into heaven.

The fifth, or Vāmana incarnation, was occasioned by the same family. Pralhāda had a very audacious son, named Bali, who daringly made offerings to himself, and performed the *śr-wa-mé'd'ha*, or sacrifice of a horse so often, that scarcely any thing could be refused to him, and he demanded the throne of heaven. Vishnú, having been applied to for relief against this troublesome giant, conveyed himself into the body of Aditi, the wife of Kāś'ya, the grandfather of the giants, and was born a dwarf—Vāmana. His diminutive size charmed the tyrant Bali, who, to gratify him, promised to give whatever he should ask. He modestly demanded as much land as could be measured by three steps: and, placing one foot on earth and another on heaven, out started a third from his belly, for which he demanded a resting-place; the king's head was the only one that could be found, and to make up matters with the god, whose power was now indisputable, Bali consented to go down to Pātāla, or hell, on a promise of Vishnú's protection. Thus did a dwarf repress the turbulence of a giant.

In the sixth, or *Parand-Rāma* Avatár, Vishnú came into the world, as the son of Jamadagni, a descendant of the sage Bhṛigu, in order to chastise the military caste, or Kshatriyas, whose insolence and disorder had become insupportable. One of them, a king, named Arjuna, took a fancy to a marvellous cow, named Kāma-d'bhūta, the property of Jamadagni, and attacking her possessor with a large army, routed and slew him. Rāma, the son of this luckless sage, determined to avenge his father's death, and going to Kāilāsa (or Olympos), knocked down Siva's porters, who refused admittance to him, presented himself to the god, and received from him a paras'u, or weapon, with which he slew Arjuna. These incarnations all took place in the Satya Yuga, or Golden Age: the remainder are more modern.

The seventh, or *Rāma-chandra* Avatár, was Vishnú's descent for the purpose of subduing another giant Hāvasa, who reigned in Lankā, or Ceylon, and carried off Sita, the wife of Rāma, in his absence from home. Their contests and the final victory of Rāma are the subject of the celebrated epic poem called the *Rāmāyana*.

Pralamba, and other troublesome giants, who, it appears, were not confined to the golden age of the Hindú mythology, made an eighth incarnation requisite, and Vishnú again descended in the form of *Bala-Rāma*. This took place in the Dwāpar, or Brazen Age, and brings us nearer to the period of something like genuine history.

Budd'ha, the ninth, overcame the giants, his adversaries, by a very singular artifice; he produced, by his preaching, an universal scepticism, so that the gods, no longer compelled to grant prayers, had no difficulty in ridding the world of its scourges—these all-powerful giants.

The *Kalki*, or tenth Avatár, is yet to come. He will be the son of a Brāhmana, and be born in the city of Samt'hala at the close of the Kali Yuga, or Iron age. He will appear, say the Brāhmanas, mounted, like a crowned conqueror, on a white steed, with

a cimeter blazing like a comet, to mow down all his AVATAR-foes.

Plates from Indian drawings of the incarnations of Vishnú were first given by Athanasius Kircher, in his *China Illustrata*, in 1667: but they were procured on the coast of Comorand, and differ in some respects from the above account. They are to be found also in Baldæus, (Churchill's collection) whence they were copied in Mr. Maurice's *Indien Antiquities*. Baldæus's book was originally published in 1672. (Those who wish for more information on this subject will find it in Ward's *Five of Hindoo Literature*, i. 3. ii. 211. Gita's *Gevinda*, quoted in *As. Res.* ii. 119. *Ajya Akherd*, ii. 496, 8vo. Roger *Porte Ouverte*, ii. 3. p. 158. 367. Nickamp's *Out. Indische Missionsgeschichte*, 1740. p. 87.)

AVATSCHIA, see AVACHA.

AVAUENT, see AVANTAGE.

AUBAINE, a right assumed by the kings of France to inherit the property of all foreigners, who die within their dominions. This confiscation is of great antiquity, and extends to all, except natives of Scotland, Switzerland, Portugal, and Savoy, who are considered as natives of the kingdom.

AUBE, a river in France, which gives its name to a département. It rises in the département of the Upper Marne, in Burgundy, and falls into the Seine at Marseilly. Another river of France of the same name traverses Fieardy and Champagne, and falls into the Oise.

AUBE, a département of France, bounded on the north by the département of Marne, on the east by the Upper Marne, and Coté d'Or, on the west by the Yonne, the Seine and the Marne. It comprehends part of the south of Champagne and a small part of Burgundy. Troyes is the capital, and the département is divided into the five arrondissements of Troyes, Bar-sur-Aube, Nogent-sur-Seine, Arcis-sur-Aube, and Bar-sur-Seine. The soil is chalky and produces good wine. The breed of sheep is good, and the manufactures are linen, woollen, and silk stuffs, glass, paper, and leather. It contains 1,196,370 square acres, and its population consisted of 238,819 persons in 1815.

AUBENAS, a small town of France, in the lower Vivarais, in Languedoc, in the département of the Ardèche, particularly noted for a manufactory of cloth and silk, which together with all kinds of handkerchiefs, neckcloths, chints, and other stuffs, are made here in great quantities: the dyed cloths of Aubenas are in considerable repute. The population is somewhat more than 3500. N. lat. 44° 38', E. long. 5° 32', 135 miles S. E. of Paris.

AUBIGNY, or AVOIGNY, a town of France in Berry, in the département of the Cher, arrondissement of Sancerre, on the river Nersse, and 14 leagues S. E. of Orleans; long. E. 2° 31', lat. N. 47° 29'. Population 2550. Manufactures, woollens, thread, linen, wax, glass, and leather. It has also extensive dye-houses.

Charles VII. of France, in the year 1422, granted the territory of Aubigny-sur-Nersse to John Stuart, the third lord Darnley, in consideration of the great and commendable services done by him in the wars. John Stuart was killed at the battle of Herryings in 1424; and in 1672, on the death of Charles Stuart, sixth Duke of Richmond and Lennox, without issue, the territory reverted to the crown. Charles II. presented on

AUBIGNY Louis XIV. to grant this territory to the Dutchees of Portsmouth, with remainder to her son the Duke of Richmond and his heirs male; at the same time erecting it into a Duchy and Peerage of France. This title was confirmed by patent, and properly registered by the Parliament of Paris in 1777.

AUBLETIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Polyandria*, order *Monogynia*; generic character, calyx of five leaves; corolla of five petals. Capsule echinate, many celled. An American genus.

AUBONNE, the name of a government, of a town, and of a barony converted into a village in the Pays de Vaud, in Switzerland, about eleven miles W. S. W. of Lausanne. The town, which is situate on the banks of a river bearing the same name, has the form of an amphitheatre, with a castle at one end, commanding an extensive view of the lake of Geneva and the surrounding country. Long. 6° 23' E. Lat. 46° 30' N.

AUBURN, written by Beaumont and Fletcher, and Hall, *Abram*. The first folio (p. 36.) *Two Gentlemen of Verona*, reads *Auburne*. In *Coriolanus*, (fo. 12.) *Abram* perhaps is for *Abram*. And the word probably is merely *Abram*, i. e. *abron*, the past participle of to *abron* or *brin*, to burn.

Choleric in hot and dry, in whose the fyre hath preminence,
and is discerned by these signes followinge.

Heave black or dark abron curled.
Sir Thomas Elyot. Castel of Helth.

He's white hair'd
Not wanton white, but such a manly colour
Next to an abron, tough, and simple act,
Which shows an active soul.

Beaumont and Fletcher. The Two Noble Kinsmen.

These curious locks so aptly twist'd,
Whose every hair a soul doth bind,
Will change their colours hue and grow
White, and cold as winter's snow.

Corne. Permeasions to Love.

Late travelling along, in London way,
Met met, so seem'd by his disguis'd array,
A lustie courtier, whose curled head
With abron locks was fairly furnished.

Hall. Satires F. book iv.

Her haire is abron, mine is perfect yellow.
Shakspeare. The Two Gentlemen of Verona.

We have beene call'd so of many, not that our heads are some
brown, some blacke, some abron, some bald.

Shakspeare. Coriolanus, fo. 12.

For him she dress'd. For him with female care
She comb'd, and set in curls, her auburn hair.
Dryden's Fables.

And not a year but pilfers as he goes
Some youthful grace that age would gladly keep;
A tooth or auburn lock.
Cowper's Poems.

Close to her side, in radiant arms, a youth,
Who like a brother of the Graces moves.
His head men's, discovers auburn locks
Cur'd thick, not flowing.

Giles's Lewises, book II.

AUBOURNE, AUBURN or AUBOURNE, in the county of Wilts. a vicarage valued in the King's books at £266. 6s. 3d. Patron, Bishop of Salisbury. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population in 1811, 1360. Poor's rates in 1803, at 7s. 7d. £1535. 12s. 11½d. 6½ miles N. E. from Marlborough. King John had a hunting seat in Aubourne Chase, part of which mansion still exists in a farm house. Charles I. was defeated here by the Earl of Essex in 1643. In September 1760, 72 houses in the village were entirely destroyed by fire.

Aesouax, in the county of Lincoln, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £7. 13s. 10d. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population in 1811, 308. Poor's rates in 1803, at 1s. 3d. in the pound, £37. 2s. 6d. ¼ S. W. from Lincoln.

AUCHI, or **AUCU**, a city of France, formerly the capital of the province of Gascony, now of the department of Gers, 16 leagues West of Toulouse. Long. E. 0° 39'. lat. N. 43° 38'. The river Gers runs through it. Its neighbourhood is famous for producing the pear called *bon chretien*. The cathedral is a fine building. Manufactories, tanning, serge and the coarse woolsens called *barat*. Population 8800.

AUCKLAND, BISHOP. in the county palatine of Durham, a curacy, not in charge. Patron, the Bishop of Durham. Chapel dedicated to St. Anne. Population in 1801, 1961. Poor's rates in 1803, £1387. 12s. 4d. 10½ miles S. W. from Durham, and 257 N. W. from London. The market is on Thursday. Here is a free grammar school, and here the petty Sessions are holden.

Bishop Auckland is the residence of the Bishop of Durham. Bishop Beck was the first who built a palace here in 1283. In the time of the Commonwealth, Sir Arthur Haselrigge destroyed it, and built a magnificent house with the materials. Bishop Cosin, after the restoration, began the present palace, which has since been added to at different times, and is a grand though irregular building.

AUCKLAND, ST. ANDREW, in the county palatine of Durham, a chapel not in charge. Patron, the Bishop of Durham. Population in 1801, 121. Poor's rates, at 2s. 6d. in the pound in 1803, £158. 12s. 6d. The church was made collegiate by Bishop Beck. ½ mile S. E. from Bishop Auckland.

AUCTION, *Auges, auetum*. Gr. *Αἴρω*. I increase. *Auctio*, an increasing. **AUCTIONER**, *Auctio* is applied to a mode of sale, in which each succeeding bidder, increases, adds to, makes greater, the price offered by the preceding.

It was written by an Oxonian then lately deceased, who is not named, and published by the University printer, who subscribing his own name Joseph Barnes to the said dedication, has made it pass among our auctioneers, and other superficial inspectors, for a treatise of the said printer's writing.

The Life of Sir Walter Raleigh.

And much more honest, to be bid'd, and stand
With auctioneer hammer in thy hand,
Prevailing to give more, and knocking thrice
For the sold household stuff, or picture's price;
Dryden. Juvenal, sat. 7.

Its owner was a favourite of the royal cause; and Cromwell, in revenge, tore it in pieces, setting every thing to auction, that could be severed from the walls.

Gilpin's Tour to the Lakes.

Such is the sale by *auction*; where the price is not fixed by the seller, but by the best bidder, who is the purchaser. The Romans call it *auetio*, probably because every successive bidder (*auger*) increases, or raises the price.

Boswell's Moral Science.

Estates are landscapes, put'd upon aukle.

Then advertis'd, and auctioneer'd away.

Cowper's Poems. The Garden, book III. p. 101.

AUCTION. In sales by auction, a bidding is an offer made by the bidder to the auctioneer, who is, for this purpose, the agent of the seller, and who testifies his assent to it, if he thinks fit to accept it, on behalf of his principal, by knocking down his hammer. No contract is complete without the assent of both parties; and consequently a bidder has a right to withdraw his

AU-BOURNE, **AUCTION**

AUCTION. bidding, at any time before the hammer is down. The usual mode of conducting auctions is, as the name denotes, by a succession of bidders advancing in their offers, until some one is accepted. The same legal principles, however, apply to any other modes of public sale—as, for instance, what is termed a Dutch auction, where the auctioneer commences by naming a high price, and gradually reduces it, until some person closes with his offer.

The civil law held private biddings, by or on behalf of the seller, to be fraudulent; (see Huber, *Protectiones*, xviii. 2. 7.) and this principle seems to have been adopted by the courts of law in this country, in the days of Lord Mansfield, whose inclination to adopt the maxims of the civil code is well known; but the legislature seems decidedly to recognise the practice, by exempting such private biddings from the duty imposed on sales by auction. It seems, however, as it is laid down by an able and eminent writer, (Stigden, *Law of Vendors and Purchasers*), to be clearly settled, that a sale cannot be supported where the purchaser was the only real bidder, and public notice was not given of the owner's intention to bid; but that public notice is not essential to the validity of a sale, if there be a contest between one or more real bidders. We speak, of course, of such sales being valid or invalid, as against the purchaser only. As against the vendor there is no equity to prevent their being binding.

The *actus* of the Romans, whence we have adopted the name and usage, was conducted much as our own are now. There was, moreover, the additional solemnity of a magistrate's presence, by whom the best bidder was publicly declared. The auctioneer was called *Auctor*; and the term *auctoritas* denoted the right of property which the sale vested in the purchaser. It is well known that a spear was set up in the Forum as the sign of an auction, whence the phrase *sub hasta venire*; (literally, to be sold under the spear) to denote a sale by auction.

AUCUBA, in Botany, a genus of plants, containing one species, a native of Japan.

AUDA'CIOUS, } *Audax*, daring, from *Audeo*.
AUDA'CIOUSLY, } 1 dare: of unsettled etymology.
AUDA'CIOUSNESS, }
AUDA'CITY, } *Daring*, confident, high-spirited, fearless, bold, shameless, impudent.

But in that, that we have experimented the one in the sea and the other by land, yet naketh every of us for his parte more bolde & audacious, in that thing, wherein we have most experyence.

Nicoll's Theatride, book ii. fo. 68. c. 1

My Lord (smooth he) I will not reprehend
 The current zeale of this audacious speech,
 From courage sprung, which sell in chace I find
 In swelling stomacks without violent breath.

Faustina's Tragedy, book x.

The pope and his sectare worse verpse a power and worship above
 crying, in that with the most arrogant audacious that dare after, in-
 terprete sode and minime and expone Gods lawes and gospell at
 their pictures.

The Exposition of Daniel by Jey.

But the governour rebuking their thierous heartes, and femi-
 nine audacitie (whether he thought so or no was a question) aware
 that if no man would followe of the nobilitie he woulde do his deuotie
 to reuolue the castell at the day.

Hell. Henry IV.

Thence many a league
 As in a clenchy chair ascending rides
 Audacious, but that erst some falling, meets
 A vast vacuities.

Milton. Par. Lost, book ii.

And I cannot but wonder at the strange presumption of some
 men, that dare so audaciously to introduce any whatsoever foreign
 words, be they ever so strange.

Daniel's Defence of Rhyme.

Your reasons at dinner have been sharpe and sententious:
 pleasant without scurrility, witty without affectation, audacious
 without impetuosity.

Shakespeare. Lear's Labour Lost, fo. 135.

As she that shall be my wife must be accomplished with courtly
 and audacious ornaments.

B. Jonson. The Silent Woman, fo. 47B.

Asaiah took his horse and dammage nothing seere the heart, but
 rather made full reckning, that he had caught, (as it were) with a
 belt, and fished the audaciousness of the foolishness of the Council, and
 of the sculchours especially.

Holmes's Life.

Audacity and confidence doth, in civil business, so great effects,
 as a man may reasonable doubt, that besides the very daring and
 earnestness, and persistency, and importunity, there should be some
 secret binding, and stooping of other mean spirits to such persons.

Beacon's Works, v. 1.

As when the wolf has torn a bullock's hide,
 At muzzers, or ranch'd a shepherd's side:
 Conscience of his audacious deed, he flies—
 And claps his quivering tail between his thighs.

Dryden's Virgil. Æn. 11.

When their emperor Alderman the second had the audacious-
 ness to make this demand of me, instead of complying with it, I
 ordered his ambassadors to be driven away with all imaginable
 ignominy.

Faulding. A Journey from this World to the next, &c.

Perhaps timidity restrains his arm;
 When he should strike he trembles, and sets free,
 Himself enslav'd by terror of the hand,
 Th'audacious convict, whom he dares not bind.

Copper's Poems.

And he (Herod) vainly hoped, perhaps, like many other audacious
 sinners, that this partial reformation, this half way amendment,
 would avert the judgments with which John probably threatened
 him.

Parsons. Lectures iv.

AUDE, a river of France in Languedoc, which gives
 its name to a department. It rises in the eastern
 Pyrenees, and within 4½ miles of Narbonne divides
 itself into two branches, the northern of which pre-
 serves its name and empties itself into the lake of
 Vendres. The southern branch receives the name of
 Robinet, and running through the city of Narbonne,
 falls into the lake of Sigean. Both of these lakes
 communicate with the Mediterranean.

AUBE, a department of France, bounded on the
 north by the departments of the Herault and the Tarn;
 on the east by the Mediterranean; by the department
 of the Eastern Pyrenees to the south; and by that of
 Arriege to the west. Its extent is 2550 square miles.
 Its population 241,000. It is divided into four ar-
 rondissements, Carcassonne, Narbonne, Castelnaudary
 and Limoux. Carcassonne is its capital. In 1803, it
 paid in direct taxes, £110,000 sterling. Its pro-
 ductions are corn, wine, olives and mulberries. Its
 manufactures are linen, woollen and silk stuffs, paper
 and leather. The canal of Languedoc traverses it.

A'UDIBLE, a. } *Audible*, I hear.
A'UDIBLE, adj. } That which may be heard. Noisy,
A'UDIBLE, } sounding, enough to be heard.
A'UDIENCE, }
A'UDIENT, }

For surely for this state of this world, the joys of heaven are
 by man's months unspokeable, to man's eyes not audible, to
 men's hearts uncoffitable: so farre forth exalt they all that ear
 men have heard of, and all that ear men can speak of, and all
 that ear any man can by natural possibility think on.

See Thom. More's Works, fo. 1239. c. 1.

**AUDA-
CIOUS.**

AUDIBLE.

AUDIBLE. Yet had this Methuen in his council many felt, that privily in his eye counselled him certain thing, and counselled him the contrary in general audience.

AUDIT.

Chaucer. The Tale of Melibee, v. 2. p. 79.

But when this lady comen was
To the personer, in his presence,
She said aloud in audience.

Geoff. Con. Am. book ii.

Visibiles are swifter carried to the sense than *audibles*; as appearance is thunder and lightning, flame and report of a piece.

Bacon's Works, vol. I.

They in the delivery of their message, the one spoke with a soft and low voice, prompting his fellow: the other pronounced the same word by word after him, with a voice more *audible*; continuing their proclamation (for such it was) about half an hour.

The World compassed by Sir Fran. Drake, p. 73.

Whether Pope Julius by his bulle, utterly embarrased the debates and embassadours of y^e princes, and free cities of Germanie from all audience, & disputation in the council, or no, I report me to Pope Julius owne bulle touching the same.

Jovius's Defence of the Apologie.

Don Quixote did prosecute his discourse, in such sort, and with so pleasing terms, as he had almost induced his *auditors* to censure him to be at that time at least exempt from his frenzie.

Sancho's Travels. Don Quixote.

Where now he must admit, without his leave,
Him, who before with all submission does,
Would have been glad to attend, and to prepare

The grace of audience with respect to care,
Daniel. History of the Civil War, book ii.

Sarcasm stood. And what if the desire of more *audibility* raised him to his feet? In that smallness of stature, it was not fit he should lose ought of his height. It was meet so *audible* a proclamation should want no advantage of hearing.

Sp. Hall's Contemplations.

Therefore the Omnipotent
Eternal Father (for where is not his
Present), thus to his Son *audibly* speaks.

Milton. Par. Lost, book vii.

With eloquence innate his tongue was arm'd
The harsh the precept, yet the preacher done'd.

For, letting down the golden chain from high,
He drew his audience upward to the sky.

Dryden's Fables.

But how can that which is sensible be like that which is inaudible? Can a real thing in itself invisible be like a colour; or a real thing which is not *audible*, be like a sound?

By. Brokley. Dialogue 1st. v. iii. p. 243.

The orator, therefore, should so adapt himself to his audience, as to throw out something which every one of them, in turn, may receive and approve as conformable to his own particular sentiments.

Melmoth. Plying.

Human voice is air sent out from the lungs, and by the windpipe conveyed through the aperture of the larynx, where the breath operates upon the membranous lips of that aperture, so as to produce distinct and *audible* sound.

Beattie. Moral Science.

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The verb is applied thus—to hear, listen to, examine, settle an account—literally and metaphorically.

The noun subst. *Auditory* to him who hears, &c. and to the place where he hears. The obj. to that which hears.

When at the general date of *audible* & *audible* to be made at the throne of God, it shall be required at their hands how & what they have taught to the ignorant multitude for whose souls they must answer before a righteous judge, whom no man shall be able to corrupt, beguile, deceive, or escape.

Edith. To the Jewish Christian Reader. Preface to Mathew.

Who followeth Christ gospel and his love
But we, that humble men, and chaste, and pure,
Workers of God's word, not *auditors*!

Chaucer. The Sumpnour's Tale, v. l. p. 302.

And we fulfilled of love and trust,
Whiche of this world we holden here,
With voids honde shall appere,
Touche our cure spiritual,
Whiche is our charge in special,
I not what thyng it shall amount,
Upon thike ende of our account,
Whiche Christ hym selfe is *auditor*.

Geoff. Con. Am. book v.

To thiest he might be at more liberty from the people, he entered into a shippe, and spake out of that as out of a pulpit, to the people standing by the bankes. For so he might be both better seen and better heard of many, because the sands of the bankes and the breakers of the bankes, as though it were a *seconds auditory*.

Edith. Mathew, cap. 13.

On the latter day, whene agrippa and heronnes came with great desire, and entered into the *auditorium* with tribunes and the principal men of the city, whene festus had, poul was brought.

Edith. Actus, chap. 25.

Let it be our care, to be ever in a perpetual posture of readiness for that awful and glorious coming of our Lord and Saviour, whenever it shall be; and to see that our accounts be set right for that great *audible*.

Sp. Hall's Revelations unrolled.

In rule shall this be expected from our younger years; which the wise philosopher excludes from being most *audible*, much less judges of true morality.

Sp. Hall's Book of Wisdom.

Whereas we shall be called to deliver the message of God to his people in public *auditories*, we shall not fail to lay open and bewail the sins of the time.

Sp. Hall's Holy Order of Monks in a Sim.

But I shall not expatiate on these recule parts, only there is one special contrivance of the nerves ministering to this sense of hearing, which must not be passed by; and that is the branches of one of the *auditory nerves* spread partly to the muscles of the ear, partly to the eye, partly to the tongue and instruments of speech, and insinuated with the nerves to go to the heart and breast.

Durham. Physico-Theology.

Yet went also not, as not with such discourse
Delighted, or not capable her care
Of what was high: such pleasure she reserv'd
Adam relating the sole *audience*.

Milton. Par. Lost, book viii.

He delighted not to discourse of sublime mysteries, (although his deep wisdom comprehended all,) nor of subtle speculations and intricate questions, such as might amuse and perplex, rather than instruct and profit his *auditors*; but usually did feed his *auditors* with the most common and useful truths, and that in the most familiar and intelligible language.

Burrow's Sermons.

Yet Galen most acutely shows you,
(Consult his book de *partibus sensu*.)
That from each ear, as he observes,
Three creep two *auditory nerves*,
Not to be seen without a glass,
Which bear the *ex parietibus* pass;
Thence to the neck; and moving thence there,
One goes to this, and one to 't'other ear.

Dr. Helyar in Swift.

[I] was in every public place surrounded by a multitude of humble *auditors*, who retained in other places of resort my maxims and my jests.

Johnson. The Rambler.

At the accession of George the first, [he] was made earl of Halifax, knight of the garter, and first commissioner of the treasury, with a grant to his nephew of the reversion of the *auditorium* of the exchequer.

Johnson. The Lives of the Poets.

Foh! 'twas a bribe that left it; he has touch'd
Corruption! Whose socks an *auditor* hears
Propitious, pays his tribute, game or fish,
Widd four or ven'son; and his errand speaks.

Cowper's Poems.

Will make your very heart strings shak
With food and everlasting clack,
And beat your *auditory* drums
Till you grow deaf, or you grow dumb.

Beattie. The Wolf and Shepherd.

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AUDITA QUERELA, a writ so named from the words with which it set out, reciting that the complaint of the party aggrieved had been heard, in order to the granting of it. It was an equitable process for the intent of giving relief to defendants against whom judgments had been given, from the consequences of such judgments, in consequence of matters occurring subsequently, whereby execution ought to be staid. This writ is now obsolete, from the modern practice of the courts, of granting relief summarily on motion; a practice which, it has been said by a late learned judge (Ch. J. Eyre, 1. B. and P. 428) will be adopted in all cases where a party would have been entitled to relief by *audita querela*. The investigation, therefore, of the law on this subject is important to the legal student; and he will find it fully and clearly expounded in the late Mr. Serjeant Williams's notes to his edition of Saunders's *Reports*, on the case of *Turner v. Davies*, vol. ii. p. 137, d.

AUDITOR, a person originally appointed by the King or by religious houses, to examine and pass the public accounts of his Majesty, or the private ones of the societies to which an officer of this description was attached. At the present day, in all cathedral and collegiate bodies, the accounts of receipts and expenditure, of fines, recoveries, and other transactions of like nature, are overlooked and arranged at stated periods called *audits*, when certain members of the society meet, as *auditors*, to inspect and regulate the general accounts. In the state, the auditor of the exchequer is an officer of high trust: he is to file the teller's bills, by which they charge themselves with all the monies received; and by warrant from the Lord Treasurer, or the Commissioners of the Treasury, he draws all orders to be signed by him or them, for issuing forth all monies, by virtue of Privy Seals, which are recorded in the Clerk of the Pells' office, and entered and lodged in the Auditor's office. He also, by warrant of the Lord Treasurer, or Commissioners of the Treasury, makes debentures to such as have fees, annuities or pensions, by letters patent from the King, out of the Exchequer, and directs them for payment to the tellers. He daily receives the state of the account of each teller, and weekly certifies the whole to the Lords of the Treasury. At Michaelmas and Lady-day the Auditor of the Exchequer makes a declaration; that is, he delivers an abstract of all accounts and payments made in the preceding half-year, one for the Lords of the Treasury, and the other for the Chancellor of the Exchequer. The office is holden for life.

AUDLEM, in the county palatine of Chester, a vicarage, valued in the King's books at £5. 16s. 8d. Church dedicated to St. James. Population, in 1801, 2537. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 5s. 9d. in the pound, £365. 4s. 6d. 6½ miles S. E. from Nantwich.

AUDLEY, in the county of Stafford, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books, at £6. 13s. 4d. Church dedicated to St. James. Population, in 1811, 2618. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 5s. 3½d. in the pound, £1048. 12s. 2d. 4 miles N. W. from Newcastle under Lyme.

AVEBURY, or AVEBURY, in the county of Wilts, united in 1747 to the vicarage of Waterbourne Monkton, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £29. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. James. Population, in 1811, 607. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 5s.

in the pound, £710. 12s. 4d. 6½ miles W. from Marlborough, 61 from London. Aveybury is remarkable for the supposed Druidical monument called *Stone Henge*, which is situated within its parish. See *STONE HENGE*.

AVELEY, or ALVELEY, in the county of Essex, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £14. 10s. 5d. Patron, the Bishop of London. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population, in 1801, 543. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 4s. in the pound, £315. 12s. 6d. 1½ mile N. E. from Purfleet. Formerly a market-town.

AVELLANE, in *Herodias*, a term applied to a cross, supposed to be compounded of four fibberis, or nubes *avellane*, nuts so called from *Avellanus*, in Campania, where they abounded. This is the cross which ensigns the mound of authority on the sovereign's globe.

AVELLINO, a town of the kingdom of Naples, in the *Principato Ultra*. Long E. 14° 39'. Lat. N. 40° 54'. It is the see of a bishop, whose revenue is about 6000 ducats (£1225.) per annum. The manufactures are cloth and macaroni. Blue dyeing also is carried on to a large extent. But the fibberis (*nubes avellane*, or *Pontice*, because originally imported from Pontus) are the chief article of commerce: in good years they will yield £12,000. sterling.

A'VE, *Have, since ave, Vossius thinks*
AVE-MARY. } signifies, *Five.*

I do not relish well
Their loud applause and ours vehement!
Nor do I think the man of safe discretion
That do's affect it.

Shakespeare's Measure for Measure, fol. 61.

The beads that we will bid, shall be sweet kisses,
Which we will number, if one pleasure mixes;
And when an *ave* comes, to say *Amen*,
We will begin, and tell them *c'er* again.

Dryden's Poems.

I thought King Henry had resembled thee,
In courage, courtship, and proportion;
But all his mirth is lost to solace;
To number *ave-maries* on his beads.

Shakespeare's 2d Part of King Henry VI. fol. 123.

Shall we go throw away our coats of steel,
And wrap our bodies in blacke mourning gown,
Numb'ring our *ave-maries* with our beads!
Or shall we on the helmets of our foes
Tell our devotion with revengefull arrows?

Shakespeare's 3d Part of King Henry VI. fol. 153.

AVE-MARY, or AVE-MARIA, Hail Mary! The angel Gabriel's salutation of the Virgin Mary, when he brought her the tidings of the Incarnation. It is become a prayer, or form of devotion, in the Romish Church: and their chaplets and rosaries are divided into so many *ave-maries* and so many *pater-nosters*. Dr. Bingham observes, that among all the short prayers used by the ancients before their sermons, there is not the least mention of an *ave-mary*; and that its original can be carried no higher than the beginning of the fifteenth century, when Vincentius Ferrerius, who was a celebrated preacher in that age, first used it before his discourses; from his example it obtained such authority, as not only to be prefixed to all the sermons of the Romish preachers, but to be joined with the Lord's Prayer in their breviary.

AVENA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants. Class *Tri-andria*, order *Dignia*. Generic character; Corolla two-valved, valves lanceolate, firmly inclosing the seed; external one bearing a twisted awn on its back. This is a genus of the natural order *Gramina*, or

AVE-
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AVENA.

AVENA. grasses; enumerating among its species the common oat, *Avena sativa*.
 AVERAGE. *A. sativa*. Paniculate, calyx two-seeded, seeds smooth, alternately awed.

AVENAGE, from *Avena*, oats, in *Law*, oats paid to the landlord in lieu of rent.

AVENAUNT, Fr., becoming. Tyrwhit.

The Fr. *Advenir*, (from the Lat. *Advenio*), to come to, to happen, to befall, and consequently, to become, to suit, to be becoming, suitable, graceful, agreeable.

Of hail ache was right *avenant*,

Of fair colour, with sweet semblant.

R. Gloucester, p. 693.

Harald was curteis & strong, of body *avenant*.

R. Bruner, p. 51.

She bare no rancour to no right

Cere browns ale was, and therto bright

Of face and body *avenant*

I wote no lady so pleasant.

Chaucer. *The Rom. of the Rose*, fol. 122. c. 2.

AVENBURY, in the county of Hereford, a vicarage valued in the King's books at £7. 8s. 9d. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 342. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 8s. in the pound, *d*. 285. 1s. 6d. 1½ miles S. E. from Bromyard.

AVENCHE, a small town, in the canton of Berne, in Switzerland. It was the Aventicum of the ancients, and various remains of Roman grandeur are discovered in the vicinity. In a circuit of full five miles round Aveche inscriptions, Mosaic pavements, fragments of magnificent columns of white marble, with the floors of baths and the ruins of an amphitheatre have been discovered, a particular account of which may be seen in *Archæologon Coxæ's Travels*, and Schmidt's *Recueil d'Antiquités de la Suisse*.

AVENGE, v. Fr. *Venger*, It. *Vendicare*, Lat. *Vindicare*, a vindico. Vossius. I denote violence. To take life for life, eye for eye, tooth for tooth, hand for hand, foot for foot, is the measure of vengeance allowed by the Jewish law.

The sense of *ave*, after the divorcing of Saint Augustin, is which will be avenged by word or by deed.

Chaucer. *The Person's Tale*, vol. ii. p. 327.

The Eldridge knight is his own cousin,

Whom a knight of thine hath sent.

And hee is come to *aveng* his wrong,

And to thee, all thy knighten among;

Defiance here hath wot.

Sir Gualter Part II. in *Percy's Reliques*, vol. I.

Florent howe so thou be to wite

Of Branchus destine, men shall respite

As now to take *avengement*,

He so thou stonde in judgement

Upon certaine condicions,

That thou vato a question,

Whiche I shall aske, thou answer.

Greene. *Gen. An. book i.*

He beynt so fowden by a swete herde or rykener, some tyme belonging to the vire Coburne, that be before tym wycklype had slayne, in *avengement* of his sayd lordes deith, slawe hym in the myd place.

Wherefore, the Loole God and hys apretts hath sent me. And thus sayeth y^e Lord God thyne *avenger*, the holy one of Israhell. *Bible*, 1535. *Ecce*, chap. 48.

His ruffo raiment all was stain'd with blood

Which he had spilt, and all to redd yrent,

Through vandyvied rubeusene witten wred;

For of his hand he had no guerdonment

Ne cur'd for blood in his *avengement*.

Spenser's *Fairie Queene*, book I. c. 4. s. 34.

He like a monstrous giant seem'd in sight
 Farre passing Beowulf or Pyrramon great,
 The when in Lipard doe day and night.
 From thunder-balls for *Ave's* *avenging* threat.

Spenser's *Fairie Queene*, book iv. c. 5. s. 37.

And if to that *avenger* by you decreed

This hand may help, or succour ought supply,

It shall not faile when so ye shall it need.

Spenser's *Fairie Queene*, book iv. c. 6. s. 8.

Yet there that cruel queene *avenger*,

Not asidde so farr her to estrange

From courtly bliss and wrosted happiness,

Did heape on her new waues of weary wretchedness.

Spenser's *Fairie Queene*, book iii. c. 8. s. 20.

I believe the Just *avenger* of all disorders, will in time make those men, and that city, see their sinnes in the glasses of their punishment.

Edwin Basilide.

How little reason this king had to impute the death of Hotham to God's *avengement* of his repulse at Hull may easily be seen.

Milton's *Answer* to Eikon Basilide.

— This neglected, fear

Signal *avenger*, such as overtook

A misert, that unjustly once withold

The clergy's duty. *Philips's Poem.*

Now stay'd the hell-heads, nor the braver stay'd,

But fellow'd, as before, the flying maid:

Th'*avenger* took from earth th'*avenging* sword,

And mounting light as air, his sabie steel by spurr'd.

Virgins's Poem.

And last, and most, if these were cast behind,

To *avenging* horror of a conscious mind,

Whose deadly fear anticipates the blow,

And sees no end of punishment and woe.

Dryden's Translation of *Lucretius*.

It is not seemly, nor of good report,

That she is slack in discipline; more prompt

T'*avenger* than to receive the breach of law.

Cowper's Task.

And would he give me riches as the sands,

And as the dust of earth, no gifts from him

Should sooth me, till my soul were first *aveng'd*.

Cowper's *Hand*, book ix.

AVENING, in the county of Gloucester, a rectory valued in the King's books at £24. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population 1602. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 6s. 6d. *d*. 557. 12s. 10d. 3½ miles N. W. from Tetbury.

AVENTINUS MONS, in *Ancient Geography*, the Aventine Hill; the most southerly of the Seven Hills upon which Rome was built. Varro derives its name from a great number of different sources: 1st, from Aventinus the eleventh King of Alba in succession from Ascanius, who was buried on it; 2dly, from the word *adventus* (arrival) because great crowds thronged thither to a temple of Diana; 3dly, from *acer* (birds) which flew thither from the Tiber; 4thly, from *adventus* (carriage) because when the hill was separated from the rest by marshes, the only passage to it was by boats; 5thly, from *Acens*, a Sabine river, because Romulus permitted the Sabines to inhabit this quarter. It was called also *Marcus* from Marcia, the goddess of sloth, who had a chapel upon it: and for a similar reason, *Collis Fabiana*; sometimes also, it was called *Biceps*, because the street which passed from the gate of Ostia to the Coliseum, divided it into two summits. It was, according to Virgil, the residence of Cæcus and the scene of the victory of Hercules over him. Remus selected it as the spot on which to take his augury: and both he and Titus Tatius were buried on it. On the translation of the Latins to Rome by Ancus Martius, the Aventine was assigned for their residence; j

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and in the reign of Servius Tullius, the erection of a temple of Diana upon this hill by the Latins, in the joint name of all their tribes, was received as a tacit acknowledgment that Rome, for the future, was the undisputed capital of their nation. In this temple was sacrificed the ox upon which depended the pre-eminence of the Roman or the Sabine state (Liv. l. 45) and the horns of the fated beast were suspended for many centuries in the vestibule. In the insurrection which followed the death of Virginia, the Roman army occupied this hill till the expulsion of Appius from the decemvirate was agreed upon. Augustus made it the thirteenth region of his city. Besides the magnificent temple of Diana, there also stood upon it one consecrated to Juno, and one to the Bona Dea. Not a vestige at present remains of any of these. It is now a solitary spot rather more than two miles in circumference, with a church or two built out of the fragments of ancient edifices. The principal of these are St. Sabine and St. Maria, from the first of which it derives its modern name of Mount of St. Sabine. The ruins of the bath of Caracalla cover a great portion of its surface.

AVENFACE (or AVENFACA), a corruption of Ibn Bajjah. See *IAN BAJJAH*.

ADVENTURE, see ADVENTURE.

ADVENTURINE, see ADVENTURINE.

AVENUE, Fr. *venir*; Lat. *venire*, to come.

The way to, access, approach.

Three batteries here planted in equal distance asunder, and where the easiest approach and access was from the plain, full upon that place of the city which they call Pyrrhus.

Holland's Liry, book xxviii.

For obliging usage and courteous speech unlock the affections, and by them insinuate into the reason of men; but every deportment and forward expressions dam up the attention with prejudice, and interclude all avenue to the understanding.

Burrow's Sermons.

It is of unspeakable importance, in order to self-knowledge and self-government to be acquainted with all the avenues and avenues to sin.

When my uncle Toby and the corporal had marched down to the bottom of the avenue, they recollected their business lay the other way.

Sterne's Tristram Shandy.

Not swift his numbers, now enlarge'd
By yielding thousands of Euboean race,
Distributes round th'invested town to guard
Each avenue and station.

Glover's Athenaid, book xviii.

Ye fallen avenues! once more I mourn
Your fate unshared, once more rejoice
That yet a remnant of your race survives.

Cowper's Task.

Let me suppose your performance has merit; let me suppose you have surmounted the tedious employments of printing and publishing; how will you be able to tell the critics, who, like Cerberus, are posted at the avenues of literature, and who settle the merits of every new performance.

Goldsmith on the state of Politic Learning.

I have ever observed that colonnades and avenues of trees of moderate length, were without comparison far grander, than when they were suffered to run to immense distances.

Burke on the Sublime and Beautiful.

AVEN. } Fr. *averer*. Agreement is a just esti-
AVENANT. } mation of things; also, an averring,
avouching, verifying. Cotgrave. From the Lat. *veror*,
which (says Vossius) is from *ve*, that is *valde*, and
veror. To think strongly.

To declare to be true; strongly, positively
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As for such things as are reported, either before, or at the foundation of the city, more beautified and set out with ports' fables, than grounded upon pure and faithful records, I assume neither to averre nor disprove.

Holland's Liry.

I return'd with similar proofs enough

To make the noble Leonatus mad.

By wounding his belief in her renouue,

With tokens true, and thus, averring, aches

Of chamber-hanging, pictures, this her bracelet.

Shakespeare's Cymbeline, fol. 396.

That, which Bocer, and his associates, averred above a hundred years ago, we still say and maintain; that which was the truth then, hath been so ever since, and shall be to all eternity.

Sp. Hall's Peace-maker.

I shall only ever what myself have sometimes observed of a duck, when closely pursued by a water-dog; she not only dives to save herself (which yet she never does but when driven to an exigent, and just ready to be caught, because it is painful and difficult to her) but when she comes up again, brings not her whole body above water but only her bill, and part of her head, holding the rest underneath, that to the dog, who in the mean time turns round and looks about him, may not spy her till she have recovered breath.

Ray on the Creation.

We are not to conceive that the speeches in *Liry*, *Sallust*, or *Thucydides*, were literally spoken in the very words in which we now read them. It is sufficient that the very fact hath its foundation in truth, as I do seriously aver in the case in the ensuing pages.

Fielding's Works, Pref. to *Pygmalion*, vol. xiii, p. 166.

We may also remember, that the usual conclusion of all affirmative pleadings, was by an *avement* in these words "and this he is ready to verify."

Blackstone's Commentaries, vol. ii.

Two of our four gospels contain *avements* in the body of the history, which though they do not disclose the names, fix the time and situation of the authors.

Pauley's Evidence of Christianity.

AVEMENT, in Pleading, signifies a direct and positive affirmation of a necessary fact, which is essential to the plaintiff's cause of action, and which is not to be inferred from any other part of his statement of it in the declaration. In a defendant's plea, the word is used to denote the offer of the defendant to verify any matter alleged by him in bar of the plaintiff's cause of action, amounting to more than a mere denial of it.

AVERA, in Doomsday book, from *opera*, work, a day's work at ploughing value 8d.

AVERAGE (*avergium*, Lat.), in Commercial Law, is the contribution made by all who are concerned in the ship, freight, or cargo, towards making good the value of any property, which may have been necessarily thrown overboard for the safety of a ship in distress. It is borne by the persons interested, underwriters and others, in proportion to their respective interests in the vessel and cargo, for the common welfare of which this jettison (so the throwing overboard of goods to lighten and save the vessel is technically named) of the property of other individuals has been made. The obligation to enter into this contribution is admitted by all the maritime countries of Europe. It appears to have originated in the laws of Rhodes, which, Molloy says, were introduced into England by William the Conqueror. See *Park on Marine Insurance*, chap. vii. It is also a small duty paid by the merchant to the master of the ship for his care of goods. Hence, bills of lading run, "with primage and average included."

AVERAGE is said to have also formerly signified a service due from certain customary tenants to their lord, of carrying goods on a waggon or horses.

AVERAGE is used in the sense of a mean proportion; hence the verb to average signifies to compare several sorts or quantities of goods, and thence to fix a price.

AVERDUP
POIS.
—
AVER-
RHOA.
—
AVER.

AVERDUPUIS or **AVOIRDUPUIS**, from *avoir* *posseder*, goods of weight. Johnson derives it from the French *avoir du poids*, to have weight; but the latter appears to correspond more closely with the English orthography. A weight having sixteen ounces to the pound, in opposition to troy weight, which has only twelve. All coarse commodities, groceries, cheese, lead, wool, hops, &c. are sold by this weight.

AVERCORN, in *Law*, a reserved rent in corn. **AVERRHAM**, in the county of Nottingham, a rectory with Kelham, valued in the King's books at £20. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population, in 1811, 186. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 1s. 6d. in the pound, at 103. 4s. 3d. 3 miles W. from Newark.

AVERIA, in *Law*, working cattle. **AVERILLAND**, in *Law*, lands ploughed by the tenant with his own cattle *cum averis suis*.

AVERNUS, (from a *præstitus*, and *ævere* a bird,) in *Ancient Geography*, a lake near Baia, in Campania. It was the scene of the descent to hell both by Ulysses and Æneas; and was reputed to be the seat of the Cimmerians who never saw the light of the sun. Sacrifices to the infernal deities were performed here, and Hannibal, profiting by the superstition, occupied it ostensibly under this pretext, but in reality to cover an attack upon Puteoli. Augustus, by the advice of Agrippa, joined the Avernus with the Lucrine lake, and connecting both with the sea, formed a magnificent harbour, called *Portus Julius* or *Portus Boianus*. The woods around it were then cleared, and the poisonous exhalations which were supposed to be so destructive that no bird which flew over the lake could live, were effectually dispelled. It now presents a scene which is described by Mr. Eustace (*Classical Tour*) to be light, airy, and exhilarating. A circular sheet of water, about a mile and a half in circumference, and in many places nearly 120 feet deep, is surrounded by ground low on the one side, on the other high but not steep, in rich cultivation, and slightly wooded. On the southern bank stands a large and lofty octagonal building, vaulted, and of brick, with halls adjoining. This probably was the temple of Proserpine or of Avernus itself. It is surrounded by vineyards. On the northern bank, under a steep overhang with shrubs and branches, is a subterraneous gallery still called the *Grotto della Sibilla*. The first gallery runs under the *Monte Grillo*, in the direction of Baia. It opens into a second, on the right, tending towards Cumæ. After some distance a piece of water crosses it called the Sybil's bath. The ground then rises rapidly, and all farther progress is stopped by the fallen walls. The situation and appearance of the cavern agree very closely with the description of Virgil. It branched out into several other galleries: and probably furnished him with much of the scenery in his sixth book. The *Lago di Tripergola*, as it is called at present, has lost all claim to its former appellation, since in winter it abounds in waterfowl. There can be no doubt that the lake is the crater of an exhausted volcano.

AVERTUS is also the name of any place infected with mephitic vapours.

AVERPENNY, in *Law*, money paid towards the King's averages (*avering*) or carriages.

AVERRHOA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants. Class *Decandria*, order *Trigynia*. Generic character; calyx five-leaved, petals five spreading above. Stamina in-

serted into a nectariferous ring, alternate ones shorter. Pomum, pentagonal, five-celled. An East Indian genus. English names *Dilambi tree*, *Carambola tree*.

AVERRUNCATE, *averruncare*, *averruncationem*, *AVERRUNCATION*. } I scrape or weed out from: from *ab, ex*, and *runcare*, I weed; or from the Greek *ἄνωμι*. Vossius prefers the latter.

To scrape, or cut down by the roots.

I wish myself a pseudo-prophet,
But sure some mischief will come of it,
Unless by providential wit,
Or force, we *averruncate* it.

Butler's Hudibras.

AVERSA, a town of Naples, eight miles N. of that place, in the Terra di Lavoro, anciently called *Atella*. It is situated in a fine plain, covered with vineyards and orange trees, and is the seat of a bishop, of a royal governor and a judge. It obtained the name of Aversa, from its opposition to Capua, being built by Count Raynulf, the leader of the Normans, as a bulwark against Capua, and a secure fortification for his followers. Here Andrew, King of Hungary, was hanged in consequence of a conspiracy headed by one of his wife, a circumstance alluded to by Petrarch in one of his letters to Bertrando Salmourensis: "*O infelix Aversa, vere aversa, nonen ex re sumptum*." Lat. N. 41° long. E. 14° 1'. Population 14,000.

AVERSILVER, in *Law*, a custom of Rent.

AVERT, *avert*, *avert*, *avert*, I turn away from. The adjective *averted*, and its immediate derivatives are applied metaphorically to that which turns or is turned away.—from feelings of dislike, ill will, abhorrence, hatred, loathing.

With these prosperous successes, many men wait for weakness what for hypocrites, what for fess and the apostrophe of their persecutions be *averted* from the gospel of peace into these anti-*crystalline* acts, articles false doctrine popish rites superstition's ceremonies and vain their droppish traditions and many into Mahometan mischief. *The Exposition of David by J. J. J.*

But has that dark believe, and *avert* him with from his stanzas, being within the church by that same faith and amendment is he made whole. *Barnes*, fo. 360. c. 2.

Hubert his arms, westward, *avert* stretch'd,
Whilst to the hopeful east his eyes were turn'd;
And with a hollow'd torch the pyle he reach'd;
Which seen, they all with utmost clamour moan'd.

Deccan's Gaudihari, book ii.

Avorters and purgers must go together, as tending all to the same purpose, to divert this rebellious humour and turn it another way. *Burton*. *Anat. of Misacids*.

Scipio having received from him a mighty mass of gold and silver, hath brought nothing to the treasure, but *averted* all from thence, and converted it to his proper use. *Holland's Livy*.

Who thought they could not fashion otherwise
Those strong-bell'd humours, which *avert* grew;
Yet seem'd to qualify the extrusion,
And some respect more to their sovereign grew.

Daniel's Hist. of Civil War, book vii.

A natural and secret hatred and aversion towards society in any man, hath somewhat of the savage bent.

Bacon's Essay on Friendship.

As in religion, so in friendship, he never profess love when he had it not, nor disguise'd hate or aversion, which indeed he never had to say party or person, but to their sins.

Memoirs of Col. Hothchinson.

Which needs not thy beleefe,
If earth industrious of her self fetch day
Travelling east, and with her part *avert*
From the sun's beam meet night, her other part
Still luminous by his ray.

Milton. Par. Lost, book viii.

AVERRHOA.
—
AVER.

AVEY.
—
AVEY-
RON.

Thus will this latter, as the former world,
Still lead from bad to worse, till God at last
Wearied with their iniquities, withdraw
His presence from among them, and assert
His holy eyes. *Milton's Par. Lost*, book xlii.

But our savillages and aversions cease by occasion of the
law coming cross upon our nature; not because our nature is con-
trary to God, but because God was pleased to superinduce some
commandments contrary to our nature.

Taylor's Polymetrical Discourses.

And, led the printed footstep might be seen,
He dragg'd 'em backwards to his rocky den.
The tracks reverse, a lying notice gave,
And led the scarier backward from the cave.
Dryden's Virgil. *Æn.* 8.

Ask not which passion in my soul was higher,
My lust avenges, or my first desire;
Nor this the greater was, nor that the less;
Both were alike, for both were in excess.
Id. Ovid. Met. l. 13.

And mighty Caesar, whose victorious arms,
To furthest Asia, carry fierce alarms,
Avert unwelcome Indians from his Rome;
Triumph abroad, secure our peace at home.
Id. Virgil. *Geor.* 2.

And is it not most just that an obstinate aversion from God
should be punished with an everlasting exclusion from his glory?
Bates on the Immortality of the Soul.

Nature is so far from producing *le* (virtue) that it yieldeth
mighty obstacles and resistances to its birth, there being in the
best dispositions much *aversion* from good, and great proneness
to evil.

Bacon's Sermons.

Neither the fortitude of Caractacus, nor the despair of Boadicea,
nor the fanaticism of the Druids, could avert the slavery of their
country, or resist the steady progress of the Imperial general.

Gibbon's Roman Empire.

Nor have averted once his glorious eyes
From that dread convict, but with watchful note
Mark'd all. *Cowper's Rival*, book xvi.

The marks of horror and aversion with which our Lord's disciples
received the first intimations of his sacrifice, gave occasion to a
seasonable lecture upon the necessity of self denial.

Hurley's Sermons.

AUERSTADT, a village in the province of Thuringia, and halliwe of Eckartsberg. It is situated about 22 miles north-east of Erfurt, on the road to Leipzig, and is distinguished for the decisive battle that took place in its vicinity between the French and Prussians, on the 14th of October 1806; the memorable day in which the Prussians were defeated both here and at Jena. Davoust and Bernadotte were engaged at this village against the King of Prussia, and the Duke of Brunswick; and it was in consequence of this victory, that Davoust was created Duke of Auerstadt.

AVEYTON GERRON, in the county of Devon, a rectory valued in the King's books at £38. 1s. 6d. Population in 1811, 899. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 5s. in the pound, £692. 8s. 6d. 3½ miles S. E. from Modbury.

AVEYRON, a river of France, which gives its name to a department. It rises at the spring of Veyrol, in the arondissement of Severac, in the department of Aveyron, enters the department of Lot below St. Antholin, becomes navigable at Negrepelisse, and after a course of 36 leagues, discharges itself into the river Tarn, about 8 leagues above Mootauban.

AVEYRON, a department of France, comprehending part of the province of Guyenne, bounded on the

north by the departments of the Cantal and the Lozère, on the east by that of the Gard, on the south by those of the Hérault and the Tarn, and on the west by that of Lot. It is divided into five arondissements, Rhodéz, which is the name of the capital of the department, Ville Franche, Milhau, St. Afrique and Espalion. It contains about 37 40 square miles, and its population is 318,000. It paid in direct taxes, in 1803, £140,000. sterling. It is a mountainous district, abounding in game, fish, wood and grazing land. Corn and wine however are grown in it. Copper, alum, sulphur, lead, vitriol and coal are found in its mountains. Its trade consists in cattle, wool and cheese. The climate is very healthy, though sharp in winter.

AUF, OAR and ELF. Sax. *alf*; Ger. *alp*; Dutch *ale*. See ELF.

These, when a child haps to be got,
Which after proves an iced,
When folk perceive it thrust not,
The fault therein to smother:
Some silly doating brainless calf,
That understands things by the half
Say, that the fairy left this elf,
And took away the other.

Dryden's Poems, page 121.

WILD. And art thou such an *eph* to be ver'd at this? as the advertisement may be manag'd, it may make the most pleasant one in all the Carrel.

Dryden. The Mock-Astrucen.

THURST. You *avep* you, do you not perceive it is the Italian signior, who is come to sell me essences? *Id. Linderham.*

AUGEUS, or AUGERAS, in *Ancient History*, son of Eleus, was one of the Argonauts, and afterwards King of Elis. The stables in which he kept his flocks and herds, had never been cleaned. Hercules undertook the labors, which was considered to be impossible, as some say at the command of Eurystheus, or according to others, on a promise of receiving a tenth of the cattle. Jupiter assisted him in the task, and he performed it by turning the river Alpheus through the stable. Augerus refused the promised recompense, and banished his own son Phyleus, who supported the claims of the hero. Hercules upon this slew Augerus, and gave the crown to his son.

Pausanias relates the latter part of the story otherwise: that Hercules spared the life of Augerus, at the solicitation of Phyleus, who went to reside at Dulichium; and that Augerus was succeeded at his death by another son Agesthenes. From this labour of Hercules, the phrase, "to cleanse the Augeran stables," is proverbially applied to an impossible attempt.

AUGEAN CODEN, *Coder Augienus*, a Greek and Latin MS. of the Epistles of St. Paul, supposed by Michaelis to have been written in the ninth century, and so called from *Augia major*, the name of a monastery at Rheinau, to which it belonged. After passing through several hands, it came, in 1718, to Dr. Bentley, who purchased it for 250 Dutch florins, and it is now in the library of Trinity College, Cambridge. This MS. (noted F. in the second part of Wetstein's New Test.) is written in uncial letters, and without accents, not *continua serie*, as is common with the more ancient copies, but with intervals between the words, and a dot at the end of each. The Greek text is written in capitals, the latin in Anglo-Saxon letters; whence it is tolerably clear that it must have been written in the west of Europe, where that formation of the Latin letter, usually called Anglo-Saxon, was in general use between the seventh and twelfth centuries. The MS. is defective from the

AVEY-
RON.
—
AUGEAN
CODEN.

AUGEAN
CODEX.
—
AUG-
TON.

beginning to Romans, iii. 8; and the Epistle to the Hebrews is only found in the Latin version.

AUGER, *Test. auger, eugher*; *Terreb. Kilian*. Junius thinks from the A. S. egg; the Dutch egge; whence also the English Edge.

And blocks as black as pitch, (with boring augers found,) There at the general flood supposed to be drown'd.
Dryden. Poly-sidon. Song xviii. p. 377.

DONAL. What should be spoken here,
Where our fate hid in an auger-hole,
May rush, and seize us? Let's away;
Our tears are not yet brew'd.
Shakespeare. Macbeth, fo. 138.

When the stiff clod their little augers bore,
And all the worm inmeates through the pore.
Brooke. Universal Beauty, book v.

Mean time the lovely goddess to his aid
Sharp augers brought, with which he bor'd the beams.
Then plac'd them side by side, adapting each
To other, and the senses with wadding clos'd.
Cowper. Odyssey, book v.

AUGHT, the A. S. *æwit*, a whit, or o whit. See WHIT.

He is full jocunde also dare I lye:
(As he ought tell in merry tale or twale,
With which he gliden may this compaigne?)
Chaucer. The Chaucer's Ymages Prologue, v. i. p. 227.

But thilke little that they spoke or wrought
His wise ghosts take aye, of all such lede
It seemd her he wrote what the thought
Withoute word, so that it was no need
To bid him aught to do, or aught forbide
For which she thought y' lone, al come it late
Of all ier, had opened her the yate.
Id. Troilus and Cressida, book iii. fo. 169. c. 2.

As would God that I had lyne
My blood and flesh, so that I might lye
With the none, y' he had eght where a wife
For his estate, for such a little life
She shoulden lode, with this lastie knight.
Id. The Legend of good Women, fo. 205. c. 1.

If you know ought which do's behoue my knowledge,
Thereof to be inform'd, imprints not
In ignorant conceit.
Shakespeare. Winter's Tale, fo. 281.

Save me alike from foolish pride,
Or impious discontent,
At ought thy wisdom has deny'd
Or ought thy goodness lent.
Pope's Universal Prayer.

— is ought to fail
In all the dewy landscapes of the spring;
In the bright eye of Heaven or the morn,
In nature's fairest forms is ought so fair
As virtuous friendship?
Abraham. The Pleasures of Imagination, book i.

Where ought of bright, or fair, the piece displays
Approve it only—'tis too late to praise.
Johnson. Prologue to, 4c. A Wife to the Wife.

And while he lives and views the light of day,
Grief is his doom, nor can his presence eught
Avert him.
Cowper's Task, book xviii.

AUGHTON, in the county palatine of Lancaster, a rectory valued in the King's books at £14. 5s. 5d. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population in 1811, 1039. Poor's rates in 1803, at 3s. 11d. In the pound, £398. 9d. 2½ miles S. W. from Ormskirk.

ACOURTON, in the east riding, county of York, a discharged vicarage, with the chapel of East Cottingworth, valued in the King's books at £4. Church dedicated to All Souls. Population in 1811, 645.

Poor's rates, at 4s. 10d. in the pound, £193. 6d. 8 miles N. from Howden.

AUGILE, and ACOULIZ, an African people, who occupied the country between the Garamantes and Tigridytes; the modern Agilah, q. v. (See also Nomsommes. Pompon. Mela. Stephanus Byzant.)

AUGITE, in Mineralogy, see PYROXENE.
AUGMENT, *v.* } I increase.
AUGMENT, *n.* } To increase, to add to, to make greater, to grow greater, to enlarge.
AUGMENTER, *n.* }

To me now I call all this bottom sort
My pains I increase, my sorrows to augment
For worthy I am to be here of all comfort
Thousaid I have consumed and mispent
Not only my daies, but my troublefule indent
That my lord countd me.
Chaucer. The Reeve's Tale, fo. 323. c. 2.

In the lands of Remaar (that is in the lode of y' Calden), in a great playn was Babyle builded in processe of tyme mightly and strongly augmented with riche palaces, pleasant howses, strong walles and towers.
The Expedition of Daniel by Jeye.

And it is not inough for them to lise vprightly themselves, except they be careful for y' multitude also. For vniu the, they gray head augmentedly autoritie, vnu of thinges augmentedly wisdom, he long proued and tryed vprightly of their credence.
Edell. Petri. cap. 5.

This ydow haying a myt to y' kyng, either to be restored by hym to some thyng taken from her, or recovering hym of pite, to haue some augmentation to her linyng, founde such grace in the kynges eyes, that he not onely fauored her myte, but muche more plantained her person.
Hall. Edward 4. ff.

Of which letters the coldest enmyth, that he nor none of his clyney was comen thither as an enemy to the cytie, or to make warre agayn it, or the comd weale of y' lande, but for the encreas and augmentation thereof, to the vnterment of theyr power.
Folys.

Take this for certain, that the censurs or ministers of iustice, forgetting the pite of the Remaine, shall be reputed cruel, as barbarians, use Rome shall not repulse them as her naturall children, but as cruell enemies: and not for augmentations of the common wealthe but infamous and robbers of clemencie.
Golden Booke.

The auxiliaries and aid-soldiers fed themselves with the hope of ready and present pailment and wages for the time past, yea and with a duple and triple augmentation thereof to boot, out of the spoile and pillage.
Holland's Lely.

— There mingle brulles,
Ere this avenging sword begin thy downe,
Or some more sudden vengeance wing'd from God
Precipitate thee with augmented paine.
Milton. Par. Lost, book vi.

In this confusion while their work they ply,
The winds augment the winter of the sky,
And wage intestine wars; the suffring seas
Are toss'd, and mingled as their tyrannic pleasure.
Dryden's Fables.

Heat is a certain degree is very pleasant, which may be augmented to the greatest torment.

Locke. On the Human Understanding.
He who augments his substance, though he spends little, wastes away like a medicine applied to weak eyes. Riches not employed as a use.
Sir W. Jones's Hieroglyphicon.

Thou' fortune change, his constant spouse remains,
Augments his joy, or mitigates his pain.
Pope. January and May.

I have determined to consult the best writers for explanations real as well as verbal; and perhaps I may at last have reason to say, after one of the augmenters of Furler, that my book is more learned than its author.

Johnson. The Plan of an English Dictionary.

AUG-
TON.
—
AUG-
MENT.

AUG-
MENT.
—
AUGS-
BURG.

When I had lost the pleasure of meeting you here, there were three subjects (among others occasionally touched upon), to which I endeavoured to draw your particular attention: these were, the institution of Sunday schools, the augmentation of the salaries of your assistant curate, and residence upon your benefices.

Parsons's Tracts.

AUGMENT, is the prefix of a syllable to the initial consonant in certain tenses of Greek verbs, or the change of an initial short vowel into a long one. The prefix of *e* to verbs beginning with a consonant, is called the *syllabic augment*, because the verb is thereby lengthened one syllable. The production of the short vowel, the *temporal augment*, because the time, or the quantity of the initial vowel is thereby increased.

AUGMENTATION, in *Hereditary*, an additional charge given as a mark of honour, and borne for the most part on an escutcheon or a canton. The bloody hand, the bearing of Ulster, borne by the Baronets of England, is an augmentation.

AUGSBURG, (*Augustus-burg*), is an ancient and celebrated city in the kingdom of Bavaria, and formerly one of the free and imperial cities of the German empire. It stands on the declivity of the hill called *Rosenaugburg*, near the junction of the rivers *Lech* and *Wertach*; and, though less flourishing than in former times, it still contains about 30,000 inhabitants. This city is venerable from its antiquity, important from its comparative extent, interesting from its connexion with the history of Germany, and not less so from its association with the cause of truth. In the diet of the empire, Augsburg was originally called *Vindelicla*, as being the capital of the *Vindelici*. When it subsequently fell under the domination of the Romans, and a colony was settled there by *Drusus*, it was called *Augusta-Vindelicorum* and *Rhetorum*. It is mentioned by *Tacitus* (*Germ. xli*) as a very splendid city in the province of *Raetia*. From the Romans it passed to the *Alemanni*, and subsequently to the *Goths* and the *Franks*. Under these its importance declined. It was subsequently in a precarious condition, but it revived after *Rudolph* was elected Emperor, by whom several of its former privileges were confirmed, and new ones granted. Augsburg is still encompassed with fortifications in the old style, and is between two and three miles in circumference, entered by four principal gates and six smaller ones. The older parts of the town still exhibit many of the modern houses of the original German construction; but the newer divisions contain many good buildings, corresponding to its prosperous state, while it enjoyed its free and imperial dignity.

Among its public structures, the cathedral, the town house, what is called the *perleth-tower*, an artificial fountain and the bishop's palace, as well as some of the houses of the private citizens, are worthy of the traveller's notice.

Few towns are more remarkable in German history than Augsburg. The extent of its commerce conferred great celebrity upon it in the 14th and 15th centuries. It was also the scene of several important transactions in civil and ecclesiastical history. In 952, the order for the edification of the priests in the Catholic church was confirmed by the council of Augsburg; and in 1518, the diet was held here for concerting and promoting the crusade against the Turks. At a diet held in a room in the Bishop's palace, 12 years afterwards, and attended by the Emperor *Charles V.* the celebrated confession of the Protestant faith, drawn up by *Luther* and *Meinethon*, and called the *Confession of Augsburg*, was publicly read. In 1547, the Emperor held a council here for settling the various religious controversies which had long agitated the empire. The well known decree called the *Interim*, was published here about this time, and in 1550 a council was called by the Emperor to enforce its observance. The peace of *Passau* was confirmed here, and that which terminated the religious wars of Germany was concluded in the same place in 1555. Subsequently to that period, Augsburg has frequently participated in both the general and local hostilities of Germany; and these calamities it has felt no less than five times, from the commencement of the French revolution to the conclusion of the late general peace.

Besides the interest which Augsburg derives from these events, it participates largely in the manufactures and commerce of the south of Germany. These consist chiefly of paper, gold, silver, jewellery and cottons: it is also distinguished for its book trade, particularly in Catholic literature, and has been noted for its engravings. It is extensively engaged in the commerce between Italy and Germany, and is a central depot for the *Neckar*, *Tyrolaise*, Greek and Italian wines; and by means of its agents and bankers, it is the general medium of exchange between the neighbouring parts of Germany and other countries. *Bayer*, the celebrated astronomer, who first denoted the stars by the letters of the Greek alphabet, was a native of this place. Augsburg is forty miles north-west of *Munich*, latitude $48^{\circ} 17'$ north, and longitude $10^{\circ} 53'$ east, from *Greenwich*.

AUGS-
BURG.
—
AUGUR.

AUGUR.

AUGUR, *v.*

AUGUR, *n.*

AUGURATE,

AUGURATION,

AUGURER,

AUGURIAL,

AUGURIOUS,

AUGURY.

Augurium, quasi *arigerium*; quo

modo *AVES* se EXERCENT in volando.

Vossius. To observe the flight of

birds, then generally their actions.

And consequently to presage, foretell,

predict from observing the

actions of birds; and then

To presage, foretell, predict;

without any reference to birds.

Threes of thyng whiche shall befall

He was the first augur of all.

Greene. Com. Am. book iv.

Their augury also was abused, and the augurers interpreted

every thing as they were compelled.

Mary's Lucas. Annotations on book v.

Well worth of dressings six these old wises

And truly eke, augurie of these fools

For fears of which, such wises lose her lines

As fools qualm, or scribbling of these oles.

Chaucer. Troilus and Criseide, book v. fo. 187. c. l.

AUGUR.

Oh, sir, you are too sure an augurer:

That you did fence is done.

Shakespeare. Antony and Cleopatra, fo. 368.

If your mind dislike any thing, obey. I will forestall their repairs hither, and say you are not ill.

HAM. Not a whit, we define augury, there is a special providence in the fall of a sparrow.

Id. Hamlet, fo. 296.

I did augur all this to him before hand, without pouring into an oxen punch for the matter, and yet he would not be acquiescent.

B. Jonson. Poetaster.

It was thought good and agreed upon, that the gods who had the tuition of those places, should by augury or flight of birds, declare and shew whether of the twaine should both name the city, and also rule the same.

Helmsd's Logy.[Romulus] did ordinarily carry the augurs crooked staff, called in Latin, *Latus*. It is a rod crooked at the end, wherewith the augurs or soothsayers when they sit down to behold the flying of birds, do point out and mark the quarters of the heavens.*North's Plutarch.*

Stones have been known to move, and trees to speak;

Augurers, and vnderstood relations have

By maggot, pyre, and chongles, and rooks brought forth,

The secret man of blood.

Shakespeare. Macbeth, fo. 142.

She spoke, the god of love alone

Sweet'st again, and all the crowd

Of little loves that waited by

Bow'd and bless'd the augury.

Cowley. Ode from Castles.

PON. ——— I shall do well:

The people love me and the sea is mine;

My powers are crescent, and my auguring hope

Says it will come to us full.

Shakespeare. Antony and Cleopatra, fo. 348.

Quintus Fabius Maximus, continued augur sixty years; whence he must needs have lived to some eighty; though in the augurship, nobility was more regarded than age.

Bacon's Works, by Shew.

He deluded many nations in his augurial and extispiculous inventions, from casual and uncontrived contingencies deriving events succeeding.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

Claudius Pulcher underwent the like successes, when he continued the trifling augurship; they did not become the pillars would not feed: but because the devil forewarned their death, he contrived that abstinence in them.

Id.

Augur of ill, whose tongue was never found

Without a priestly curse or boding sound;

For not one bless'd event forth told to me

Fam'd through that mouth, or pass'd unwillingly.

Dryden's Hecate.

Till frowning skies began to change their cheer,

And time turn'd up the wrong side of the year;

The shuddering trees began the ground to strow

With yellow leaves, and bitter blasts to blow.

And auguries of winter thence she drew,

Which by instinct, or prophecy, she knew:

When prudence warn'd her to remove betimes,

And seek a better heaven, and warmer climes.

*Dryden's Hind and Panther.*A favourable inference was drawn from his [the god Terminus's] abstinence, which was interpreted by the *augures* as a sure presage that the boundaries of the Roman power would never recede.*Gibbon's Roman Empire.*

The history of augurs before their introduction to Rome, as an established priesthood, is involved in deep obscurity. We know that the name of the new city was decided by the respective auguries of the twin-brothers who founded it; and that on the institution of the three original Roman tribes, Romulus appointed one augur to belong to each. The discipline is supposed to have been borrowed from Etruria,

the fruitful mother of most Latin superstitions. Numa confirmed this institution of his predecessor; and Servius Tullius, it is thought, when he added a fourth urban tribe, added also a fourth augur to the college. At first they were all patricians, but in the progress of the Roman democracy to power, the ambitious spirit of the tribunes succeeded in invading the exclusive rights, even of the priesthood. In the year of Rome 454, it appears from the account of Livy, (x. vi.) that the number of augurs had been reduced by death to four. There is an obscurity in the words of the historian, which leaves it doubtful what was the precise number of augurs at that time; but it is quite clear that, whatever it was, it was an uneven number, and a multiple of the original number, three. The speech of Decius Mus, who obtained a participation in sacerdotal honours for the plebeians, is still preserved; and is a fine specimen of popular oratory. After its delivery five plebeian augurs were incorporated with the college, which was thus increased to nine. It has been said, (*Alex. al. Alex. v. 19.*) but apparently without authority, that a *senatus consultum* at the same time provided against a greater extension. However this may be, Sylla, in his dictatorship, again enlarged them to fifteen; (*Liv. Ep. lxxxix.*) beyond which number they were never afterwards increased under the republic.

On their first institution the augurs were probably chosen at the *Comitia Curiata*. The election afterwards appears to have been confined to their own body. This privilege was wrested from the college, in the year of Rome 651, by the Tribune Cai. Domitius Enobarbus, an ancestor of the Emperor Nero. On account of a private pique against the pontifices, who had excluded him from the place which his father held among them, he proposed a law by which the right of sacerdotal election was transferred to a select part of the people. Sylla arrogated this law; and it afterwards underwent a variety of repeals and restorations from the tools of Julius Caesar, Antony, and Pansa, until Augustus, for the last time, entirely destroyed its power. Henceforward permission was granted to the emperors to constitute the colleges of priests at their own pleasure, and the augurs continued to flourish till the days of Theodosius.

Romulus himself enjoyed the dignity of an augur; and Cicero, in his book on divination, records that the king was excellently skilled in the art. The same writer has stated that in the earlier days of the republic it was customary to send six sons of the most eminent patricians to Etruria to be educated in the discipline of augury. The custom was confirmed by a decree of the senate; and Fesulæ, the modern Florence, was the nurse of those who were to penetrate the mysteries of fatuity.

The priesthood continued for life; and so great was its dignity, that no crime, however atrocious, and however clearly proved, could lead to deprivation. For this singular privilege Pintarch (*Problems. Rom. 90.*) assigns three reasons. First, that the Romans wished none but augurs to be privy to the mysteries of their religion; secondly, that the oath of secrecy which bound the augurs, would be no longer binding upon one who was reduced to the rank of a private citizen; and thirdly that the title being one of art, not of honour, as it was impossible to take away the

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art, it would be absurd to take away the title. Nevertheless, there were circumstances, according to the same author, which might suspend an augur from active ministry. An open wound or sore rendered an augur unclean. The gods were not to be approached by those whose bodies were polluted, or whose minds were disturbed; and as the priest so affected was not permitted to officiate, so birds, if similarly diseased, were considered to be unfit subjects for augural speculations. To such an extent was this prohibition carried, that auguries were forbidden in those seasons of the year in which the pullets were weak or moulting; and the augurs themselves were carefully prevented from assisting in the rites of sepulture.

The chief augur was styled *magister collegii*, and precedence was always given to age. The duties of the priesthood were prescribed by the *Lex Auguralis*, still extant in the second book of Cicero de *Legibus*: it enjoined the augurs, as public ministers and interpreters of the sovereign will of Jove, to attend to signs and omens, and to anticipate the anger of the gods. Among other things they were to superintend sacrifices, and to declare what victims, what rites, and what prayers were necessary for expiation. These and many points of greater or less importance were to be decided not by a single augur, but by the college at large. The ceremonies at magisterial elections were referred to their judgment; and they could vitiate or confirm the appointments, not only of minor officers, but of *pretors*, *consuls*, and even dictators themselves. Peace and war was resolved upon according to their responses; and they exercised a control over the public mind, which was without an appeal. So important and so honourable an office was naturally an object of no light ambition, and accordingly some of the greatest names in Rome were enrolled in the college. Fabius Maximus held the dignity for more than sixty years: Cato was a member of the priesthood: Cicero was also initiated, and appears to have been well practised in all its secrets; and Augustus and the succeeding emperors, by placing themselves at the head of this, as of all other sacerdotal bodies, contributed not a little to the stability of their power, by the union of religious with civil supremacy.

The costume of an augur, in the performance of his office, consisted of a robe striped with purple, or scarlet, (*trabea palmata*) or a double cloak, (*lana*) and a cap of a conical shape. His head was veiled, and in his right hand he carried a smooth staff, the head of which was curved, like an episcopal crosier. This staff, the *lituus*, was his peculiar badge: its use was to mark out and distribute the several parts of the visible heaven into different houses, (*templa*) and to assign precise imaginary limits to the quarters which he referred to right and left. If the sky was thus separated by the hand, the ceremony was vitiated, and no auguries could be deemed sure. The *lituus* was the ancient regal staff, and that of Romulus is said to have had a double curvature, one at each end.

So arrayed the augur proceeded to some elevated spot, (*ars or tequmna*) and having sacrificed, he either himself uttered a prayer, or repeated the prescribed formula, to prevent the possibility of any mistake, after some one who deliberately rehearsed it to

him. Lary and Varro differ as to the position which he assumed. The former (l. 18.) makes him turn his face to the east, so that the south was on his right, the north on his left. In this statement he is corroborated by Dionysius, (ii. 5.) Varro, on the contrary, places him fronting the south. Whichever way he looked, the parts on his right and left were called respectively *dextra* and *sinistra*: those before and behind, *antica* and *postica*. It is believed that the Etrurians, who divided the heavens into twelve parts, named the west *antica*, because all the movements of the celestial bodies appeared to be towards that quarter. So the east to them would be *postica*, the north, *dextra*, and the south, *sinistra*. Then, with eyes intent upon the sky, amid the silence of the surrounding multitude, lest any thing should break or abstract his fixed contemplation, he waited till some bird appeared; carefully noting down the spot from which it first rose, the course it took, its upward, downward, or horizontal flight, and the point at which it was lost sight of. It was not enough that a single augury should be seen; it was necessary that it should be confirmed by a second. Some have stated that the *magister collegii* alone could take the augury in the first instance, and that he was afterwards assisted by one of the minor priests, (*Alex. ab Alex. xiv.*), but the passage cited from Plutarch, in proof of this assertion, says no more than that it was the chief augur, who performed the inauguration of Numa: a ceremony which, from its importance, it is most probable he would take upon himself, but which no more implies the exclusion of the other augurs from auguries in general, than the coronation of the kings of England by the metropolitan deprives the other archbishop and the bishops of their episcopal functions.

If, in passing from the *ars*, after the reception of an augury, the priest came to any water, he stooped down, and taking some in the palm of his hands, he prayed that the augury might continue firm, as water was supposed to interrupt its efficacy.

Such appears to have been the oldest and most legitimate augury among the Romans. The art was afterwards distributed into five divisions, each of which was equally subject to the decision of the augurs. The first was from appearance in the heavens, as thunder and lightning, meteors, comets, &c. Prosperous auguries of this kind were thunder or lightning on the left, because whatever comes to us from the skies, on our left, is sent by the gods from their right. The Persians and the Greeks, on the contrary, looked on thunder from the right as favourable. (*Xen. Cyr. l. II. ii. 353.*) Again, fortunate signs were deducible by lightning shot from the east, and returning again after a circuit of the sky to the same quarter, a portent which is said to have occurred to the dictator Sylla; or if it struck the earth and seemed to rebound. Lightning in the day time was attributed to Jupiter, in the night to *Somnulus*. (*Pluto*) and such bolts only as Jupiter hunched singly, from himself, were esteemed fortunate in popular belief: those which he emitted during the sitting of a council of the gods were of ill omen; but no rules are laid down by which the difference between the two is to be determined. Thunder with reports even in number portended good fortune.

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The second division of augury referred especially to the notes and the flight of birds. Such birds as gave augury by their chirping were called *ocines*, (as, a mouth, *cano*, I sing) such as by the flying *propetia* (*propetia*, to fly forward). The crow, the raven, and the owl were among the former; the eagle and the vulture among the latter: some, as the pye, belonged to both classes. Birds were also otherwise divided, 1st, *sinister*, which (*sinister*) permitted an attempt; for the *ocines* on the left, it is said were always favourable, (*Alex. ab Alex. v. 13.*); though we know not how to reconcile this belief to the crow of Melibœus, (*Virg. Ec. 1.*) unless by remarking once for all, that the whole art of augury appears to have been a juggle and a mass of uncertainty and contradiction. 2nd, *Funebres*, ill-omened, which were called also *arcule* (*arceo*, I drive away) *clivie* (*clivus*, a difficulty) *remore* (*remoror*, I delay) *inebre* (*inhibeo*, I stop) *ellice*, if they interfered with a former good omen; and *volagre*, (*velo*, I pluck) if by plucking their own feathers they portended ill.

An eagle from the right, particularly if it flew with outstretched and clanging wings, betokened prosperity. Homer in this agreed with the Romans. When Priam set forward to intreat Achilles for the body of Hector, this was the very omen for which, by the advice of Hecuba, he besought Jupiter. (*Il. II. 310.*) An eagle on the right, uttering its note while sitting, was pronounced by an Ephesian augur to appertain to the fortunes of a man who should fill a public office, since it was a bird of command: the office was to be attended with danger, since other birds attack a sitting eagle: and it was not to be lucrative, since an eagle collected its prey while on the wing. The fate of Xenophon verified these predictions. (*Anab. v. 9.*) The eagle which took off the cap of the elder Tarquin and placed it again on his head, portended to him his future sovereignty: while the young brood, which was driven from its feed by vultures, and torn in pieces with its cyrle, equally foretold to him a proud descendant, his exile and dethronement. Before the abdication of the Syracusan Dionysius, it was said that an eagle had snatched a javelin from the hands of one of his body guards, and after bearing it aloft had dropped it into the sea. Claudius and Vitellius each drew encouragement from an eagle; and a victory, which Domitian had won over Antony, his rebellious lieutenant of Upper Germany, though the field of battle was 3500 miles distant, was announced at Rome on the very day of the triumph itself, by an eagle which alighted on the conqueror's statue and uttered cries of joy—nay, some spectators, of warmer imagination, believed that the head of the traitor had been borne in the talons of this auspicious bird. (*Suet. Dom. 6.*)

A concourse of crows, vultures, and eagles, hovered above the troops of Brutus and Cassius, as they took post at Philippi, (*Dion. xlvii.*) and the same birds spoke a note of fearful preparation to Lepidus, by

threatening the temples of the Genius of Rome and of Concord. Cranes, if they were diverted from their flight and turned backward, had already snuffed the storm, and were a sign of woe to mariners. (*Georg. I. Æn. 2.*) The stork is believed by the commentators to have been an omen of concord; but the belief, perhaps, is founded on misapprehension of a passage in Juvenal. The falcon gentle, as the gamesters of the hood and bell would term it, betokens marriage and rich pastures. It was cited by the roothayer Theoclymenus as favourable to Telemachus, (*Od. O. 525.*) and the poet finds no bird of better omen to which he can liken his hero, when he is rushing on to the destruction of Hector, (*Il. x. 139.*) A falcon, too, *coppis*, in the Tuscan language, gave its name to Capua. The pye, the nightingale, and the heron were prosperous if they flew towards either pole: but as Pliny (*ii. 7.*) confidently believed that the heron had but one eye, perhaps he was not more informed upon its celestial than upon its physical habits. Swallows were the precursors of misfortune: they sat on the tent of Pyrrhus, and on the mast of Antony. When the Syrian Antiochus, was about to join battle with the Parthians he disregarded the admonition of a swallow's nest in his pavilion, and paid for his incredulity, or his carelessness, with no less than his life. The dove in company was longed for, when single it was despised. Sailors loved the swan, but she was naught to landmen. The evening crow of the cock struck joy upon the ears of the listener; but evil were his stars who heard the hen attempt to emulate her mate. Of all birds the owl was the most hateful if it screeched: not so if it was merely seen.

Augury, by the feeding of chickens, was the third division of the art. The *pullarius*, or feeder, had the charge of the *corra*, or coop. At the earliest break of dawn, the strictest silence being preserved, he threw grain to the birds. If they did not hurry from the coop, or if coming out they disregarded their food, or carelessly pecked and scattered it, or covered with *their* wings, or crowded and passed by it, the omen was of infinite terror; on the contrary, an eager haste to devour the grain, especially if from greediness it fell from their beaks and rebounded from the ground, making what was called the *tripudium solistimum* (*terram vel solum pascere*, i. e. *ferre*) shewed especial favour of heaven. The profane jest of Publius Claudius, who drowned the chickens which refused to eat, bidding them at least then drink their fill, and his subsequent destruction, is recorded by Valerius Maximus, (*i. 4.*) and by Cicero, (*Nat. Deor. ii. 3.*) as a warning to all unbelieving generals. Any fraud practised by the *pullarius* reverted to his own head. Of this we have an innumerable instance in the great battle between Papirius Cursor and the Samnites in the year of Rome 439. So anxious were the troops for battle, that the *pullarius* dared to announce to the consul a *tripudium solistimum*, although the chickens refused to eat. Papirius nobly and bravely gave the signal for fight, when his son having discovered the false augury hastened to communicate it to his father. "Do thy part well," was his reply, "and let the deceit of the augur fall on himself. The *tripudium* has been announced to me, and no omen can be better for the Roman army and people!" As the troops advanced, a javelin thrown at random struck

AUGUR. the *pullarius* dead. "The hand of heaven is in the battle," cried Pupilius, "the guilty is punished!" and he advanced and conquered.

There were many signs to be derived from animals which came under the fourth division of Augury. A wolf running to the right with his mouth full, was an argument of great joy. (Plin. viii. 92.) A wolf in the Capitol was an ill portent, and occasioned its lustration. (Liv. iii. 29.) The defeat of the Romans at the Trebia was prognosticated by the entrance of a wolf into their camp, and his escape unhurt, after wounding his pursuers: (Liv. xxi. 46.) and still greater calamities of the second Punic war were announced, when a more daring animal of the same breed carried away his sword from a sentinel in Gaul. (Id. 62.) A wolf once put a stop to a plan of colonisation in Libya, by hungrily devouring the landmarks which had been assigned for the new settlement. (Plut. in vita C. Gracchi) but, to make amends for this act, on another occasion, by running away with a burnt sacrifice from the altar, an animal of the same kind led his Samnite pursuers to the spot afterwards occupied, in commemoration of the chase, by the Hirpini, (Festus, ix.) A wolf running away with his slate (*tabula*) from Hiero, when a school-boy, was thought to portend his future greatness.

Swarms of bees, if observed on any public place, as the forum or a temple, were carefully noted, and the ill omen which they were supposed to bring was averted with all diligence by repeated sacrifices. Scipio's tent was polluted by them before the battle of Ticinus. The speaking of oxen, an occurrence, if we credit Livy, by no means uncommon, for he has recorded it eight or nine times, betokened some negligence towards the gods, and demanded copious expiation. Now and then a cow dropped a foal instead of a calf, (Liv. xxiii. 31.) or ran up stairs into the second or third story of a house. Both of these acts were great sources of consternation. Locusts were formidable, not only from the natural devastation which they produced, but from the supernatural vengeance which they threatened. Even the nibbling of mice was not to be disregarded; and it was not only to the divine epics of the starving garretier (Juv. III.) that the teeth of these little marauders were addressed, but they sometimes looked for higher game, and indented the golden crown of the Thunderer himself, (Liv. xxvii. 23. xxx. 2.) nay, their insatiable squeak deprived Fabius Maximus of his dictatorship. (Val. Max. I.) He, whose path in stepping from his threshold, was crossed by a hare, or a pregnant fox, or a bitch, or a snake, or a weasel, would do well to return home; but if he were fortunate

enough to encounter a she goat, let him proceed with a merry heart and think upon Caranus. (Jostin, vii.)

The fifth, and last division of Augury, had respect to *Dire*, a word which scarcely admits of a close translation, and which we must be content to render vaguely, prodigies. Of these Livy will furnish the inquisitive with abundance. He may read of lambs with pigs' heads, and pigs with human faces, (xxvii. 4.) a wonder, which in our own times has been reversed: of weeping images, and bleeding springs, of perspiring gods, and triple-headed donkeys; of armed men and fleets in the skies; of showers of blood, or stones, or flesh, or milk, or chalk; of the mutual transformation of cocks into hens, and hens into cocks; of the shoots of unborn infants foretelling victory from the womb; of double moons and triple suns; of burrowing seas and fish turned up by the ploughshare; of hermaphrodites; of children eyeless, noseless, single-handed, or elephant-headed; of flying stones, and sweating shields; of gore-dropping wheat-sheafs; of inundations, storms, earthquakes, and eclipses. Each and all of these had its peculiar expiation, (*procuratio*) and the skilful Augur would forebode to a nicety what each portended.

A sneeze in the morning was ill omened, and interrupted all the business of the day. At once it was fortunate; and if it occurred after dinner, a dish must be brought back and tasted, to avert misfortune which otherwise was certain. The sneeze of Telemachus was grateful to the ears of Penelope, (Od. 2.) and Xenophon owed his commission to a similar opportune interruption in one of his speeches. The sneeze of Cupid approved the loves of Acme and Septimius. (Catullus, 42.) and it was only to Hippis, who lost by it both his native land and his grinders, that a classical sneeze has been esteemed unlucky. (Herod. vi.)

Flamininus fell from his horse as he approached the banks of Thrasimene. Augustus put on his left sandal awry on the very morning in which he nearly lost his life by a mutiny. Pompey accidentally threw a black cloak over his shoulders on the day of Pharsalia. Nero gave up his expedition to Alexandria, because his robe caught in the seat as he rose to set out. Caius Gracchus stumbled at his threshold on the morning in which he perished; and the son of Crassus, when he took the field against the Parthians, lost a toe by a similar accident.

These are some among the prophetic signs to which the attention of the Augur was directed. Many more may be found in the course of classical reading; and all we may assert, without contradiction, of equal importance, and not less assured certainty.

AUGURY, the art practised by an augur. See AUGUR.

AUGUST: *Augustum proprie dicitur, quod augurum est consecratum eoque sanctum et venerabile*, Vossius.

That, which is consecrated by augury, is properly denominated *august*, and therefore sacred and venerable. Sandys renders *augusta gravitate*, awe-inspiring gravity.

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Scarce had he spoken, when the cloud gave way.

The mists flew upward, and dissolv'd in day.

The Trojan chief appear'd in open sight,

August in visage, and serenely bright.

Dryden's *Virgil*, Æn. 1.

Not with such majesty, such bold relief,

The form *august*, the king or conquering chief,

Ever swell'd on marble; as in verse have shined

(In polish'd verse) the manners and the mind.

Pope. *Imitations of Horace.*

Q

AUGUST.

So when Alcides mortal mould resign'd,
His better part enlarg'd, and grew refin'd,
August his rump'shore; slaugher'd Jove
In his swift car his honour'd offspring drove.

Guy. Ovid. Metam.

Your petitioner humbly presumes, that he has, at least, a common claim to such a person: he has a vote in the most august assembly in the world. *Chatterfield's Petition to the King.*

His other gifts
All bear the royal stamp that speaks them his,
And are august; but this transcends them all.

Cowper's Fanny.

AUGUSTUS, a title of honour bestowed upon Octavius Cæsar, by a vote of the Roman senate, on the proposition of Munatius Plancus, when others wished him to assume the name of Romulus.

Various authorities concur in affirming, that the word Augustus was understood to bear reference to qualities of divinity. Thus Dio expressly speaks of it, *τὸ αὐστὸν τὸ ἡλιὸν ἀποφύρατον ἔχει*. Suetonius derives it *ab aucta, vel ab arium gatu gaturæ*, and cites a line of Ennius to his purpose:

Augusto auspicio postquam incerta coadita Roma est.

Ovid enumerates the various epomies of the chief families of Rome, and then adds of Octavius:

*Sed tamen lausibus celebratur honoribus omnes,
Nec socium summo cum Jove nomen habet.
Sancta vocant AUGUSTA Patres: AUGUSTA vocatur
Templa, sacerdotum rite dicata manus.
Hujus et AUGURUM dependit origine verbi,
Et quodcumque nos Augusti augur opte.*

Festus, l. 607.

A festival in honour of the assumption of this title, and of the pretended abdication of power by Octavius, on the same day, was kept by the Romans on the ides (the 13th) of January. The title was adopted by the succeeding emperors, although Nero was the last who could advance any hereditary claim to the honours of the Julian line. It has since been retained by a long series of emperors Roman, Greek, Frank and German: and the coins of some of the ancient kings of France shew that this title was affected by them also.

Dr. Taylor (*Elements of Civil Law*, p. 36) states that the title of Augustus was, at first, only personal, and implied nothing of sovereignty; having been assumed by several of the imperial family who never were emperors; as by Germanicus. After the time of Dioclesian it was changed into *Semper Augustus*, which title the emperor of Austria now enjoys.

AUGUSTUS, Fort, one of the chain of forts which cross Scotland on the lochs of Inverness-shire. It stands at the west end of loch Ness; having the river Tarff on the south-east, and the Gich on the west. It is a regular fortification with four bastions, and barracks capable of containing 400 men, exclusive of accommodation for officers. It is a neat looking place, surrounded by plantations which give it the appearance of an English country seat. It is garrisoned by invalids, and supplied from Inverness. It is by no means a place of strength, being commanded by the neighbouring hills. It was taken, and much injured by the rebels, in 1746.

AUGUST, the eighth month of the Julian year; anciently called *Sextilis*, because it was originally the sixth in the Roman calendar, till Numa added January and February. Augustus gave it his own name for the following reasons: because in it he had assumed

his first consulship, had celebrated three triumphs, had received the allegiance of the legions which occupied the Janicular hill, had conquered Egypt, and had put an end to the civil wars. Hence he preferred it to his natal month September. (Macrob. Sat. i. 19.)

The Saxons called *August, Wood month*, from the abundance of weeds produced in it.

AUGUSTA, *republic*, in *Ancient Geography*, a title of distinction annexed to several cities. The following are the principal: *Augusta Adia*, a town of the Vin-delici, between the lake of Constance and the Danube; now *Azelburg*. *Augusta Asturica*, now *Astorga* in *Asturia*. *Augusta Auniorum*, now *Aix*, in *Gallie*. *Augusta Beniacum*, now *Padiburg*, in *Upper Bavaria*. *Augusta Batavorum*, now *Hassignau*, near the *Po*. *Augusta Braccorum*, now *Braccara* or *Bruga*, a town of *Portugal*, between the *Minho* and the *Douro*. *Augusta Emerita*, so called because it was colonised by veteran soldiers, now *Merida*, in *Portugal*. *Augusta Gemella*, a town of the *Turduli*, now *Algarva*, in *Portugal*. *Augusta Nora*, a town of the *Arcevali*, supposed to have stood near *Burgoa*. *Augusta Prætoria*, in *Gallia Cisalpina*; so called because colonised by *Prætorian* soldiers, now *Aosta*, in *Fiedmont*. *Augusta Quintanorum*, now *Kintzan*, in *Lower Bavaria*. *Augusta Rauracorum*, now *August*, on the left bank of the *Rhine*. *Augusta Romanorum*, now *Luxembourg*. *Augusta Sacrorum*, now *Solassons* on the *Ain*. *Augusta Taurinorum*, now *Turin*. *Augusta Tiberi*, or *Regium*, on the *Danube*, now *Hegensburg*, or *Kati-hon*. *Augusta Treverorum*, between the *Rhine* and the *Moselle*, now *Treves*. *Augusta Tricarinorum*, on the *Rhone*, between *Avignon* and *Valence*, now *St. Paul de trois chateaux*. *Augusta Trinitatis*, now *London*. *Augusta Fagnanorum*, supposed by some now to be *Vico*, near *Mondovi*, by others to be *Saluces*. *Augusta Feranadorum*, now *St. Quintin*, in *Picardy*. *Augusta Vindelicorum*, now *Augsburgh*.

AUGUSTA, a county of *Virginia*, in *North America*. It is remarkable for a cataract called "the falling spring;" in which the water precipitates itself a height of 300 feet. The population of *Augusta* is nearly 11,000 souls.

AUGUSTA, a town of *Georgia*, in the *United States of America*, on the river *Savannah*, about 236 miles from the sea. It was first colonised in 1739. It is now the seat of government of the province: and is an entrepôt for the commerce between the upper and lower parts of the state. Lat. N. 33° 19', long. W. 80° 46'. Population about 4000.

AUGUSTA, a maritime town, in *Sicily*, on the eastern coast, near the site of the ancient *Megara*. It is joined to the main land by a low causeway with salt ponds on each side. The Order of *Malta* used this town as a magazine for provisions for their navy. It was destroyed by an earthquake, in 1693: but has since been rebuilt with great regularity. Lat. N. 37° 8', long. E. 15° 8'. Population variously stated from 10,000 to 16,000.

AUGUSTA, in *History*, the title of the Roman emperresses while alive. It was sometimes given to the daughters or sisters, as in the case of *Julian* and *Tréjan*.

AUGUSTALES SODALES, priests instituted by *Tiberius* after the apotheosis of *Augustus Cæsar*, to perform the service of the new god. One and twenty of the noblest Romans were chosen by lot to this office; and among the first members were *Tiberius* himself, *Drusus*, *Claudius* and *Germanicus*. *Tacitus*,

AUGUSTALES SODALES.

AUGUST-
TALES
SODALES
—
A-
VIGNON.

in his account of the institution, is guilty of a contradiction. In his *Annals* (l. 54) he states that the priests were appointed in imitation of the *sodales Titii* whom Titus Titius created, on becoming joint king of Rome, in order to retain some of the Sabine rites. In his *Histories* (xl. 95) he speaks of them as appointed in imitation of the priesthood consecrated by Romulus to Titius. The contradiction may be reconciled by supposing that Titius was the founder of this priesthood, and that after his death Romulus employed it in commemoration of the deceased king.

AUGUSTALIA, a festival on which games (*Augustales ludii*) were celebrated, in Rome, annually, on the day of the return of Augustus Cæsar, at the conclusion of all his wars. It was instituted ann. v. c. 735, and kept on the 14th ides (12th) of October. After his decease, the tribunes of the people asked permission to celebrate the festival at their own private expense. This feast must be distinguished from that kept on the birth-day of Augustus, 14th cal. Oct. (23d of September.)

AUGUSTIN, ST. in *Geography*, the capital of East Florida, in North America, a maritime town about eighty leagues from the mouth of the gulph of Florida. Long. W. 81° 40', lat. N. 29° 55'. It is well fortified. Sir Francis Drake burned it in 1586; and the Buccaneers under Captain Davis, in 1685. The English have twice attacked the castle unsuccessfully, once in 1702, when they burnt the town, and again in 1744.

AVIARY, *avis* (from unaltered etymology,) a bird.

A place to confine birds.

Lincolnshire may be termed the *aviary* of England, for the wild fowls therein.

Feller's Worthies, Lincolnshire.

AVICENNIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants. Class *Didynamia*, order *Angiospermia*. Generic character; calyx five-partite, corolla campanulate, limbus four-cleft, the upper division somewhat dissimilar to the rest; germin two-celled, cells two-seeded; stigma two; pericarp two-valved, only one seed perfect.

The *A. tomentosa*, or olive mangrove tree, is a native of both Indies. Brown's *Prodromus*, 518. Bruce's *Travels*, v. 44.

AVICULA, in *Zoology*, a genus of the class *Conchifera*, order *Monomyaria*, family *Mollusca*. Generic character; shell inequivalve, fragile, generally smooth; base transverse, straight; the extremities produced; the anterior caudiform, left valve emarginate. Hinge linear, with one tooth. A tooth also in each valve beneath the nates. Area of the ligament marginal, narrow, channelled; without a byssus.

Of this singular genus Linnaeus appears to have recognised but one species, which he confounded with his *Mytilus*, under the name of *Mytilus hirundo*.

AVIDITY, *Avide*, *aviditas*, from *avere*, *avere*, *Avide*, *avide*. To covet, to desire.

Greediness, eager desire, or appetite.

For nothing is more *avidly* to be desired, than in the sweetest peace of God.

Blair's Image of both Churches, part i.

No writings would have been received with such *avidity* and respect as these: consequently none afforded so great temptation to forgeries.

Paley's Evidences, vol. i. p. 163.

There is no phenomenon in nature more unaccountable, than the intercourse that is carried on between the mind and the external world: there is no phenomenon which philosophical spirits have shown greater *avidity* to pry into and to resolve.

Reid. Of the Human Mind.

AVIGNON, in *Geography*, a city of France, capital of the department Vaucluse. 168 leagues S. E. from

Paris. Long. E. 4° 48', lat. N. 43° 56'. It stands in an extensive plain, on the east bank of the Rhone, and an arm of the river Sorgue runs through it. With the exception of its fine walls, its broken Gothic bridge, and the noble palace of the papal legate, Avignon possesses few architectural beauties. Its circumference is somewhat more than three miles. It contains at present an admirably regulated lunatic asylum, and an hospital of invalid soldiers which lodges 1500 in-pensioners. Its manufactures are silks, saltpetre, oil of vitriol, and aquafortis. Its products, wine, brandy, almonds, olives, oil, saffron, truffes, corn, and wool. Before the French revolution its population exceeded 30,000, but in the latest census they are reduced to 23,311.

Avignon was ceded by Philip III. of France to the See of Rome, in 1273. After the decease of Benedict XII., by the intrigues of France, and through the insubordination of the Romans, the papal court was transferred to Avignon; and the six successive pontiffs Clement V., John XXII., Benedict XII., Clement VI., Innocent VI., and Urban V. made this city their only abode. The intrigues of Petrarch were often addressed to the four hat, in the hope of recalling the expatriated bishops to their ancient and peculiar diocese. He was well acquainted with Avignon, which had been the residence of his father; and the celebrated fountain of Vaucluse, but a short distance from its walls, has been immortalised by the complaints of unreturned love which he poured in its waters. The tomb of Laura is still shewn in the church of the Cordeliers, at Avignon; and her husband Hugh de Sade sleeps there by her side. The reproaches uttered by Petrarch against the city which detained the Popes from Rome, are bitter in the extreme. He speaks of it as the sink of vice and corruption, as an object of universal hatred and contempt, as barbarous, and as the mystic Babylon. Yet for seventy years, from 1309, it continued to be the seat of the head of the Christian church; and after the death of Gregory XI. who returned once more to the Vatican, on the commencement of the great schism of the west, during forty years more, the two rival pontiffs of the day thundered their respective excommunications against each other from the banks of the Rhone and of the Tiber. The election of Martin V. terminated the distraction, and Rome once again became the single metropolis of Christendom.

The convenient posture in which Avignon lay for the correction of the kings of France whenever they were offended with the Holy See, led them to style it the *verrière du Pape*, and its position and easiness of access threw it entirely upon their mercy. It was twice seized by Louis XIV.: once in 1609, when the French ambassador at Rome had been insulted by the Corsican guards; and again, in 1688, in consequence of his disagreement with Innocent XI. The Count de Grignan, the husband of Madame de Sevigné's daughter, held it as viceroy for two years, and many of Madame de Sevigné's letters written at that time are addressed to Avignon. In the early period of the French Revolution it was a scene of much bloodshed, and a tower is still shewn from which the half-murdered victims of republican funnism were thrown to put an end to their sufferings. The efforts of the revolutionary faction prevailed, and it was annexed to France, and included in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, in 1791. Its destiny was finally determined by the treaty of Tolentino; and

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AVILE.

on its formal cession by the Pope, it received its present distribution. It is now the seat of a bishop, whose diocese contains the departments of Vnuculue and the Gard; and, in 1803, no university, was established in it under the name of a Lyceum.

AUJILAH, an oasis in the great Sahara, or Lybia Desert, in lat. 29° 30' N. and long. 22° 50' E. described by Idrisi, as "a small, enclosed and populous town, frequented occasionally by merchants. Towards the desert side it is surrounded by corn-fields and palm-groves. It is on the high road to many parts of Negroland, such as Kawkar and Kûkû. It is a difficult road, and little frequented. Its inhabitants have their water from pools." (Idrisi, MSS. *Clin.* iii. part 3. *Geogr. Nuk.* p. 99.) Hornemann, who passed through it in 1798, says, "there are three towns in the territory of Aujilah, the capital of that name, Mojabrah, and Meledilah; the two latter are near each other, and both about four hours distant from Aujilah. That city is about a mile in circumference; ill built, though of stone, dirty, and wretched. Mojabrah is smaller, but more populous, its inhabitants are principally engaged in commerce, as those of Meledilah are in agriculture. The women are skillful weavers, and export their cloths to Fezzân. The soil round the towns is sandy, but fertile when well watered. It is subject to Tripoli, and the bey of Ben-ghazi was resident there during Hornemann's visit. (*Voyage de Hornemann par Langlès*, i. 73.)

AVILA, in Geography, a province of Spain, in Old Castile. It is divided into eleven jurisdictions, and contained, in 1787, 113,792 inhabitants. Its chief town of the same name stands on the river Adaga: it is strongly fortified and was once among the richest cities of Spain, but is now in decay. Long. W. 4° 35', lat. N. 40° 45'. Population 4000. Distance from Madrid 50 miles N.W.

Avila is known in history as the scene of the deposition of Henry IV. of Castile: of which the historian Mariana has given the following account. The nobility having assembled in a plain without the walls, a spacious theatre was erected. An image representing the king was seated on a throne, clad in royal robes, with a crown on its head, a sceptre in its hand, and the sword of justice by its side. The accusation against the king was then read, and the sentence of deposition was pronounced. At the close of the first article of the charge the Archbishop of Toledo advanced, and tore the crown from the head of the image; at the close of the second, the Conde de Placentia snatched the sword of justice from its side; at the close of the third, the Conde de Beoventh wrested the sceptre from its hand; at the close of the last, Don Diego Lopes de Stougnid tumbled it headlong from the throne. At the same instant, Don Afonso, Henry's brother, was proclaimed King of Castile and Leon to his stead. (Marian. xxiii. 9.)

AVILE, Fr. *aviler*, to disprize, disesteem, imbase, make vile or cheap, to pull down the price of, to bring to a low price. Cotgrave.

The biosops, as he made monte, bi genno hom bi as
And the Sunday of the passion amaneado all the,
That avoided to holl church, that said riste was so fre.

R. Gloucester, p. 496.

Repeated wrongs. I am cause thou now shall live
Abnormally, far being depreat a while,
Want makes us know the price of what we writ.

Ben Jonson's *Marques*.

AVINGTON, in the county of Berks, a rectory valued in the King's books at £8. Patron, Sir Francis Bardett, Bart. Population, in 1811, 64. Poor's rates in 1803, at 1s. 8d. in the pound, £20. 18s. 9d. 3 miles E. from Hungerford.

AVINCUN, in the county of Southampton, a rectory valued in the King's books at £11. 11s. 10½d. Patron, the King and the Bishop of Winchester alternately. Population in 1811, 164. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 1s. 10d. in the pound, £29. 18s. 5½d. 3 miles N. E. from Winchester.

AVIS, a bird. *Aves*, in Natural History, form the second class of animals. See DIVISION II. ZOOLOGY.

AVISION, used for Visio.

Dame Periclete, I say you trowely,
Macrobius, that writ the *avision*
In Affrike of the worthy Scipio,
Aftereth dremes, and sayth that they bea
Warning of thinges, that men after sech.
Chaucer. *The Nonnes Preestes Tale*, vol. ii. p. 187.

The kinge of this *avision*
Hath great imagination,
What thinge it signifie maie.

Geogr. Cos. *Ant.* book viii. p. 264.

AVIZE, see AVIZEL. The following examples may farther illustrate the explanation there given.

Where force might not aalle, there shights and art
Shew east to we, both fit for hard emprise;
For—thy, from that same roome not to depart
Till morrow next, she did herelle *avize*,
When that same make squire should forth arise.

Spenser's *Ferris Queene*, book iii. c. 12. s. 28.

Britomarte with sharpe *avizing* eye
Beheld the lovely face of Artigall,
Temperd with sternesse and stout maiestie.

Id. book iv. c. 6. s. 26

Fond squire, fell angry then said Paridell,
Seest not the lady there before thy face!
Hee looked backe, and by her *avizing* well,
Went d, as he said, by that her outward grace,
That fairest Florinell was present there in place.

Id. book iv. c. 2. s. 22.

He lookt askew with his mistrustful eyes,
And nicely trode, as thornes lay in his way,
Or that the flore to shrink he did *avize*,
And on a broken reed he still did stay
His feble steps, which shrank, when hard thereon he lay.

Id. book xiii. c. 17. s. 10.

Sing. 'Tis a great charge to come under one body's hand.
Que. Are you now o' that! you shall find it a great charge.
Shakespeare's *Merry Wives of Windsor*, fol. 43.

Great Atlas of the state, descend with me,
But hither, and this vault shall furnish thee
With more *avize*, than thy costly sygne,
And show how faire we sell those mysteries
Thy secret receivers, and though the palace swell
With envied pride, 'tis here that thou must dwell.

Hekington. *Castara*, part II.

I cannot cry his exact up enough:
He is unvaluable: all the lords
Have him in that esteem, for his relations,
Corrante, *avize*, correspondence.

Ben Jonson. *Magnetic Lady*, fol. 18.

I had yours of the tenth current: & besides your *avize*, I
must thank you for those rich flourishes wherewith your letter was
embroider'd every where. Howell's *Letters*, p. 395.

AUKBOROUGH, in the county of Lincoln, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £10. Patron, the Bishop of Lincoln. Population, in 1811, 368. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 2s. 6d. in the pound, £233. 17s. 2½d. 10½ miles W. from Bartoo on Humber.

AULACUS, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order Hymenoptera, family Eucnidae. Generic character;

AVING-
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AULA-
CUS.

AULACUS
—
AUNT.

Abdomen ellipsoid, the base insensibly narrowed to a pedicle, which is inserted at the extremity of a pyramidal elevation of the metathorax. Latreille *Jurine*.

AULAS, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, allied to *Protea*, containing two species, natives of the Cape of Good Hope. Brown in *Trans. of the Linn. Soc.* vol. x. p. 49.

AULIC COUNCIL, a jurisdiction of the German empire, established by Maximilian I. in 1502, to counterbalance the authority of the Imperial Chamber. It is called *Aulic*, because it follows the emperor's court *aula*. The emperor names all the members, consisting of a president, vice-president, and an unlimited number of councillors; six of whom at least must be Protestants. All points relating to feudal rights and the reserved territories of the emperor in Italy are arranged by this Council. The decrees of the Aulic Council are without appeal; and in order to prevent any collision with the emperor's will, it sometimes contents itself with making a Report to him in the form "*fiat totum ad Cæsarem*." Piccoli *Abbrégé*.

AULIS, in *Ancient Geography*, a seaport town of Boeotia, on the Euripus, opposite to Chalcis in Euboea. Here the Greeks were detained by cross winds in the commencement of their expedition to Troy; nor could they sail till the anger of Diana, whose favourite stag had been killed by Agamemnon, had been appeased by the sacrifice of his daughter Iphigenia. When Pausanias visited it, he was shewn the knoll on which the tent of Agamemnon had been pitched, and a piece of the plane tree described by Homer (*Il.* β. 303.), as standing by the fountain of Diana near her altar, on the spot on which Chalcas interpreted the prodigy of the sparrow and her eight young. Aulis is now reduced to a village, the name of which, Vathi, is derived from a deep bay (*Bathos*) close to it; in which probably the Grecian fleet anchored, for the port of Vathi itself will not contain more than fifty ships.

AULT, or HAULT HUCKNALL, in the county of Derby, a discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £6. 0s. 6d. Patron, the Duke of Devonshire. Population, in 1811, 511. 7½ miles S. E. from Chesterfield. 5½ miles N. W. from Mansfield.

AUNCLE WRIGHT, *anase*, a handle; whence corruptly handsole or sunnel, an ancient balance, now disused and forbidden by statute.

AUNSHY, in the county of Lincoln, a rectory, valued in the King's books at £6. 0s. 7½d. Church dedicated to St. Thomas a Becket. Population, in 1811, 100. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 2s. 1½d. in the pound, £73. 7s. 4d. 5½ miles N. W. from Foulkingham.

AUNT, *Fr. Tante*. Lat. *Amia*, prefixing the letter T. Menage. *Amia* is perhaps *avita*, *velut altera avita*, and *avensula*, *quasi altera, avic erigens*, *AVES*. Vossius.

*here ye quene here aunte in hatails be none,
And shule in threys gowne, and be kyndom.*

Deliden bi threys barn, and eyer ys part stom.

R. Gloucester, p. 37.

*The sentances wif hire aunte was,
But for all that she knew hire never the more.*

Chaucer. The Man of Lawes Tale, v. l. p. 218.

The wisest aunt telling the wisdest tale,

Sometime for three foot stoole, mitcheth me;

Then slip I from her bum, down topples she;

Shakespeare. Midsummer Night's Dream, fo. 148.

The rest of my aunts, my mother's sisters, were dispersed to several places where they grew up till my uncle Sir John St. John, being married to the daughter of Sir Thomas Lalin, they were all again brought home to their brother's house.

Memoirs of Col. Huchinson.

AVOID,
AVOIDABLE,
AVOIDANCE,
AVOIDER,
AVOIDLESS.

It. *roto, from vacuus, vacuus, rocus, rofus, roto, rotere*. Gall *void* and *voider*. Menage. Wachter thinks that the *Fr.* is formed from *ode, de-* solate, from *oden, oeroden*, to de-

AVOID.

To empty, to clear out, to evacuate, to go out of, to move or turn away from, to eschew, to leave, to quit, to escape.

To empty, to clear or free from power or effect, to make or render of none effect, to abrogate, to annul.

What chance is more to a Jew? or what profit of circumstance? mych bi al wine, first for the spekyngs of god wrenn bishens in henn. And what if sunne of henn bishens not? what the unbelieve of henn hath avoidid the feith of god? god forbede.

Wiclif. Romayne, chap. 3.

And if the myseystrelous of deeth writen bi lettre in stoones was in glorie, so that the children of isreal myghten not biholden into the face of moines for the glorie of his cheer which is *avoidid*, how schal not the myseystrelous of the syppe be more in glorie?

Id. J. Cerynth, chap. iii.

But Tyndall, as he despyeth the towe, so despyeth he the tother too, and with some fonde glowe will *avoid* the gospell and all, and then goe boldly furth with his saythe, and boaste it, and saye, this faith and knowlege is everlasting lyfe.

Sir Thom. More's Works, fo. 530. c. 2.

Tell me by your faith, doe you beleve that there is a buying God, that is mighty to punish his enemies? If you beleve it, say unto me, can you devise for to *avoid* his vengeance, which be so openly contrary to his word?

Bernard, fo. 187. c. 2.

Wherefore the sayd Eldrich perceyvyng the murmur and grudge amonge the people, and feryng his sodayne destruction, consayled with a frende and lorde of his, named Gynymadus or Gynymedus, by whose consayle in *avoidyng* greiver parrill, he *avoided* secretly his lande, and yode unto the kyngs of Thaurys named Besnyne, of whom he was loyally resceyved. Felgyn.

Yet the variations are not so considerable, but that they may probably enough be sacrificed to some such want of exactness as in such nice experiments is scarce avoidable.

Bayle. Def. of Doctrine of Spring and Wright of Air, pt. ii. ch. 3.

I have lost my voice with the very sight of this gentlewoman. Good sir, steal away, you were wost to be a curious observer of women's company.

Brommont and Fletcher. Hon. M. Fortune, act. iv. sc. 1.

For on a holy day common prayers being kept in Rome, upon some suspicion or false report, they made proclamation by sound of trumpet, that all the Volces should avoid out of Rome before sun set.

North's Placard.

Avoid then brood, what tel'st thou me of supping?

Thou art, as you are all, a scorceene!

I comiars the to livee mee and beyond.

Shakespeare. Com. Errors, fo. 24.

Not dissident of thee do I dismisse

Thy absence from my sight, but to avoid

Th' attempt it self intended by our foe.

Milton. Par. Lost, book ix.

I will my self conduct thee so thy way,

When the next nothing sun indicates the day;

When the dry herbage thirsts for dew in vales,

And sheep, in shades, avoid the parching plain.

Dryden's Virgil.

She too when ripen'd years she shall attain,

Most of avoidless right, be yours again!

I but the transient use of that require.

Which soon, too soon, I must resign entire.

Congreve. Ovid's Metamorphoses, book x.

Nor can a man pray from his heart that God would not lead him into temptation, if he take no care of himself to avoid it.

Memoirs on Self-knowledge.

But if two presentations be offered to the bishop upon the same avoidance, the church is then said to become *illicitus*; and if nothing further be done, the bishop may suspend the admission of either, and suffer a lapse to incur.

Blackstone. Commentaries, vol. 3.

AVOID.

AVON.

All those violent emotions that urge us on to pleasure, or to the avoidance of pain, by a blind impulse, were by the schoolmen referred to what they called the sensitive appetite, because they seemed to partake more of the senses than of reason.

Brutius's Moral Sciences.

AVOIRDUPOIS, for the account of this weight, see AVERDUPOIS.

AVOIRDUPOIS, or HAVREDEPOISE. *Avoir de pois* (says Minshew), is good French; i. e. *habere pondus*, to have weight, (as a fixed or standard weight.)

The prince himself is such another; the weight of an hayre will turn the scales between their *habere-de-pois*.

Shakespeare. 2 part Henry IV.

AVOKE, } *Arcoo*, *arocant*, I call from;
A'VOCATE, } from *a*, and *voco*, I call; usually
A'VOCATION. } now *evocate*.

AVOCATIONS, generally applied to those engagements employments or businesses which call for our time and attention.

From hence it is evident, that all secular employment did not *hinc ipso* *avocate* a clergy-man from his necessary office and duty; for some secular employments are permitted him, all causes of piety, of charity, &c.

We have written to your Grace in our common letter, for a confirmation of many inconveniences and dangers which we persuaded to his Holiness, to follow both to himself and to the See Apostolick, in case his Holiness should avoid the cause.

Burnet's Reform Records, v. 1.

In the time of health, visits, businesses, cards, and I know not how many other *avocations*, which they justly stile diversions, do succeed one another so thick, that in the day there is no time left for the distracted person to converse with his own thoughts.

Bayle's Occasional Reflections.

For what is a scholar, but one who retireth his person, and avoucheth his mind from other occupations, and worldly entertainments.

Barrow's Sermons.

'Tis true, when beauty dawns with early fire,
And hears the flattering tongues of soft desire,
If not from virtue, from his gravest ways
The soul with pleasing *avocations* strays.

Fennell's Poems.

Besides the advantages already mentioned, I here enjoy a more profound retirement, as I am at a further distance from the business of the town, and the interruption of troublesome *avocations*.

Melmoth. Pind's Letters, v. 1. p. 223.

AVOLATION, *Avolo*, *avolatum*, I fly away from; from *a*, and *volo*, I fly.

These strumpets, or the fuscous parcels about candles, only signify a glorious air, blustering the *avolation* of the frivolous particles.

Sir T. Browne. Fulger Errors.

AVON, *Afon*, Cambro Brit. a river. The name of several rivers in England. The Upper or Warwickshire Avon rises in Northamptonshire, and flowing by Warwick Castle and Stratford on Avon, the birth place of Shakespeare, meets the Severn at Tewkesbury in Gloucestershire.

The Lower or Wiltshire Avon rises near Wootton Bassett in Wiltshire, and becoming navigable for barges at Bath, enters the Severn below Bristol. This river during the Heptarchy, was the boundary between the West Saxon and Mercian kingdoms, and many bloody actions were fought upon its banks.

Avon, another Wiltshire river, rises in the centre of the county, flows through Amesbury and Salisbury, becomes navigable in Hampshire, and enters the English Channel at Christ Church.

AVON, a river of Glamorganshire; it rises in the north of the county, and falls into the Severn at Aber Avon, six miles S. W. of Neath.

AVON or AVON VANE, a river of Merionethshire; it

rises near Bala, flows through Dolgelly, and enters the Irish Channel at Barmouth.

AVON, a river of Scotland, which issues from a lake of the same name, at the foot of Cairngorm mountain, in the county of Banff, and falls into the Spey.

AVON, a river of Scotland, in the county of Lanark, which falls into the Clyde near Hamilton.

AVON, a river of Scotland, the boundary between the counties of Stirling and Liddisburgh. It falls into the frith of Forth west of Borrowatounness.

AVON, a river of Nova Scotia, which falls into the Atlantic a little eastward of Halifax. It is navigable as far as Fort Edward, for vessels of 400 tons.

AVO'UCH, *v.* } Fr. *Avouer*, from Lat. *advocare*.

AVO'UCH, *n.* } Menage. See *AVOCATE*.

AVO'UCHER, } To avow, to avouch, approve,

AVO'UCHMENT, } allow of, warrant, authorise; defend, protect; undertake, answer for, own, acknowledge, confess to be, take as or for his own. Cotgrave.

And this I dare *avouch*, that if any interpreter should in some places see as brief in the English translation as the author in the Latin: he should make thereof but a derbe piece of *avouch*.

Edith. To the most virtuous lady most gracious Queen Katherine.

Such authors and *avouchers* of thynges, and the prouery of the same thynges to such an ende and purp as afore is said, doeth not suffer vs to doubt, neither of the thynges that have passed before our tyme, as yet of such thynges, as for many hundredes of yeres to come are promised. *Id. Luke, chap. 1.*

But I assured much that master Moore being a great learned man, would not for the *avouchment* of his credit, and the truth of so great a matter, assege so much as the testimony and authentication of some one author, for the prouing of his assertions.

Draughton, vol. 1.

Id.

With bare-fac'd power sweep him from my sight,

And bid my will *avouch* it.

Shakespeare. Macbeth, p. 140.

What? thrust you me with telling of the king?

I will *avouch* it: is it presence of the king?

I dare adventure to be sent to his tower.

Shakespeare. King Richard III. fo. 177.

I dare boldly *avouch*, that the English is not altogether so natural to a native as their Latin. *Mr. Hall's Postscript to his Sermons.*

Wee *avouch* the power and authority of Goddes holy wordes, for that the same it is trodden downe, the more it groweth.

David's Defence of the Apologie.

By laying the foundation of his defence on the *avouchment* of that which is so manifestly untrue, he hath given a worse deal of his own cause, than when his whole forces were at any time overthrown.

Milton's Answer to Eikon Basilike.

Even Cardinal Bellarmine can abide to come in as an *avouch*er of these censures; who does avow, that his fellow Xavier had not only healed the deaf, dumb, and blind, but raised the dead.

Mr. Hall's Answer of Travel.

For lo! from yonder turret yet *avouch*'d,

Your valiant feathers stand, your worth to see;

T' *avouch* your valour, if you live to gale;

And if we die, that we dy'd not in vain.

David. History of the Civil War, book vi.

Mon. Before my God, I might not thus believe

Without the sensible and true *avouch*

Of mine own eyes.

Shakespeare. Hamlet, fo. 152.

I dare *avouch*, that he who believes not upon Christ's resurrection from the dead, would scarce believe, that he rose from the dead himself.

South, v. 2. Sermon viii.

We read the words thus; If I regard iniquity in my *avouch*, God will not hear me. But the Septuagint has it, *qui avouchetur in peccatis*; that is, let not God hear me. And so they are David's *avouchment* of his unrighteousness, by an imprecation, or calling for a curse upon himself, namely, God's not hearing his prayers, in case he was not really so upright, as in his words he did protest himself to be.

Id. Sermon 10. v. 9.

AVON.

AVOUCHE.

AVOUCHE. St. John's gospel is expressed to come, to speak, to act in God's name, because in did God's business, (the work which God gave him to accomplish,) and entirely sought the glory of God as he there himself often avouches and professes.

Burrow's Sermons

AVOW, v.

AVO'W, n.

AVO'WABLE,

AVO'WAL,

AVO'WED,

AVO'WEDLY,

AVO'WER,

AVO'WAY.

Lat. *coveo*, I vow, or promise, vel a *βεβαιω*, confirmo, vel a *βέω*, clamo, exclamo. Vide Vossius.

To promise, or declare, strongly or loudly; to protest or affirm.

Thou beak his avow, but he to God had sworn,
For a break or a bowe just he forgot before.

R. Browne, p. 112.

Why? quod this yeman, wherto xas ye me?

God helpe me so, for he shal never the;

(But I wol not avowen that I say,

And therefore kepe it secree I prey)

He is to wise in fals, as I beleve.

Chaucer. The Chaucer's Yeman's Prologue, v. li. p. 229.

For I my daughter shall to morrow

To here and here in the service,

To longys of thy sacrifice

Through myn avow, so as it is.

Gower. Con. Am., book iv.

And in thy temple I wol my laser long,

And all the armes of my compaignie,

And erromore, until that day I die

Eternel dre I wol before thee fride,

And eke to this avow I wol me binde.

Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, v. l. p. 96.

And whanne the dai was come rumme of the ieris gaderiden
hem and maden a row, and seiden, that thei schulden neither eten
ne drynke til thei shoven poude, and thei werten to the pyrces
of prentis and eldre men and seiden, with deuocioun we han avowed,
that we schulen not taste any thing til we steen poude.

Wiclif. Dedis. chap. xxiii.

After manye gheeris I can to do almedie to my folk, and
offeringe and avowis, in whiche thei founden me purified in the
temple, not with compaignie neither with noise.

Id. Ib. chap. xxiv.

If a criminal be allowed counsel, he would be scorned if he
should serve his advocate as a real patron of his crime, when he
only says what he can to alleviate the sentence.

Taylor's Poetical Discourses. Epit. Deid.

When any heterodox or irregular doctrine shall be let fall, let
it be taken at the first rebound; and the author and avowor fairly
denit withal, and strongly convinced of his error; that he so may,
by all gentle and loving persuasions, be reclaimed, before the
leaves of his misopinion have spread any further, to the scouring of
others.

Ep. Hall's Peace Maker.

— If Dagon be thy god
Go to his temple, invoke his aid
With solemn devotion, spread before him
How highly it concerns his glory now
To frustrate and dissolve these magic spells,
Which I to be the power of Israel's God
Swore, and challenge Dagon to the test,
Offering to combat thee his champion hold,
With th' utmost of his godhead seconded.

Milton. Samson Agonistes.

I follow'd nature's laws, and must avow
I broke my bonds and tied the fatal blow.

Dryden. Virgil's Æneid.

This management, when no reasonable reason could be given for
it, gave suspicious and refining persons occasion to throw out a
great deal of slander.

Bolingbroke.

Avowedly to neglect doing what they ought, is too shocking a
behaviour to sit easy upon the minds of men.

Secker's Sermons.

Every human creature has vanity. The only difference is, that
some people discover any, and others avow it.

Chatterfield. letter 456.

There is nothing that tends more to excuse, if not justify, the
extreme rigour of the Commons towards Charles, than his open
encouragement and avowal of such general principles as were al-
together incompatible with a limited government.

House's History of England.

AVOWEE, see AVOWOR.

AVOWAY, in Law, is a plea of a defendant in *Replevin*,
which action lies for the restitution, with damages, of
goods unlawfully seized, and is most commonly re-
sorted to, where undue distress has been taken for rent,
or where cattle have been wrongfully impounded. The
very learned author of the *Commentaries* has fallen
into the error of supposing (b. lii. ch. 9.) that this
action lies only in "a wrongful distress;" an error
justly remarked by Lord Redcrosse. (See 1 Sch. and
Lef. 357.) The party aggrieved, on making his plaint
to the sheriff, receives his goods, entering into secu-
rities to prosecute his suit, and if cast in it, to return
the goods again. The suit may be tried in the sheriff's
court, or removed by process into the superior courts.
The plaintiff delivers his *declaration*, as in other actions,
and the formal answer thereto, on the defendant's
part, is the *avowry*; i. e. an avowal and justification,
setting forth the right whereby he defends the seizing
the plaintiff's goods, (as rent due, or that the cattle
impounded were trespassing, &c.) The defendant is
also called the *avowor*. If the defendant justifies, not
in his own right, but as servant or bailiff to another,
it is then not called an *avowry*, but a *coignizance*. The
plaintiff's reply to the defendant, is in this action
called a *plea*; a name in other suits confined to the
matter of defence.

AVOYER, advocatus, see AVOWOR. It is written
corruptly, and ought to be *advoyf* or *areyf*. Originally
the advocate of a monastery. In after times it became
an office of dignity. We find Rodolph, Count of
Hapsburgh, appointed *Aroyer* of Upper Germany by
the emperor Otho in 1209, on his departure to be
crowned at Rome. But the proper German title
Schultheiss (*scultetus*) is of Lombardic origin. *Aroyer*
also was the title of the highest officers of state in the
aristocratic cantons of Switzerland. In Berne, which
in leading points, may be accepted as the model of the
others, two *avoyers* were elected by the votes of the
sovereign council during pleasure. One only of the
two exercised the functions of head of the republic;
and they alternately exchanged them on Easter
Monday. The *avoyer* in office presided both in the
council and the senate; in each of which however,
he had no more than a casting vote. The great seal
of the republic was in his custody, and a provincial
jurisdiction was annexed to his office.

AVRANCHES, a city of France in Lower Nor-
mandy, capital of the department of La Manche. It
stands on a hill near the river Seez, 222 miles W. of
Paris. Long. W. 1° 17'. Lat. N. 48° 41'. Within this
city Henry II. of England received absolution from the
Pope's uncle for the murder of Thomas a Becket.
The stone on which he kneeled is still shewn to stran-
gers. Before the revolution it was the seat of a Bishop;
and its mitre was once worn by the celebrated Huet.
Its chief traffic is in grain, flax, hemp, cattle, butter,
salt and cyder; for the last of which articles it is dis-
tinguished. Population 6000.

AURANG-ABAD, a province in the Deccan, be-
tween the 16th and 21st degrees of north latitude. It
has the Sûnahs of Gujjarat, Khândesh and Berar on
its northern frontier; the latter and Haidar-âbâd;

AVOW.

AURANG-

ABAD.

AURANG-BĠġġūr and Bāder on the east, and the sea on the west.

This country first became a province of the Mogul Empire in the reign of Shāh Jēhān, (A. N. 1633.) when the fortress of Daulat-ābād, at that time the capital, was taken by the Sāhāb-dār of Khāndeish, and the short lived dynasty of Melik Amber was terminated by the abdication of his son. Under the preceding sovereigns of the Nizām Shāh family, it was called the province of Ahmednagar from the town which was then its capital; but when Aurang-zib had been appointed by his father vice-roy of the Deccan, he fixed upon the town of Garkah, near the former capital, as the place of his residence, and named it Aurang-ābād: from it the province also obtained the same name. It is in general a mountainous tract of country, especially where it is crossed by the western G'āts, and abounds in those almost inaccessible fastnesses, the hill-forts; which so often baffled the skill of the Moghuls, and were of the greatest service to the Mahrattas, in their struggles for independence. Rice, the great staple of Hindū agriculture, and horses of a hardy but ill-made breed, are the chief productions of this province, which is said to be on the whole fertile. It is far from having a population proportionate to its size and fertility; for the oppressive and improvident conduct of the Mahrattah government acts as a constant check upon the improvement of the country and the increase of its inhabitants; and to that cause also their predatory character may in a great measure be ascribed. It is now divided between the Mahrattas and the Nizām; three-fourths of it belonging to the former, and the remainder to the latter. Its principal towns are Aurang-ābād, Ahmed-nagar, Daulat-ābād, Jāldāpūr, with Damann (Daman) and Bassen (Bast) on the coast. The islands of Bombay and Salsette were included in this province. The Hindū idolatry is the religion of much the greater number of the inhabitants, and the famous caverns of Kārlī and Ellōra, those remarkable monuments of their mythology, are in this province. The Mahrattah is the common language of the whole province, the Kankana that of the coast; and the Persian and Hindū are spoken by the higher classes. See DECCAN, AHMED-NAGAR, MAHRATTAS. (Dow, jil. 149. Rennell, 213. Hamilton's East India Gazetteer.)

AURANG-ABAD, formerly the capital of a province of the same name in the Deccan, in lat. 19° 46' N. long. 76° 3' E. When the Mahrattas of Pūnah had become formidable, this town was too near the confines of their territory to be a comfortable residence for the Nizām, sovereign of the Deccan; they therefore removed to Haider-ābād, their present capital. Like most other Asiatic cities, its prosperity fell on the removal of the court; and it appeared little better than a heap of ruins when Col. Fitzclarence saw it in 1817. There are still the remains of a splendid palace built by Aurang-zib; and the mausoleum of that emperor is only a few miles distant. It is 284 miles from Bombay and 1022 from Calcutta. (Tieffen-thaler's *Hindustan*, l. 543. Fitzclarence's *Journal of a Route, &c.* Tavernier's *Travels*, for its condition when flourishing.)

AURANTIUM, see CITRUS.

AURASIUS, Mons., a part of the great chain of Mount Atlas, in the territory of Algiers and province of Kostantinah. It is the Audon and Audus of Ptolemy,

and is called Jabel Aurās (corruptly spelt Aurez, Eures, Eyre), by the Arabs. Bruce here met with an independent tribe differing in features and appearance, from their neighbours, and called Nardie; he supposes them to be a relic of the Vandals. (Bruce, i. 37. Hartmann's *Edrisi Africa*, 239.)

AUREAT, } Lat. *Aureus*, which Voissins, after *Aur'raotes*, } Scaliger, thinks is the Greek *aureos*, from some ancient Greek word (subsisting in *Θεογονία*) signifying brightness, splendour.

Aureate, golden, is a word much used by the elder Scotch poets.

My words unglaz'd but be as white and plume
Of aurore poems they was illuminyng
But by them to knowlege ye may stayne
Of this lorde's dētie and of his mardryng.

Scotlan.

And sun departs in fresh rede and quhyte,
Sum brecht as gold with aurore's blye.

Douglas *Kenned*. Prologue to book xii. p. 401.

Great are the oceans, with drow'd beauty crown'd
And barbarous wealth, that each circling year,
Returning suns and double seasons pass:
Rocks rich in gems, and mountains big with mines,
That on the high equator ridgy rise,
Whence many a bustling stream *aureifer* plays:

Thomson, *Summer*.

AURELIA, in Zoology, a genus of the class Radiaria, order Flaccida. Generic character: body arbuticular, transparent, furnished with arms underneath, and tentacula at the circumference. No peduncle. Months four, central, inferior.

The *Aurelia* differ from the genus *Cassiopeia* in constantly possessing tentacula at the circumference, and in never having more than four months and as many arms. *Medusa Tyrhena*, and *M. Crucigera* of Gmelin belong to this genus.

AUREOLA, aureus, of the colour of gold. The crown of glory given by painters to the Holy family, the Apostles, Saints, Martyrs and Confessors.

AUREUS, a Roman gold coin = 35 denarii = 100 sesterces. It is called by the writers of the middle ages *solidus aureus*, because the later emperors coined $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$ of it called *semisses* and *tertisses*. Arbutant (table xxv.) makes the *aureus* equal to £1. On. 9d. of our money.

AURICHALCHUM, or ORICHALCHUM, *spes* an mountain, *xelav*, brass; mountain brass. The mixed metal now called brass. Virgil and Horace have it as *aurichalcum*. (Æn. xii. 87. *Ægid ad Pū*, 302.) Plautus has *aurichalcum*. (*Miles Gloriosus*, act. iii. sc. 1. 64.) The *aurichalcum flavum* was made upon the same basis as the modern brass; but the *aurichalcum album* known to the Greeks as *χρυσά λευκόν*, is among the *deperditia*.

AURICULA, in Botany, see PRIMULA.

AURICULA, in Zoology, a genus of the class Mol-lusca, order Gasteropoda. Generic character: shell oval or oblong, outer lip thickened; columella with large oblique channellings or folds; no umbilicus.

Principally a fresh water genus; a few however inhabit the sea. The voluta *Auris-Mide* and *V. Auris-Jude* of Linnaeus are examples of this genus. There is a small species, a native of France, *A. Nyssotis* of Draparnaud; and our minute Turbo *Carychium*, is also referred, though perhaps without sufficient reason, to the same genus.

AURICULAR, } *Auricula*, i. e. *audicula*; *auris*,
AURICULARLY, } i. e. *audis*; from *audio*, I hear.

AURA-
SIUS,
MONS.
— AURICU-
LAR.

AURICULAR. We have no correspondent adjective formed from our noun, *ear*.

AURUM. That may be heard;—addressed, directed, to the ear; spoken to the ear; privately, secretly. And therefore

Private, secret, confidential.

As are the articles of *auricular* and *cure confession*, of purgatory, &c. &c. All of which of other like, have brought great offence and slander unto the christian church, and have been a great occasion of the rage and fall of many rabidists.

Idell, Revelation of S. John. cap. 21.

He [Pope Innocent the 8th.] ordain'd moreover that whatsoever he were which should speak of this, and by an *auricular* insurance, have your satisfaction, and that without any further delay than this evening.

Shakespeare. King Lear, fol. 286.

There was a time when twas publick in the church, and that is much against their *auricular* confession. *Selden's Table Talk.*

Nobles never denied, but a sinner might confess his sinnes either secretly to God alone, or publickly, and openly, before the whole congregation. As for *auricular* confession to the priests, far ought that made appear, he never heard of it.

Jewel's Defence of the Apologie.

But as for private and *auricular* confession of our sin to a priest in all cases; and as of absolute necessity to our obtaining pardon and forgiveness from God, as the Church of Rome teaches, this is neither necessary by divine precept, nor by any constitution and practice of the ancient Christian Church, as I have shown in my former discourse.

Tillotson's Works, v. 3.

If once they could be brought to renounce the supremacy of the Pope, they might quietly reject their seven sacraments, their purgatory, and *auricular* confession; their worship of reliques and images; nay, even their transubstantiation.

Blackstone's Commentaries, vol. 4.

AURIGA, in Astronomy, the waggoner, *quæstor*, a constellation of the northern hemisphere, containing 66 stars according to the British catalogue. It is figured as an old man with a goat, her kids in his left hand, and a hridge in his right. Capella, the goat, is a star of the first magnitude. Its rising was deemed by the ancients a prognostic of rain.

AURIPIGMENT, or ORPIMENT, see **ARSANIC.**

AURORA, in Mythology, the goddess of the morning. According to Hesiod, she was the daughter of Hyperion and Thia, and the sister of Sol and Luna. Others make her the daughter of Titan and Terra. The epithet with which Homer distinguishes her is rosy fingered, and he names her two horses, Lampos and Phaeton. Virgil sometimes assigns her a car with four, sometimes with two horses, but always calls them rosy. Theocritus calls them white, and Lycophron gives her Pegasus as a coursier. Her amours were numerous. She carried off first Cephalus, the husband of Procris, by whom Hesiod says she had Phaeton; then Tithonus, by whom she had Memnon and Eos. Orion was among her lovers; and by Astræus she had the four winds, Argestes, Zephyrus, Boreas, and Notus.

AURORA BOREALIS, the Northern Light, for information on this singular atmospheric phenomenon, see art. **METEOROLOGY, DIVISION II.**

AURUM, gold, see **MINERALOGY, DIVISION II.**

AURUM FULMINANS, see FULMINATING POWDER.

AURUM GRAPHICUM, see Ores of Tellurium, MINERALOGY, DIVISION II.

AURUM MURIMUM, or MORIAURUM, a combination of tin and sulphur, employed as a sort of bronzing

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to plaister and metallic ornaments. The process for its preparation, as given by Chaptal, is as follows: eight ounces of tin ore amalgamated with the same quantity of mercury. After triturating this with six ounces of sulphur and four ounces of muriate of ammonia, the mixture is to be put into a mattress and exposed in a sand bath to a heat below redness for three hours. Chaptal states, that in repeating this process, which was not his own, when he exposed the mattress to a more violent heat, the mixture took fire, and beautiful hexagonal plates of *aurum murimum* were found sublimed into the neck of the mattress. Bergman mentions a native combination nearly similar, from Siberia. From the analyses of Berzelius and J. Davy, it would appear that this substance is a bi-sulphuret, that is to say, that it is composed of one atom of tin and two atoms of sulphur, or in the proportions of 58 tin to 32 sulphur by weight.

AURUM PARADOXICUM, PARADOXICUM, see Ores of Tellurium, MINERALOGY, DIVISION II.

AURUM POTABILE, a medicine now rejected from the *Materia Medica*, but formerly much vaunted by empirics as a most powerful tonic. The potable gold of Helvetius was thus prepared, according to the *Paris Pharmacopœia*. "Dissolve half a drachm of pure gold in two ounces of *aqua regia* (nitro-mariatic acid) employing a gentle heat; to the solution add one ounce of oil of rosemary, shake the mixture, and immediately the gold will quit the acid and unite with the essential oil, giving it a beautiful yellow colour. This is to be decanted from off the acid which remains at the bottom, and mixed with fifteen ounces of rectified spirits of wine." Thus is formed potable gold, a higher cordial and stimulating medicine, as it is said; a dose of which is from six to twenty drops.

Besides this, Quercetanus mentions a similar preparation, which he calls *aurum rose*. It is a calx of gold dissolved in vinegar, seemingly by the medium of spirits of wine. The *aurum fulminans* has also been dissolved in *aqua regia*, and precipitated by a volatile alkali; but very dangerous effects have sometimes followed its exhibition: colics, convulsions, cold sweats and faintings. It has, however, been successfully employed, in small doses, in fevers; and it is said to be a certain and easy laxative. It has been supposed to be useful where mercury has been too freely used, and also in cases of chorea.

Another preparation of *aurum fulminans* has been administered, not in a liquid form, but as a powder, under the name *magisterium auri*. This is the *aurum fulminans* repeatedly digested with the spirit of baum, and mixed with $\frac{1}{2}$ of ambergris, as much musk, and $\frac{1}{4}$ of saffron. Given in doses of five grains, it is said to be tonic, antiseptic, alexipharmic, and antispasmodic. Lastly, the *cornu cervi auratum* consists of leaf gold carefully rubbed with powdered hartshorn, and calcined in a crucible till it assumes a purple colour. It was used in malignant fevers, and in measles and small pox as a cordial. Modern chemistry has shown the insolubility of gold by the animal fluids, and it is now almost generally rejected as a medicine.

AURUNCI, in Ancient Geography, a people of Latium, who after some wars with the Romans, were finally incorporated with the republic v. c. 418. (Liv. viii. 15.) Hence Siliacus (*hod. Scythæ*) in Campanian to which some of the Aurunci fled at that time took the name Aurunca.

2

AUSTERE Also, Who will believe thee, Isidell?
My voided name, th' austere heat of my life,
My touch against you, and my place 't the State
Will so your accusation over-weigh,
That you shall stifle in your own report
And smell of calumnie.

Shakespeare. Measure for Measure, fol. 70.

Ah Lucius, did he tempt thee so?
Might'st thou then perceive *austerity* in his eye,
That he did plead in earnest, yea or no.
Id. Comedy of Errors, fol. 23.

It is good therefore, to give *austere* replies to the first overtures
of incontinence desires; and to give strong denials to the first unwholesome
motions of our heart.

Bishop Hall's Remedy of Discontentment.

In such a posture Christ found the Jews who were neither won
with the *austerity* of John the Baptist and thought it too much
license to follow freely the charming pipe of him who sounded and
proclaim'd liberty and relief to all diabolical.

Milton's Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce.

To whom the virgin majesty of Eve,
As one who loves, and some unkindness meets,
With sweet *austere* composure thus reply'd.
Milton's Paradise Lost, book ix.

But shee rejected all these petitioners, out of pride, any more;
but it may seeme rather of policy, holding it safest, to pause
affairs of importance, not upon intreaty, but by due advice, and
to govern the subject with a severe *austere*, rather than an
indulgent lenitie.

Speed's History of Great Brittain.

What was the snake-headed Gorgon shield,
That wise Minerva wore, unconquer'd virgin,
Wherewith she frown'd her foes to conquer'd stones,
But rigid looks of chaste *austerity*,
And noble grace that dash'd brute violence,
With sudden adoration, and blank awe.

Milton's Comus.

Such was the life the frugal Sabine led;
So Remus and his brother god were bred:
From whom th' *austere* Etrurian virtue rose,
And this rude life our homely fathers chose.

Dryden's Fugio. Gen. 2.

He used no unwholesome *austere* in habit or diet; but coupl'd,
in his garb, with ordinary wage, and sustained his life with such
food as casual opportunity did offer.

Barrow's Sermons.

By his eminent talents and abilities, Stafford merited all the
confidence which his master reposed in him; his character was
stately and *austere*; more fitted to procure esteem than love.

Hume's History of England.

Melancholy people are apt to throw too much gloom upon their
religion, and represent it in a very unattractive and unlovely view,
as all *austere* and mortification.

Mason, on Self-Knowledge.

Compos'd in wit,
Austere grave and thoughtful, on his shield
The democratic majesty he bore
Of Athens.

Glover's Leonidas, book vii.

I fed on scarlet hips and stony haws,
Or blinking crabs or berries that imbosom
The bramble, black as jet, or sleek *austere*.

Cooper's Poems.

The sweetness of the ripened fruit is not the less delicious for the
austere of its cruder state.

Hervey's Sermons, 367.

AUSTERLITZ, or SLAWKOW, a small town of
Moravia, in the circle of Brunn, twelve miles E. of
Bruno, belonging to the prince of Kaunitz Rieberg.
Population, 1620.

Austerlitz will be ever memorable in history for the
great battle fought near it on the 2d of December,
1806, the anniversary of Bonaparte's coronation, between
the French under him, and the united forces of
Austria and Russia, headed by their respective Emperors.
The armies were nearly equal, about 70,000
men each. Bonaparte, by feigning a retreat, had
drawn the allies to a spot which he had selected as
most advantageous for giving battle. He bivouacked
on the field, after having spent most of the night in
giving orders, and visiting his posts. The battle began
with the dawn. The allied right and centre, after a
cannonade of several hours, was routed; and their
left, which had been more successful in the outset,
was compelled to give way in the general confusion.
The defeat was signal; but the approach of night prevented
any vigorous pursuit. The state of the roads
compelled the allies to abandon most of their artillery;
forty standards, all their baggage and munitions, and
150 pieces of cannon, remained in the hands of the
French. The loss in men was never fully acknowledged
on either side; but the carnage was by both
admitted to have been most dreadful. Report has
stated that of the French 13,000, in killed and
wounded; that of the Austro-Russians at three times
the number. It is certain that so many wounded were
left on the field by the allies, that they could not all
be dressed until two days after the battle.

An armistice was immediately proposed by the
emperor of Austria, and an interview took place between
him and Bonaparte, in a mill by the road side,
near the village of Nasclowitz. The preliminaries of
an humiliating peace were here agreed to. The emperor
Alexander refused to become a party to its conditions,
and succeeded, though under very distressing
circumstances, in effecting his retreat from the
Austrian States.

AUSTERE
—
AUSTER-
LITZ.

A U S T R A L I A.*

AUSTRALIA. AUSTRALIA, in *Modern Geography*, is the fifth grand division of the globe. For a long series of ages, the geographer was acquainted with only three of the six leading divisions under which the world is now generally described: these were Europe, Asia, and Africa, which compose the old continent. Even, after the daring genius of Columbus had added a fourth, by the discovery of America, vast spaces of the earth's surface were still blanks in the geographical knowledge of the day. Hypothesis and conjecture, it is true, endeavoured to supply something; but the results of these speculations required the sanction of experience to impress upon them the seal of truth. After the discovery of the New World had been made known, it was soon perceived that, as far as the earth was yet explored, the great mass of land was on the north side of the equator; and the uniformity which philosophical reasoning attempted to introduce into the arrangements of nature, required a *southern* continent as a counterpoise to the wide-spread countries in the northern regions. The plausibility of those conjectures was readily seized by the public, and both nations and individuals vied with each other for the discovery of this *Terra Australis Incognita*. Numerous voyages were, in consequence, undertaken for this purpose; and though unsuccessful as to the main object of their design, they were not altogether unproductive of useful results. Error was banished by the development of truth; numerous islands were discovered; and the knowledge of the actual state of the globe was greatly enlarged. When these became clearly known, some classification of them was necessary, to prevent the confusion which a multiplicity of objects frequently creates, when presented to the mind at once; and thus to afford a more clear conception of their nature and situation. To answer this purpose, these islands which are spread over a great expanse of ocean south and south-east of Asia, and which could not properly be considered as belonging to that continent, were denoted by the term *Australis*, or *Southern Lands*; while those that diversify the Pacific Ocean were included under the comprehensive term *Polynæia*, or many islands. It is in this sense that we shall treat the former of these terms here, and the other in its proper place.

Origin of the name.

Boundaries extent, and groups of islands.

To appropriate the term *Australia*, however, to the space to which we have referred, its limits were not strictly defied. The most natural boundaries seem to be on the south, the fiftieth parallel of latitude; on the west, the ocean that washes the confines of New Holland, the channel which separates that vast island from the Sumatran chain and the Moluccas, till it passes the equator, and thence like a crescent sweeps round the New Hebrides and New Zealand, till it

* We have been induced to adopt a slight modification in the term by which this portion of the globe is usually designated; not only because the word *Australis* (*central Asia*) literally signifies *Southern Asia*, a name which obviously belongs to another region, but because *Australia* is more consonant to the primitive appellation, *TERRA AUSTRALIS*, or *Southern Land*.

meets the southern limit, above specified, about the meridian of 180°, and thus completes the circuit. These boundaries will be rendered obvious by the inspection of a good map, though without that assistance they cannot be so readily perceived. Within these limits several distinct groups of islands are included, the aggregate surface of which is supposed to exceed the whole of Europe.

For the sake of perspicuity, these islands may be classed under the following heads, viz.—

1. New Holland and the adjacent isles.
2. Van Diemen's Land, or Tasmania.
3. Papua, or New Guinea.
4. New Britain and New Ireland, with some smaller contiguous islands.
5. Solomon's islands.
6. New Hebrides.
7. New Caledonia.
8. New Zealand, and the neighbouring islands.
9. Numerous Coral Reefs spread over the Australian seas.

Although we shall in another place (See *GEOGRAPHY*, *Progressive history of*) have to describe the general progress of our geographical knowledge, it will not be uninteresting in this place to trace the various voyages by which the different islands in the Australian seas were made known, and our information respecting them collected.

When Europe had been roused from the torpor in which she had long reposed, by a succession of events as unforeseen to themselves as their consequences were unexpected, new energy seems to have been imparted to every power, and this was strikingly displayed in the progress of maritime discovery. The discovery of the New World had scarcely vibrated through the heart of Europe, before the report of De Gama having doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and visited India by sea, sounded along her shores, infused new life into her maritime powers, and seemed to point the way to wealth and glory. The Spaniards and Portuguese, who were the great rivals in this new development of the world, soon became jealous of each other, and applied to the Pope for a partition of the unknown regions of the earth's surface between them. This, however, was a proposition which it appears all the knowledge of the court of Rome could not then correctly solve; for how infallible soever his holiness may have been considered in matters of faith, he certainly showed himself, on this occasion, but a very imperfect geographer. He does not appear to have known that the earth was a globe; for the line of demarcation which he proposed to draw between the future possessions of these powers, was only described on one side. Those countries that were discovered by sailing westward from a certain meridian, were to belong to the Spaniards; and those that were approached by a contrary course, were to become the property of the Portuguese. But as no limit was fixed on the opposite side of the globe, the division was illusory; and as the one frequently com-

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menaced their voyages of discovery from the western coasts of America, and the other from their possessions in the east, we find them constantly intersecting each other's tracks, and even visiting the same islands in the Australian seas. The Dutch had by this time risen into a maritime power of importance; and the riches of the east presented a field of enterprise too congenial with the national disposition not to rouse their utmost energies for their possession. The subjection of Portugal to the crown of Spain, was therefore an opportunity too precious to be lost; and all the Portuguese possessions in the east, except Goa and Diu, were conquered by them in the first nine years of the seventeenth century. From this time they entered upon the career of discovery in the Eastern and Australian seas; and we find them, therefore, intermixed with the Spaniards, subsequent to that period.

The discovery of the *Terra Australis*, and particularly of New Holland, has generally been ascribed to the Dutch navigators of the beginning of the seventeenth century; but M. De Brosses refers it to an earlier period, and thinks it was first seen by Paulmyer de Gonaquille, in 1503. That navigator sailed from Honfleur for the East Indies about the middle of that year, and experienced a violent storm off the Cape of Good Hope, during which he lost his reckoning, and was driven into an unknown sea. After sailing for some time, he observed birds flying from the south, and, directing his course towards that quarter, he soon fell in with land, which he called Southern India. This is thought to have been New Holland; but others think it was Madagascar, to which the French captain was driven.

The islands of Papua, or New Guinea, are supposed to have been the first parts of Australia discovered by European navigators. In 1526, Don Jorge de Menezes, who had been appointed to the command of the Moluccas, sailed from Malacca for this station, and spent some time in a port which appears to have been immediately north of the great island of Papua. This is thought to have been in one of the islands very near it, as both it and other islands are said to have been inhabited by Papuans. In the same year, a squadron was fitted out by the Spaniards, for the purpose of discovering spice islands in the South Seas. This was commanded by Alvarez de Saavedra, and seems to have sailed from some of the western ports of Mexico. After spending much time in the search, Saavedra discovered Papua, or some of the adjacent islands. From an idea that the country abounded in gold, he called it *Isla del Oro*. After remaining some time at this place, he sailed along the coast for about 100 leagues, and found the inhabitants naked and black, with curled hair, like the Africans. He made another voyage to the same country in 1549, and traversed more of the coast than he had previously done. Other Spanish navigators also visited those shores in 1537 and 1538, and were some of them made prisoners by the natives. Roy Lopez de Villalobos seems to have ranged along part of the coasts of this island in 1543, and to have given it the name of New Guinea, from its being thought to be opposite to Guinea on the coast of Africa. Some of the other Australian islands were also discovered by this navigator, but it is uncertain which they were.

Alonso de Mendana sailed from Lima in 1567, on a

voyage of discovery in the South Seas. He first fell in with Candelmas shoal, about fifteen leagues in length, the middle of which is situated in 6° 15' of south latitude. After this he discovered the island of Santa Ysabel, to a part of which he gave the name of Porto de la Estrella, where he built a small vessel to prosecute farther discoveries. In this he was particularly successful, as he made known thirty-three islands, of "very fine prospect." When the voyage was afterwards published, the name of *Solomon's islands* was given to this group, "to the end that the Spaniards, supposing them to be those islands from which Solomon fetched gold to adorn the Temple at Jerusalem, might be the more desirous to go and inhabit them." Mendana also made a second voyage, with a design to revisit Solomna's Isles, but after considerable search, he was unable to find them; which occasioned it to be remarked, that what "he discovered in his first voyage, he lost in his second." In this research, however, he fell in with the large island of Santa Cruz, situated so near the south-east of that cluster, as to be considered one of the group, although it had not fallen under the observation of the Spaniards during their first voyage. It was at this island that Mendana died, and Quiros succeeded to the command of the squadron, and the search for Solomon's islands was abandoned, when they were not more than forty leagues distant.

Without attempting to investigate the claims of the Chinese to the earliest knowledge of these southern regions, as indicated in the map of Marco Polo, two maps have been discovered within a few years, and are preserved in the British Museum, which refer the knowledge of *Terra Australis* to an earlier date than any account which is considered authentic, assigns it. One of these is in French, and appears either to have been the original, or a copy of the other, which is in English, accompanied with a dedication to the king of England, dated 1542. This map exhibits an extensive country south of the Moluccas, entitled Great Java, which agrees more perfectly with *Terra Australis* than with any other land. The direction given to some parts of these coasts approaches too near the truth to have been wholly the work of conjecture. Part of it may have been delineated by information collected from eastern nations by the Portuguese, during their voyages to India, previous to 1540; or in some of them they may have actually seen the north-west coasts: but, instead of attempting to investigate these claims to the early discovery of parts of Australia, in which conjecture has doubtless had a conspicuous share, we shall give a brief delineation of some others which are founded upon more authentic documents. One of the earliest of these is a paper procured by the late Sir Joseph Banks, and inserted in Dalrymple's curious collection respecting Papua. It is a copy of the instructions delivered to Commodore Abel Jansz Tasman, for his second voyage of discovery, dated January 29th, 1644, and signed by the governor and council of the castle of Batavia. This preamble contains an account of the previous discoveries of the Dutch in New Guinea and the Great South Land. It is stated, that on the 18th of November, 1605, the Dutch yacht, the *Duyfken*, was sent from Bantam, to explore the islands of New Guinea; and that she sailed along what was thought to be the western coasts of the country, to 13° 45' of south latitude. Most of this country appeared to be a desert. The farthest point of their voyage was deno-

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mianted Keer-weer, or Turn again. From the shore of New Guinea, the course of the Duyfhen was south, along the islands on the west side of Torres' Strait to that part of Terra Australia, a little west of cape York; but all these lands were then thought to be connected, and to form a part of the coast of Papua. Thus, without being sensible of it, the commander of the Duyfhen made the first authenticated discovery of any part of the Great South Land. This was about March 1606, for the vessel returned to Banda in the beginning of the following June. The next European who saw Terra Australis was the Spanish navigator Luis Vaez de Torres, who was second in command to Pedro Fernandez de Quiros, who sailed with three vessels, from the port of Callao in Peru, in 1605. One of the objects of this voyage was to search for the *Tierra Austral*, or the continent which was supposed to occupy a great part of the southern hemisphere westward of America. After discovering several smaller islands, Quiros fell in with a land which he called *Tierra Austral del Espiritu Santo*, from a supposition that it was the great southern continent of which he was in search. Torres seems to have been separated from the admiral; and finding this could only be an island, he continued his course westward in prosecution of his search. In August, 1606, and about latitude $11^{\circ} 30'$, he fell in with a coast which he calls the "beginning of New Guinea;" but which appears to have been the south-east point of the land which M. De Bougainville afterwards denominated *La Louisiade*, and which is now known to be a chain of islands. As this enterprising navigator was unable to pass to windward of this range, he bore away on the south side; and gave an account of his subsequent proceedings in a letter dated Manilla, June 12, 1607, which is printed in Appendix I. to vol. ii. of Burney's *History of Discoveries in the South Sea*. From this account, it appears that about the eleventh degree of south latitude, he saw "very large islands, and there appeared more to the southward." There can be little doubt that the large islands here mentioned, were the hills of cape York; or that the two mouths of intricate navigation he experienced, in which he describes himself as being upon a "bank," were spent in passing the strait which separates Papua from New Holland. The account of both this and his other discoveries, which Torres addressed to the king of Spain were, however, so carefully kept from the world by that national jealousy, which so frequently endeavours to appropriate every thing to itself, that the very existence of this strait was unknown till re-discovered, in 1770, by our great circumnavigator, Captain Cook. Torres appears to have been sensible of his discovery, and to have taken the requisite precaution for preserving a knowledge of it, by lodging a copy of his letter to the king in the archives of Manilla. When that city was taken by the English in 1762, Mr. Dalrymple rescued this interesting document from oblivion, and as an honour due to the author, gave his name to the strait which he had discovered. New Caledonia does not appear to have been known at this period, but the New Hebrides were discovered by Quiros, in 1606: who appears not only to have landed upon the largest of them, but also to have visited others in its vicinity.

In the introductory recital to Tasman's *Instructions*, the first knowledge which Europeans acquired respecting the western coasts of *Terra Australia*, is stated in

the following brief terms: "In the years 1616, 1618, and 1623, the west coast of the great unknown South Land, from 25° to 29° south latitude, was discovered by outward-bound ships: and among them by the ship *Endracht*." This recital does not enter into further particulars; but from a manuscript chart by Eeod Gerrits, 1627, (see Dalrymple's *Collection*, note, p. 6.) there is reason to attribute the first authentic discovery of this coast to Dirk Hartog, who commanded the ship *Endracht* outward bound from Holland to India, in 1616. He appears to have first made the land in latitude $26^{\circ} 30'$, and to have proceeded along the coast to the twenty-third degree, where he gave the name of *Land de Endracht* to the country he had discovered. One particular part of this discovery was Dirk Hartog's Road, in the twenty-fifth degree, and which is at the entrance of what was afterwards called Shark's bay, by Dampier. This has been fully authenticated, by the discovery of a tin plate left by that adventurous navigator on one of the small islands which form this road. It was first found in 1697, and again by the French in 1801, fixed to a post, and half-buried in sand, at the extremity of one of the islands where he had left it. It bore the following inscription rudely engraved. "Anno 1616, on the 25th of October, arrived here the ship *Endracht* of Amsterdam; the first merchant Gillis Mielbais, of Luik; Dirk Hartog, of Amsterdam, captain. They sailed from thence for Bantam, the 27th ditto." In the same year, the vessels which sailed round the world under the command of Captains Le Maire and Schouten, approached the coast of Papua from the east, when they anchored in a bay, near two villages, and procured some refreshments from the inhabitants, whom they described as a diseased race, living in small huts raised on posts, eight or nine feet above the ground. Besides agreeing with other navigators, in their description of these people, they characterise them as "a wild, savage, and absurd people, curious to see every thing, and active as monkeys." The *Muntings*, another outward-bound ship also made some further discoveries on this coast about July 1618; but the particulars of which are wholly unknown. A Captain Zeebren is likewise said to have discovered the land of Arnhem and a part of Van Diemen's Land, in the north of *Terra Australia*; from the first of which it has been inferred that he was a native of Arnhem, in Holland; but as no mention of this discovery has been made in the introduction to *Tasman's Instructions*, the fact has, by some authors, been thought doubtful.

In the following year, it is said (see Campbell's edition of Harris's *Voyages*, p. 325,) that "the land of Edcl was found, and received its name from the discoverer." De Brosses has nearly the same expression; and, from Theron's chart, it appears that the land of Edcl extended from about $26\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ to 29° degrees of south latitude; being contiguous at its northern extremity to the land of Endracht: the great reef lying off this part of the coast is also supposed to have been discovered either by that navigator or by some vessel belonging to the same squadron. In 1622, the ship *Lecuwyn*, or *Lioness*, under similar circumstances to the preceding vessels, fell in with the south-west shore of New Holland, and explored the coast for about ninety leagues of that shore. In 1623, Jan Carstens sailed from Amboyna, and discovered what he called "the great islands of Arnhem and Speilt," and after sailing

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LIA. Australian lands, he returned to Amboyna. No his-
torical fact seems to be less doubted than the discovery
of the south coast of New Holland, in January, 1627,
by Pieter Nuyts, on board the ship *Gulde Zeepaard*.
This has always been considered as an important dis-
covery, as is stated in the Dutch recital above referred
to, to have been made, "for the space of a thousand
miles."

In the following year, another discovery was made
on the western coasts of New Holland, by the ship
Vianen, one of the seven that returned to Europa
under the command of the governor-general Carpenter.
The Dutch recital speaks of this in the following
terms. The coast was seen "again accidentally in
1628, on the north side, in latitude 21° south, by the
ship Vianen, homeward-bound from India; when
they coasted two hundred miles, without gaining any
knowledge of this great country; only observing a
foul and barren shore, green fields, and very wild,
black, barbarous inhabitants." This part of the coast
was called *De Witt's Land*; but whether this appella-
tion arose from the name of the captain of the vessel
in which the discovery was made, is uncertain. Hitherto,
the progress of our knowledge of these regions has
been distinguished by little more than the limits and
dates of the discoveries, which indeed were nearly all
that the early navigators had to communicate; but
the next event in the order of time, is of a more full
and perspicuous character. On the 4th of June 1639,
the *Batavia*, commanded by Francisco Pelsart, was
wrecked on a reef off the west coast of New Holland.
The rocks on which Pelsart struck were called *Frederick
Houtman's shoals*, and are eight leagues from
the coast, in the 29th degree of latitude. The crew
were saved by the boats, and carried to a small island
about three leagues distant. Captain Pelsart having,
in a few days, put a deck on his boat to enable her to
stand the sea, and having ascertained these islands to
be situated in latitude 28° 15', sailed for the main land,
which was in sight; but stormy weather, and a steep
rocky shore prevented him from landing, from the
9th to the 15th of June. After effecting a landing, and
coasting along to latitude 22° 17', without being able
to find water, which was the chief object of his search,
he directed his course to *Batavia*, for assistance to
bring away the remainder of the crew, which had been
left on the island where they were first landed.

Abel Jansz Tasman has always been considered as
the author of the chief discoveries which the Dutch
made in Australia during the seventeenth century.
He sailed from *Batavia* in August 1642, with two
ships, the *Hemskirk* and *Zeehaan*; and in the follow-
ing November, being in latitude 42° 25' S. and longi-
tude 163° 55' W. he saw land, bearing north-east. For
this he sailed, and called it *Van Diemen's Land*, after
the governor of *Batavia*, under whose patronage he was
prosecuting his discoveries. He anchored in a bay of
that island, but did not discover any of the inhabitants,
though he found evident traces that some had been
there only a few days before.

New Zealand was also one of the discoveries made
by Tasman during this voyage. Being in search of
Solomon's islands, he was obliged to change his
course on the 6th of December, 1642, and a few days
afterwards, he perceived a high mountainous country,

which he thought was *Terra Australis*. This he
called *Staten-Land*; and anchored in a bay on the
north-east, where he had an interview with the natives,
who made a treacherous attack upon the crew, several
of whom they killed. This induced him to call the
place *Murderer's bay*. He afterwards traversed some
part of the coast, which exhibited a pleasing and
fertile appearance. The same navigator likewise dis-
covered some other small islands in his progress
northward.

In Tasman's second voyage, which was undertaken
in 1644, he was directed to complete the discoveries,
if possible, on the north and north-east parts of New
Holland. What was the precise result of this voyage
is not correctly known; for Captain Flinders, in the
Introduction to his Voyage to Terra Australis, published
in 1814, says, in reference to it: "It is a great obstacle
to tracing correctly the progress of early discoveries in
Terra Australis, that no account of this voyage of
Tasman has ever been published; nor is any such
known to exist. But it seems to have been the general
opinion, that he sailed round the gulf of *Carpentaria*,
and then westward, along *Arnhem's* and the northern
Van Diemen's Lands; and the form of these coasts in
Thevenot's charts, of 1663, and in those of most suc-
ceeding geographers, up to the end of the eighteenth
century, is supposed to have resulted from this voyage.
The opinion is strengthened by finding the names of
Tasman and of the governor-general and two of the
council, who signed his instructions, applied to places
at the head of the gulf; as is also that of *Marin*, the
daughter of the governor, to whom our navigator is
said to have been attached. In the notes, also, of
Burgomaster Witsen, concerning the inhabitants of
Nova Guinea and *Hollandia Nova*, as extracted by
Mr. Dalrymple, Tasman is mentioned among those
from whom his information was drawn."

From the preceding brief narrative it will readily
be seen that the early discoveries in this part of the
globe, were made wholly by foreigners; for it was
not till the year 1688 that the English entered upon
this career of maritime enterprise. In that year, the
celebrated *William Dampier*, in a voyage round the
world, fell in with the northern part of New Holland,
and remained on the coast from January to March.
He describes it as flat, low, and sandy; as affording
scarcely either vegetables or water, and very little
fish. The natives he thought the most miserable crea-
tures in the universe, without either houses or covering.
A Dutch ship which sailed from the Cape of Good
Hope, in 1684 or 1685, had not been afterwards heard
of for several years, and it was conceived that she had
been wrecked upon the Great South Land, and that
the crew might still be living there in 1696. In con-
sequence of this, *William de Vlamingh*, who was about
to proceed from Holland to India, was ordered to touch
at New Holland, in search of them. He accordingly
made the south-west coast, about the thirty-second
degree, and anchored under the island of *Rottenest*.
He then sailed fourteen or sixteen leagues up a large
river on the opposite coast, where he caught several
black swans, and called it *Black Swan river*, from this
being the first time that these birds were seen. After
this *Vlamingh* sailed northward, and carefully examined
the coast from the island of *Rottenest* to the north-west
cape, in latitude 21° 28', and then steered for *Batavia*.

AUSTRIA-LIA. Captain Flinders thinks the chart in Van Keulen, which Mr. Dalrymple republished, and which was the best at the close of the eighteenth century, resulted from this voyage. Captain William Dampier also visited the western shore of New Holland a second time in 1699, having been sent out in his Majesty's ship *Roebuck*, for the purpose of discovery. He fell in with land in the twenty-eighth degree of latitude, and coasted along, sometimes at a greater and sometimes at a less distance from the shore, as far as 16° 9', when he left the island, and shaped his course for Timor. New Britain was discovered by Dampier, in this voyage.

Discoveries of the eighteenth century. In thus sketching the progress of discovery in these distant regions, we have rapidly glanced at the principal voyages that were made to the Australian seas, prior to the commencement of the eighteenth century.

This cursory retrospect will, however, be sufficient to show how very limited the knowledge of those regions was at that period. Many parts of the coast of New Holland had, indeed, been visited, and Van Diemen's Land had been seen; but this latter was long after that period considered merely as the southern promontory of the former. New Britain and New Ireland were very little known, while the New Hebrides had only been observed by a single navigator. The position of New Zealand had not been correctly determined, and the general appearance of the country had been but slightly indicated. These results were certainly small when contrasted with the numerous voyages that had been made to these regions during the seventeenth century; but, in comparing them with the means by which they had been produced, the dispositions and objects of the early navigators should be taken into the account. In that age nearly all the commerce in the more genial climes of the New World was in the hands of the Spaniards and the Portuguese, whose objects were not the promotion of science or the spread of knowledge, but the acquisition of wealth, the desire of conquest, or the propagation of the Roman Catholic faith. The Dutch, indeed, participated in the commerce of these times; but their aims were chiefly restricted to the establishment of mercantile depôts, or the accumulation of territory. The commencement of the eighteenth century, however, constitutes a new era in the history of maritime discovery. The advantages which the Dutch, the Spaniards, and the Portuguese derived from these distant countries, could not be concealed from the rival nations of Europe; and the natural consequence of this was a desire to participate in them. Many English and French adventurers, therefore, now began to traverse the Southern Ocean, with a view of appropriating to themselves some portion of these treasures. Their return was the means of diffusing more correct ideas in these nations; and the expediency of forming settlements in the more genial climates soon became a subject of general discussion. The propriety of exploring the wide extent of the globe, at that time either wholly unknown, or but partially discovered, was the necessary consequence of this increased attention.

Shortly after Dampier's return to England, in 1700, two vessels were sent to the South Seas, under the command of Captain Woodes Rogers; but these were for some time detained in capturing the Spanish towns and shipping in South America. One of the vessels,

however, under the command of Rogers of which Dampier was himself the pilot, passed through the straits of New Guinea, in 1710. In March, 1705, three Dutch vessels were sent from Timor, with orders to explore the north coast of New Holland more perfectly than had previously been done; but very little that is satisfactory has ever been made known respecting the result of this voyage. So far as accounts of the Dutch voyages in these seas had yet been published, they all seem to have been connected with some mercantile enterprise; but, in 1721, an expedition was fitted out by that nation for the sole purpose of discovery. Captain Roggewein submitted a memorial on the subject, either to the government or the Dutch East India Company, and he was appointed to the command of a squadron, which was well supplied with whatever was considered as necessary to the success of the voyage. Roggewein's first object was the discovery of Solomon's islands; but on entering the eastern confines of Australia, he unfortunately lost one of his ships. Soon afterwards he discovered Aurora island, so named from its being disclosed by break of day. Being obliged to desist from the search of the islands described by Quiros, he shaped his course towards New Britain, on which he landed in 1732, and was immediately attacked by the inhabitants with arrows, spears, and showers of stones. The country appeared to be mountainous, well wooded, fertile, and productive in minerals. Roggewein then continued his voyage among the islands off the Papuan coast, and the others in that part of the sea, which he found to be very numerous.

Very little farther discovery took place in these regions for nearly half a century. In 1767, Captain Carteret confirmed the previous discovery of Mendana, relative to the group which contained Santa Cruz, which had not been seen by any intermediate navigator from 1595 to 1767, a period of 172 years. He changed the appellation of Santa Cruz to Egmont island, and called the whole group Queen Charlotte's islands. Captain Carteret was also the first who sailed through the strait which separates New Britain from New Ireland.

In 1768, M. Bougainville entered the limits of Australia. He gave names to some of the islands he passed, and then landed on Leper's island, a name which he conferred upon it, from the natives being generally infected with a disease resembling the leprosy. He then visited the group called *Tierra Austral del Espíritu Santo*, by Quiros; and not being aware that it had been previously seen by any European, he called it the Archipelago of the Great Cyclades. Sailing in a north-west direction from this point, his approach to land was indicated by a delightful fragrance experienced during the night; and the return of day exhibited a beautiful country, with plains and groves extending to the shore, and lofty mountains rising in the interior. The state of his crew prevented him from landing, and after sailing along the southern coast, and doubling a cape to the east, he called the country *La Louisiade*. Respecting this cluster of islands, however, very little is yet known. A few degrees north of *La Louisiade*, this navigator discovered a group of islands which still bear his name, and afterwards anchored in a bay on the coast of New Ireland. From this harbour he directed his course in

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LIA. his homeward-bound passage, along the northern shores of Papua.

While M. Bougainville was thus traversing the Australian seas, his countryman, M. de Surville, undertook a voyage, it is supposed, of commercial speculation, into the same regions. This navigator discovered some islands, one of which he called First Sight island, the latitude of which he states at $7^{\circ} 15' S.$ and the longitude $155^{\circ} E.$ of Paris. He then anchored at Port Praslin, in New Ireland, where he found the inhabitants to be very treacherous. Sailing thence towards the south-east, he seems to have passed through Solomon's islands; but circumstances did not permit him to land on any of them. He deannointed the whole range he had discovered, the land of Assassides (Assassins); and, after losing more than half his crew by disease, he reached Linn, in South America, and was drowned in going ashore.

More than a century had now elapsed since the celebrated voyage of Tasman, and the eastern limits of *Terra Australis* still remained unknown; nor had the northern coast been seen by any subsequent navigators since the Dutch in 1705. But the British now began to take the lead in discovery, and the liberal principles upon which his late Majesty, George III. supported these enterprises, was a sure indication that whatsoever was most valuable in these regions of the *incognita*, would soon be rescued from its primitive shades. In 1770, Captain Cook with Mr. Green, were sent, in the *Endeavour*, to observe the transit of Venus over the sun's disc, at Tahiti; and after accomplishing that object, and making a survey of New Zealand, Captain Cook continued his voyage westward to explore the east side of *Terra Australis*. When this was accomplished, he passed through *Endeavour's* strait, between Cape York and the Prince of Wales's Islands; and proved the actual separation of New Holland and New Guinea. Any abstract of this interesting voyage, which this historical sketch would allow us to present, would be altogether unsatisfactory, particularly as the original narrative is so easy of access. It will therefore be sufficient to observe, that whether it be considered in regard to the extent of its discoveries, the accuracy with which they were traced, or the labours of the scientific associates, this voyage far surpassed any that preceded it.

In 1772, M. Marion du Fresne was sent out by the French partly on a voyage of discovery, and partly to conduct a native of Otaheite to the Isle of France. He spent some days in Kendrick's bay, in Van Diemen's Land, and then sailed for New Zealand, where he anchored in the Bay of Islands, and experienced that treacherous cruelty of the inhabitants to which so many have subsequently fallen victims. About a year after Marion had left Van Diemen's Land, it was visited by Captain Furneaux, in his Majesty's ship *Adventure*. He made the south-west cape on the 9th of March 1773, and then steered eastward. After examining the south and part of the east coast, he sailed northward, with a view of ascertaining whether Van Diemen's Land joined New Holland. This, however, was a question which he did not solve, for he gave it as his opinion, "that there is no strait between New Holland and Van Diemen's Land, but a very deep bay." Capt. Furneaux then stood over to New Zealand. About the middle of the year 1774, Captain Cook entered Australia a second time; for in July he came

within sight of Aurora island, the position of which he determined to be in $168^{\circ} 30'$ of east longitude. From this he passed Leper's Isle, and landed on Mallico, one of those originally discovered by Quiros. In August of the same year, he anchored in a great bay of *Terra del Espíritu Santo*, and after surveying the whole group, he changed the name to that of New Hebrides. He then discovered New Caledonia, the inhabitants of which he found different from all the other Australians he had yet seen. His next discovery was the isles of Pines, Botany island, and some others of less importance. He then sailed for New Zealand, and fell in with Norfolk island in his passage, which though very small, has been greatly noted for its fertility.

In reference to the eastern shores of New Holland, Captain Flinders has remarked that "Cook reaped the harvest of discovery, but the gleanings of the field remained to be gathered."

Captain Cook visited Australia in his third voyage, in 1777; but as these regions were then a secondary object, he soon quitted them for the north-west coast of America. While new countries were now sought for with considerable anxiety in the southern part of this wide space, several of those in the northern regions were more fully explored, and some other parts of its geography were more amply illustrated. Among the navigators who contributed to those effects, must be included Forrest, Soanerat, Maurelle, the unfortunate La Perouse, Shortland and Vancouver; all of whom have more or less elucidated different parts between 1776 and 1791. The late French voyage, performed in search of La Perouse by the *Recherche* and *Esperance*, commanded by Captain D'Entrecasteaux, has greatly increased the accuracy of our knowledge of this part of the globe; but as we approximate to the present times, the objects of research become more minute, and belong more properly to the respective islands to which they relate, than to a general sketch of the whole. This is applicable to D'Entrecasteaux's voyage, and the journal of M. Labillardiere, the naturalist in the expedition, which is particularly valuable for its illustration of natural history, and the care with which the astronomical observations were made, and the positions of many points were fixed. Some further discoveries were also made by Captain Wilson in the ship *Duff*, in 1797. In the autumn of the following year, Captain Flinders and Mr. Bass, the surgeon of his Majesty's ship *Reliance*, passed through the strait which separates Van Diemen's Land from the southern coasts of New Holland, and thus opened a passage which is considered as of the greatest importance in voyages to the more distant parts of Australia. Captain Flinders was soon afterwards engaged in an extensive survey of the coast of New Holland, in the years 1801, 1802, and 1803, while Lieutenant Grant was also similarly employed during a part of the first of those years. In 1800, two French vessels sailed from Havre de Grace professing on a voyage round the world, but especially for the purpose of surveying every part of the coasts of New Holland and Van Diemen's Land. These were the *Géographe* and the *Naturaliste*, commanded by Captain Boudin, and fitted out with every precaution which appeared requisite to secure success. Not less than 23 persons, well acquainted with all branches of science, accompanied this expedition, and much was therefore expected from its exertions; but Captain Boudin was not the man

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Since Australia stretches from the north side of the equator to the 50th degree of south latitude, and from the 110th to the 160th degree of east longitude, thus occupying a space equal to about 3500 square degrees of the earth's surface, a great diversity of climate must prevail. While the one extremity is subject to all the fervour of the torrid zone, though in many cases tempered by the proximity of the watery element, the other experiences the rigours of northern Europe, mitigated however by the same influence. Thus while New Guinea acquired its name from its resemblance to that region to tropical Africa; the southern parts of New Zealand may, both in appearance and climate, be considered as the North Britain of Australia. Some of its mountains aspire to a great height, and appear covered with perpetual snow; for when seen in January, the midsummer of these regions, they were not disrobed of their winter's covering.

Numerous vegetable productions entirely unknown in other parts of the world, have been discovered in these regions; and from our imperfect knowledge even of the coasts, and our entire ignorance of the interior of many of the islands, thousands of species, no doubt, are unknown. Mr. Brown has given an interesting account of the vegetable products of the *Terra Australis*, in his geographical and systematic remarks inserted in the Appendix to Captain Flinders's *Voyage*. He collected nearly 3000 species of Australian plants, which in addition to those brought to England by Sir Joseph Banks and others, supply the materials for a Flora of this part of the world, consisting of 4900 species, and 130 natural orders; but it is remarkable that more than half these species should belong to only eleven of the orders. There are not less than 100 different species of the *Eucalyptus*, or gum tree, which is one of the largest yet discovered. The *Eucalyptus globulus* of Labillardiere, and another species peculiar to the south of Van Diemen's Land, not unfrequently attain the height of 150 feet, with a girth near the base of from 28 to 40 feet. Of this magnificent species, it is considered that there are not less than fifty species within the limits of the colony of New South Wales. Mr. Brown says the most extensive genus is the leafless *Acacia*, which contains at least 100 species, and with the *Eucalyptus*, if taken together and considered with respect to the mass of vegetable they contain, calculated from their size as well as the number of individuals, are perhaps nearly equal to all the other plants

in the country. One of the most curious plants found in these regions, is the *Cephalotus foliolosus*, or pitcher plant, of which an interesting drawing is given in the Atlas to Captain Flinders's *Voyage*.

Many new genera of quadrupeds, birds and fishes have likewise been disclosed through our partial acquaintance with these regions. But among these, none of the ferocious kinds are found. The kangaroo is the largest animal that has yet been seen: quadrupeds however are very scarce throughout the whole of these islands; and even in some of them none have yet been discovered. If in our survey we ascend to a higher point in the scale of animal life, we find **MAN** in some of the lowest stages of savage existence. In these regions he is supposed to present several physical and moral peculiarities, which are doubtless the effect of local circumstances. In many places he is a total stranger to all the comforts of civilisation; and apparently so deeply sunk in apathy, as to be incapable of appreciating them, when presented to his attention: here he exhibits some of the best illustrations of the propensities of his nature, when sunk to the lowest point in the scale of human existence. Yet even here, amidst the most prostrate ruins of the race, **MAN** is still discoverable, though in feeble traces; and recent experience has proved that the children of these savages are capable of instruction, and are consequently susceptible of being raised almost from the level of the bruta to a participation of the enjoyments of social life. In other parts of these regions too, men present us with noble specimens of savage life, where all the faculties are indeed perverted and debased, but few of them impaired. Here he roams over the wilds of nature as the only animal of prey; and more ferocious than the tiger or the hyena, feeds on his own species, even in countries where nature has poured her bounties in profusion around him. From these and a variety of other causes, population is so much checked, that the whole number of natives who have been seen on the coasts from the first discovery of these islands, does not, perhaps, exceed 30,000.

The separate islands and groups above enumerated, will necessarily require a description under their respective names; but the coral reefs are so widely diffused over these seas, so curious in their nature and formation, and so much knowledge of the subject has lately been acquired by actual observation, that we shall insert a brief account of them in this place. Nature frequently produces the same effect by different methods; and the formation of islands is a manifest illustration of this fact. At one time the solid materials are raised from the sub-marine bed by the elastic power of the volcano; at another the gradual depression of the water, or the accumulation of sand, converts the shoals into banks, and the banks into islands; while at others the animated rock rises by imperceptible degrees to the surface of the ocean, and the same effect is produced. In all these cases, the action of the sun and air soon converts the surface into a species of mould; the birds or the waves convey to it seeds from other lands, and the whole becomes clothed with vegetation. The islands of coral which are thus produced in various parts of the tropical ocean, hardened by time till they become one solid mass, and are chiefly distinguished by rising almost perpendicularly from an unfathomable sea: these are profusely spread in all directions over Australia, in all

Animals.

Indigenous inhabitants

Formation of coral reefs.

Climate.

Vegetable productions.

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stages of their formation, from the sunken rock to the perfect development armed with the stately forest. Few operations in nature are more curious or interesting than their progress; respecting which, Mr. Dalrymple, in his *Inquiry into the Formation of Islands*, remarks, "I have seen coral banks in all their stages, some in deep water, others in rocks appearing above the surface; some just formed into islands, without the least appearance of vegetation, others with a few weeds on the higher parts; and lastly, such as are covered with timber, with a fathomless sea, at a pistol-shot distance." When the rock rises high enough to intercept the floating sea-weed, or for a bird to perch upon it, the clothing of the island may be said to commence; for then depositions of various kinds, form constant additions to the rising land. The strait between New Holland and New Guinea, is nearly filled with islands of this description; and as this work of increase is constantly proceeding, may we not anticipate the time when not only these two islands, but many of the other groups shall be united, and form one vast continent? In reference to the barrier of reefs that runs along the whole eastern coast of New Holland, Captain Flinders observes, "We sought fourteen days, and sailed more than 500 miles, before a passage could be found through them, out to sea." This enterprising navigator paid much attention to the structure of these reefs, on one of which he was shipwrecked. In one place he says, "we had wheat sheafs, mushrooms, stags' horns, cabbage leaves, and a variety of other forms growing under water, in the various tints of every shade, between green, purple, brown, and white. It seems to me that when the animals, which form the coral at the bottom of the ocean, cease to live, their structures adhere to each other, by virtue either of the glutinous remains within, or of some property of the salt water, and the interstices being gradually filled up with sand, and broken pieces of coral washed by the sea, which also adhere, a mass of rock is at length formed. Future races of these animals erect their habitations on the rising bank, and die in their turn, to increase, but principally to elevate, this monument of their wonderful labours."

Captain Hall, in his late visit to the island of Looehoo, had a good opportunity of examining the process by which the formation of these reefs is carried on, and has given the following interesting account of it, which though the country visited by him is a few degrees beyond the northern boundary of Australia, we shall extract, as there is no reason to suppose that the process differs from that followed within these limits. "The examination of a coral reef (he observes) during the different stages of one tide is particularly interesting: when the tide has left it for some time, it becomes dry, and appears to be a compact rock, exceedingly hard and rugged; but as the tide rises, and the waves begin to wash over it, the coral worms protrude themselves from holes that were before invisible. These animals are of a great variety of shapes and sizes, and in such prodigious numbers, that in a short time, the whole surface of the rock appears to be alive and in motion. The most common worm is in the form of a star, with arms from four to six inches long, which are moved about with a rapid motion, in all directions, probably to catch food. Others are so sluggish, that they may be mistaken for pieces of rock, and are generally of a dark colour, and from four to five inches long and two

or three round. When the coral is broken about high water mark, it is a solid hard stone; but if any part of it be detached at a spot where the tide reaches every day, it is found to be full of worms of different lengths and colours, some being as fine as a thread and several feet long, of a bright yellow, and sometimes of a blue colour; others resemble snails, and some are not unlike lobsters in shape, but soft, and not above two inches long.

"The growth of the coral appears to cease when the worm is no longer exposed to the washing of the sea. Thus, a reef rises in the form of a cauliflower, till its top has gained the level of the highest tides, above which the worm has no power to advance, and the reef of course no longer extends itself upwards; the other parts in succession, reach the surface and there stop, forming in time a level field, with steep sides all around. The reef, however, continually increases, and being prevented from going higher, extends itself laterally in all directions. But this growth being as rapid at the upper edge as it is lower down, the steepness of the face of the reef is still preserved. These are the circumstances which render coral reefs so dangerous in navigation; for, in the first place, they are seldom seen above the water, and in the next, their sides are so steep, that a ship's bows may strike against the rock, before any change of soundings has given warning of the danger."

No sooner had an imperfect knowledge of Australia been brought to Europe, than an idea was entertained that considerable advantages would arise from rendering these distant regions the permanent abode of a European population; for though many parts were represented as wild, repulsive, and barren, others were described as delightful, genial, and fertile. The beauty of some of the islands, the salubrity of the climate, and the excellence of the soil, were too obvious to escape the attention even of the earliest navigators; the utility of colonizing those remote countries was therefore strenuously urged, and partially practised, some centuries ago. Mendana established himself with many of his adherents at Santa Cruz, in 1595; but on his death the colony was abandoned, and a sudden resolution adopted by the colonists, or at least by the leading persons among them, to sail for the Spanish settlements in South America. Quiros, who had been chief pilot to Mendana, visited the Australian seas a second time, renewed the idea of planting a European colony in those distant countries, and addressed a letter on the subject to Philip III. king of Spain. He did not fix upon the same spot as Mendana had done, but thought the *Tierra Austral del Espiritu Santo*, a few degrees further south, the most eligible. In enumerating the inducements for colonization which this island afforded, he concludes his memorial in the following terms: "Finally, Sir, I can with confidence assert, that the bay of Vera Cruz, situated in 15° 30' south latitude, presents the greatest advantages for the foundation of a large city, and the establishment of a numerous colony: I can but imperfectly describe the riches awaiting those Europeans who shall visit such delightful countries; time, in unfolding them, will make amends for my inability; and I doubt not that this colony will become the centre of communication, and the future mart for all the commerce of Peru, Chili, Ternate, the Philippines, and other remote kingdoms under the dominion of your Majesty."

Coloniza-
tion of
Australia.

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Though Quiros gave the most flattering account of the climate and soil, both of that and of other parts of the Australian regions, and pledged himself for the success of the colony should it be attempted, it does not appear that any active measures were taken by his government for promoting the object.

M. de Brosses terminates his work on southern navigations with an ingenuous disquisition on the establishment of colonies; in which, after treating of various parts of the world in which this object might be effected, he states it as his opinion, that Australia would be the most advantageous. All the persuasion of the learned President did not, however, induce the French to adopt the measures he proposed; though he fully directed their attention to New Guinea, as of all the countries the most favourable to the objects of colonization. His powerful arguments were lost upon the French as well as upon the Spaniards; and it does not appear, that the colonization of these distant regions was seriously contemplated at any subsequent period, till necessarily proved stronger than argument. Previously to the separation of the American colonies from the mother country, Great Britain had for many years sent her convicts thither; but when the independence of these parts was acknowledged in 1783, it became necessary to fix upon some other station for the reception of those who had forfeited a residence in their native country. Most of the navigators who had explored the coasts of New Holland prior to Captain Cook, had approached them where the shores were bleak and barren; but in his investigation of the eastern limits, that great navigator found that there were many places where the soil was rich, and vegetation abundant, and which only wanted the hand of industrious cultivation to render them extremely productive. After various attempts to find a suitable place for the disposal of convicts, the British government, in 1785, fixed upon the eastern shores of New Holland. Soon afterwards, several vessels laden with convicts, and carrying with them the members of a civil government, sailed from Great Britain, and landed at Botany bay, on the eastern shore of their destined island.

Peculiarity
and impor-
tance of the
British
colony.

No colony was ever founded in a region more distant from the parent state; for seas nearly equal to half the circumference of the globe, roll between them. Few were ever established with more out-cast materials; these being chiefly composed of such as had forfeited all the rights of civilised society, and even their lives in their native country. Unaccustomed to labour, and daily habituated to rapine and plunder, they suddenly found themselves placed in a country either altogether uninhabited, or occupied by the rudest of savages,

and overgrown with woods, or intersected with marshes. Domestic animals were unknown, wild ones were scarce, and altogether such as were new to Europeans, and totally unfit to be trained to participate in the labours of the field, or even to afford them a regular though scanty supply of food; yet under all these discouraging circumstances, towns gradually rose, fields soon waved with golden harvests, roads intersected the country, flocks and herds abounded, population rapidly increased, commerce flourished, and Australian Britain became the surprise and admiration of Europe. The language of the French Institute, when reporting on M. Peron's account of Captain Baudin's voyage, will doubtless be gratifying to many of our readers on this point. "No subject can be more curious or interesting, both to the soldier and statesman, than the colony of Botany bay, so long despised in Europe. Never was there a more conspicuous example of the omnipotence of laws and institutions over the characters of individuals. To convert the most hardened villains, the most daring robbers, into honest and peaceable citizens, or industrious husbandmen; then to operate in a similar manner upon the vilest of prostitutes, to change them into faithful wives and excellent mothers; next, to watch over the rising population, to preserve them by the most assiduous care from the contagion of their parents, and thus to rear a generation more virtuous than that from which they sprung; such is the impressive picture which the English colonies present." The justness of these reflections will not be doubted; but any extended observations on the subject must necessarily be reserved for the articles NEW HOLLAND and NEW SOUTH WALES. We cannot look back upon the progress of this colony without astonishment; nor contrast its origin with its present state, without anticipations of the most pleasing kind. When we recollect that but a few years have elapsed since the preponderating materials of which it was composed, were the dregs of the British populace; "the sweepings of jails, hulks and prisons," and now see it rising majestically into a flourishing state, and spreading the knowledge, manners, customs and benevolence of Britain over those distant regions; we cannot but look forward with the most animating hope, and regard it as a powerful instrument reared by Divine Providence for diffusing the benefits of civilisation, and the blessings of truth over the opposite hemisphere. To such of our readers as may wish for more ample illustrations of the facts mentioned in this sketch, we would recommend the perusal of the works already referred to, with the various articles in the preceding enumeration.

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AUSTREY

AUSTRALIZE, *auster*, the south, or seeth-ing wind; perhaps *Αὐστηρ*, from *ἄω*, I dry, I burn. Vossius.

True it is, and confirmable by every experiment, that steel and good iron, never excited by the load-stone, discover in themselves a veridicity; that is, a directive or polary faculty, whereby, conveniently placed, they do septentrionate at one extrem and australize at another.

Brown's Vulgar Errors.

AUSTREY, in the county of Warwick, a vicarage, valued in the king's books at £8. Patron, the king. Church dedicated to St. Nicholas. Population in 1811, 497. Poor's rates in 1803, at 4s. 8d. in the pound, £407. 9s. 7½d. 6 miles E. from Tamworth.

A U S T R I A .

AUSTRIA.

AUSTRIA, *CIRCLE OF*, occupies the south-east part of Germany, and was the largest of the ten circles into which that empire was lately divided. It is bounded on the east by Hungary; on the north by Moravia, Bohemia, Bavaria, and Swabia; on the west by Bavaria, Switzerland, and the country of the Grisons; and on the south by the Venetian states. This circle has been enlarged at various times, at the expense of the adjacent countries, particularly of Bavaria. When the late order of things in Germany was overthrown, it contained the archduchy, or hereditary domains of the house of Austria, with Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, part of Friuli, the Littoral, Tyrol, and Vorarlberg, with some districts in Swabia, besides Trente, Brixen, and other tracts which formerly belonged to the Teutonic order. Since the commencement of the present century, the archbishopric of Salzburg and part of the bishopric of Passau were also annexed to this circle; and the whole extent was stated at 29,940 square miles, and the population at 4,442,700 individuals; which is nearly 150 persons to each square mile. The Danube intersects the northern part, which, as well as the eastern districts of Styria, and some other tracts, are fertile in corn, wine, and various kinds of fruits. Much of the remainder is covered with lofty mountains and extensive forests; but these abound with valuable minerals, and yield great quantities of excellent timber. In several of these mountainous districts too, various manufactories are carried on, and both the population and revenue are greater, in proportion to the extent of the country, than in some of the more fertile districts of the empire. The public income derived from this circle is supposed to exceed four millions sterling, of which Lower Austria, or Austria below the Enns, contributes more than half. As this circle now forms a part of the present Austrian empire, its history, and other particulars, will necessarily be included under that head.

AUSTRIA, *ARCHDUCHEY* or, forms the northern part of the circle above described; and, in early ages, constituted the Hereditary States of that house which now rules such extensive tracts in the central parts of eastern Europe. The archduchy borders upon Bohemia, Moravia, Hungary, Styria, Salzburg, and Bavaria, and is estimated at more than 12,000 square miles, with a population, according to a late return, of 1,685,560 individuals. This population is very unequally distributed over its surface; for, as the lower part of the province contains the capital of the whole empire, and many of the plains near the Danube are very fertile, the inhabitants in these districts are comparatively dense, while a range of mountains, between five and six thousand feet high, separating it from Styria, are almost destitute of people. Though in most of the lower situations the

soil and climate are favourable to the productions of nearly all the necessities and luxuries of life, the state of cultivation is such as to render them inadequate to the supply of the population. Good wine is raised in many parts of this province, but not in quantities equal to the domestic consumption. The common kinds of grain and fruits are grown. The chief mineral products are iron and salt. Manufactures of woollen, linen, and cotton, have been long carried on; but have lately been more flourishing than formerly. The trade was principally internal, in consequence of the lower part of the Danube being subject to the power of the Turks, which, in addition to the impediments in the navigation, was always a serious obstacle to the communication of eastern Germany with the ocean; but the foreign commerce of these districts has been greatly augmented by the late acquisitions which have opened a direct intercourse with the Mediterranean.

In the ancient constitution of Germany, the archdukes of Austria enjoyed several privileges. They were exempt from the jurisdiction of the high courts of the empire; they took precedence of all the other imperial princes; and they had the power of creating nobility within their own dominions. The succession was hereditary, and included both the male and female line. The river Enns divides this archduchy into two parts called the upper and lower, or Austria above, and Austria below the Enns. The latter is by far the most extensive, fertile, and populous. Vienna is the chief city of this division, while Linz is considered as the capital of the upper district. The revenue derived from the one is about £2,000,000, while that from the other does not exceed a fourth of that sum. M. Blumenbach estimated, in 1816, that the quantity of land in Lower Austria, that was actually employed in the growth of grain, was about 600,000 *joch*; each of which is rather less than an English acre and a half. This he considered as producing 9,000,000 *metzen* of 1½ Winchester bushels each. The total was therefore equal to 1,968,750 quarters. He also estimates the area devoted to the growth of corn in Upper Austria, at 436,849 *joch*, and the produce at 5,342,168 *metzen*, or 1,146,730 quarters. The same author computes the extent of vineyards in the former province at 78,661 *joch*; and as this part is particularly favourable to the growth of the vine, it yields on an average 264 *cimens* for a *joch*, or 2,098,943 *cimens* in the whole. The *cimen* is equal to about 15 English wine gallons, and consequently the whole produce is 249,379 pipes. In the upper province, the land occupied by vineyards is stated at 83 *joch*, and the produce at 485 *cimens*, or less than 50 pipes. This is only about 5 *cimens* per *joch*, not a fifth of the quantity yielded by the lower part of the archduchy.

AUSTRIA.

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

AUSTRIA. This empire derives its name from the circle of Austria, above described, which formed the patrimonial possessions of the Grand Dukes of that house. Austria is merely a French or Italian modification of the German word *Oesterreich*, which implies the eastern kingdom, as compared with the more western regions of that country. Besides this province, which constituted the original dominions of the house of Austria, this empire now includes several kingdoms and states which were once independent governments, but have ultimately been subjugated under the Austrian sway, and now form integral parts of that extensive and compact empire, which, in 1816, was computed at 12,804 square German miles, with nearly 28,178,500 inhabitants. This estimate was made by M. Blumenbach, and rather exceeds the statement given by M. Hassel for the preceding year, which was 12,123½ square German miles, and a population of 27,967,800 individuals. As the German square mile is nearly equal to 21½ English square miles, the first of these areas is equal to 262,366 English miles, which gives about 107 persons to each square mile. In 1818, M. Lichtenstern states the extent of the empire, exclusively of the dependent states at 250,000 square English miles; and the population at 28,507,892 individuals, which is nearly 110 persons to each square mile.

Extent and population. Though constituting one compact body politic, which from successive accumulations has now swelled into a scale of magnificence, this empire includes a variety of distinct people and tribes within its wide limits. The original inhabitants were derived from the Slavonic and Gothic sources, the descendants of whom still form the great mass of the people. From its position near the line in which the tide of population moved, from south-east to north-west, it must have been early inhabited by one or both these Asiatic races. The northern parts were peopled chiefly by Slavonic tribes, while the original possessors of the southern countries were subsequently intermixed with the Cisalpine Gauls, and with the colonies established among them by the Romans, after they had subjugated most of the regions south of the Danube. On the south of the Alps, the population is, of course, principally Italian. A considerable number of Greeks, Turks, Armenians, Albanians, and various petty tribes are to be found in various parts. The author last referred to states the present population at the following proportions:—

Original inhabitants.

Slavonians	13,182,000
Germans	5,343,000
Italians	4,236,000
Hungarians	4,925,000
Wallachians	1,946,000
Jews	487,000

Distribution of the inhabitants into classes. In reference to the distribution of this population into classes, this writer estimates the Austrian clergy, independently of their families, at 64,000, about seven-eighths of which belong to the Catholic church, and are consequently supposed to lead a life of celibacy.

Nobles of both sexes	470,000
Civil servants of government with their families	280,000
Military, including women, children, and servants	800,000
Burgers and tradesmen, with their families	2,330,000
Persons engaged in agriculture, &c. about	20,025,000

Besides the regions, which constitute what is properly called the Austrian empire, the influence of the same authority extends, more or less, over several other countries which are denominated dependent states. The extent of these is nearly 14,000 square English miles, and the population about 9,000,000. By adding these numbers to the former, the total included under the Austrian influence will be 264,000 square English miles, with more than 30,000,000 of people, and presenting a comparative population of 113 persons to each square mile, which is very nearly half that of England, according to the census of 1821, which gives 244 persons for each square mile.—This comparison needs no comment to show the state of government, of industry, and, in a great measure, of society, as well as the improvement of which that free country is still capable.

Only a small part of the vast dominions which constitute the present empire of Austria, formed the early possessions of that imperial house. The results of war, the manœuvres of policy, and the exercise of power, have each contributed to raise this empire to its present rank in the scale of European states; few of which present greater fluctuations in their territorial possessions, or afford a more interesting theme in their progressive geography. The princes of Austria are descended from the dukes of Alsace, and were originally styled counts of Hapsburg; a title derived from the castle of that name, situated near the banks of the Aar, in Switzerland, where they possessed a small district before they were called to the throne of Germany, in the thirteenth century. In 1273, count Rudolph was elected king of the Romans, and gave the dukedom of Austria to his son Albert, who by that means became the first prince of that house, which afterwards so long swayed the imperial sceptre of Germany, and now bears the same relation to the extensive regions which constitute the empire of Austria. At the period of this transfer, the dukedom comprised only the ancient margraviate, and that part of Bavaria situated on the river Enns; but, as count of Hapsburg, Albert possessed the greater part of Oberland, in Switzerland, with some detached tracts in Swabia; Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola, were added to the growing state in 1284; and Albert was elected emperor of Germany in 1298. It was in his reign that the revolution in Switzerland commenced, and he had lost all his possessions in that country, at the time of his decease, in 1308. Henry VII. of Luxemburg, succeeded him to the imperial purple, and added Bohemia to his dominions in 1309, though it had successfully resisted

AUSTRIA.

Extended population of the dependent states.

Comparative population of the dependent states of Austria and England.

Progressive geography.

AUSTRIA. all the efforts of his predecessor. His authority was also acknowledged in Lombardy about two years afterwards; and the Tyrol appears to have been united to the dominions of the German emperors in 1364. The next duke of Austria who was invested with the imperial purple was Albert II.; but this did not take place till 1438; and since that time this dignity has been almost uninterruptedly possessed by his descendants. The emperor Maximilian, who was grandfather to Charles V., obtained the sovereignty of the Netherlands by marriage, in 1447; and his son Philip, by marrying the heiress of Aragon and Castile, brought the ample dominions of Spain under the Austrian sceptre in 1506. The possessions of the house of Austria were also greatly augmented, under this emperor, by the addition of Hungary and Bohemia in 1527. The latter he had previously possessed, but it had taken part with the Pope against the Emperor in 1338. Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia were also acquired about the same time; but in 1556, Charles resigned the dominions of Spain and the Netherlands to his son Philip. At the conclusion of the thirty years' war, in 1648, the imperial authority over the princes of the empire was not only weakened, but the limits of the empire itself were contracted, by the resignation of Lusatia to the elector of Saxony, and Alsace to France. Soon after this, however, Transylvania was added, and the boundaries of Hungary were enlarged; while the peace of Utrecht, in 1713, and the Barrier Treaty, about two years afterwards, put Austria in possession of Belgium, the duchy of Milan, the kingdom of Naples, the island of Sardinia, with the small districts of Freiburg and Kehl. The island of Sardinia was subsequently exchanged for that of Sicily. When the victories of prince Eugene compelled the Turks to sign the treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, the Banat of Temeswar, Belgrade, with parts of Servia, Bosnia, and Walachia, were brought under the Austrian power; but all these except the Banat, were restored to the authority of the Porte, in 1739. Naples and Sicily were, in 1735, exchanged with Spain for the duchies of Parma and Placentia; and the death of Charles VI., in 1740, terminated the male branch of the Hapsburg house of Austria.

This event conferred the imperial authority upon Maria Theresa, the daughter and heiress of Charles VI., who was married to the duke of Lorraine. Immediately on her accession to the throne, she had to contend with Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria and Spain, each of whom laid claim to a part of the possessions held by the late Emperor. The result of this struggle for the acquisition and maintenance of territory was, that Prussia acquired, in 1742, the greater part of Silesia with the country of Glatz; and Spain obtained the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, in 1748. The next event which materially affected the territorial possessions of the imperial house, was the partition of Poland. By the first of the partitions which brought that country to its present state, Austria acquired, in 1772, Galicia and Lodomeria. The Bukowine was added in 1777; and the Inowietz was acquired, on the side of Bavaria, in the following year. The final partition of Poland, in 1795, also made another considerable addition to the Austrian dominions, which soon after began to feel the reverse of fortune, and, for a season, gradually declined. The sovereign was still dignified with the title of the Em-

peror of Germany; but the territories and population over which his authority extended, were greatly affected by the French Revolution. Before the final partition of Poland, the inhabitants of the empire were estimated at 25,000,000, which were considerably augmented by that event; but an equal diminution took place soon afterwards, for by the treaty of Campo Formio, signed on the 17th of October, 1797, Austria ceded the Netherlands to France, in exchange for Venice and the Venetian territories within the Adige. Milan and Mantua were also ceded, and the Cisalpine Republic was acknowledged. Breisgau was resigned, and the left bank of the Rhine was secretly abandoned, and by the peace of Luneville, in 1801, formally ceded to France. By the peace of Presburg, which followed the disasters of Ulm and Austerlitz, at the close of 1805, the Venetian states, the Tyrol, and the Swabian principalities, containing about 3,000,000 of inhabitants, were given up as the price of peace. The following year too was the period which brought the German empire (of millennial duration) to its close; as the title of "Emperor of Austria" was then substituted for that of "Emperor of Germany, and king of the Romans."

A new war with France commenced in 1805, and led to a further diminution of territory, for by the peace of Vienna, concluded on the 11th of October, in that year, Austria ceded the following provinces: viz.

1. The Illyrian provinces to France.
2. Salzburg and some other tracts to Bavaria.
3. Some districts in Lusatia, belonging to Bohemia, and the whole of West Galicia to Saxony.
4. Part of East Galicia to Russia.

The aggregate extent of these cessions was about 44,000 square miles, with nearly three millions and a half of people. The population of the Austrian empire was then reduced to less than 20 millions; but the final success of the Allies, in 1814, and the overthrow of the grand enemy of Europe, restored Austria to her more than former extent and influence.

The substance of the two treaties then concluded will afford the clearest view of the present territories, and outlines of this empire.

By the treaty between Russia and Austria, signed at Vienna on the 3d of May, 1815, his Majesty, emperor of all the Russias, cedes to his imperial and royal apostolic Majesty the eastern part of Galicia that was dismembered in 1809, the frontiers to be established as they were previous to that treaty. By the same act, the salt mines of Wieliczka with the territories belonging to them, were also ceded to Austria. Cracow and a small surrounding district was rendered a free town, and the boundary fixed between it and Galicia is the Thulweg of the Vistula.

By the general treaty signed at Vienna on the 9th of June 1815, the emperor of Austria is acknowledged as legitimate sovereign of all the dominions which had either wholly or in part been ceded by him from the treaty of Campo Formio to that of Vienna. These include Istria, Austria and Venetian Dalmatia, the ancient Venetian isles of the Adriatic, the mouths of the Cattaro, the city of Venice with its waters, and all the Venetian states on the Terra Firma, upon the left bank of the Adige, the duchies of Milan and Mantua, the principalities of Brixen and Trento, the country of Tyrol, the Vorarlberg, the Austrian Frioul, the ancient Venetian Frioul, the territory of Montefalcone, the government and town of Trieste, Carniola, Upper

AUSTRIA. Carinthia, Croatia, on the right bank of the Save, Frioul, the Hungarian Littorale, and the district of Castua. By the next article of this treaty, it is stated that his Imperial Majesty shall possess.

"1. Besides the portion of the Terra Firma in the Venetian states, mentioned in the preceding article, the other parts of these states, as well as all the territory situated between the Tesino, the Po, and the Adriatic sea.

"2. The valleys of the Valteline, of Bormio, and of Chiavenna.

"3. The territories which formerly composed the republic of Ragusa."

In consequence of the stipulations agreed upon in the preceding articles, the frontiers of the dominions of his Imperial Majesty, on the side of Italy, are declared to be,

"1. On the side of the states of his Majesty the

king of Sardinia, such as they were, on the 1st of AUSTRIA, January, 1792.

"2. On the side of the states of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, the course of the Po, the line of demarcation following the Thalgew of that river.

"3. On the side of the states of Modena, such as they were on the 1st of January, 1792.

"4. On the side of the papal states, the course of the Po, as far as the mouth of the Goro.

"5. On the side of Switzerland, the ancient frontier of Lombardy, and that which separates the valleys of the Valtellina, of Bormio, and Chiavenna, from the cantons of the Grisons, and the Tessino."

Such are the extent and southern boundaries of the Austrian empire, as fixed by the Congress, and which, according to Blumenbach, have been divided into twenty-one provinces, or governments, besides the four dependent states. To each of these he assigns the following extent and population, in 1816.

I. AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

	Ger. sq. miles	Inhabitants.
1. The kingdom of Bohemia.....	956 80	3,803,223
2. The margravate of Moravia.....	417 64	1,680,935
3. The dukedom of Silesia.....	86 85	1,048,394
4. Austria below the Enns.....	363 65	1,048,394
Ger. sq. miles Inhabitants		
5. { Austria above the Enns..... 151 86	417,625	756,897
6. { Circle of the Inn and Hausruck 59 92	197,537	
7. { Saltzburgh..... 133 54	141,699	
8. The duchy of Styria.....	398 98	799,056
9. The duchy of Carinthia.....	190 90	378,500
10. { Illiria..... 190 61	358,831	467,836
11. { Part of Croatia..... 60 34	108,905	
12. The coast district.....	176 18	422,861
13. Tyrol and Vorarlberg.....	520 44	717,542
14. The Lombardo-Venetian kingdom.....	867 50	4,111,535
15. The government of Dalmatia.....	374 94	295,089
16. The kingdom of Galicia.....	1526 12	3,765,451
17. Civil Hungary, Croatia and Slavonia.....	4067 06	8,200,000
18. Civil Transylvania.....	1118 70	1,510,000
19. Transylvanian military frontiers.....	186 00	171,675
20. Banat frontiers.....	139 40	230,079
21. Slavonian frontiers.....	67 40	107,317
22. Warasdeaner military government.....	166 40	188,906
23. Carlsbadter military government.....	54 20	95,442
24. Banat regiments.....	12,904 43	98,178,836

II. DEPENDENT STATES.

1. Grand dukedom of Tuscany.....	431 00	1,170,000
2. Dukedom of Modena.....	92 31	375,000
3. Dukedom of Massa and Carrara, with Garfagnana.....	23 00	60,000
4. Dukedom of Parma.....	101 69	383,000
	647 23	1,988,000

A part of these territories are situated within the limits of Germany, which places the emperor of Austria at the head of the princes who constitute the body politic denominated the Germanic confederation. These states are Austria Proper, Styria, Carinthia, Saltzburgh, Tyrol and Vorarlberg; the rest of the dominions belonging to Austria, are out of Germany.

Outlines.

Many of the boundaries of this empire consist of arbitrary lines. In some places the bed of a river, in others the ridge of a mountain, forms the line of demarcation. The Adriatic indents the southern part; and

while it constitutes the natural boundary, it affords the advantages of a maritime state. The coasts are here steep, and the adjoining seas are sprinkled with rocky islands. The Save and the Danube divide it in part from the Turkish possessions; a range of mountains separates it from Wallachia and Moldavia, while another chain almost encompasses Bohemia, on the north and west; and a branch of the Alps stretches between Tyrol and Bavaria. The remainder of the outlines are seldom distinguished by natural features.

A region that embraces a large portion of the Alps,

AUSTRIA. with the basins of the Danube and the Po, the plains of Lombardy, Hungary, and Galicia, must include all the diversity of surface and soil to be met with in most of the other countries of Europe. The Carpathian mountains bound the north and east of Hungary and Transylvania, and many detached groups and branches from that range, give a picturesque variety to the northern parts. The southern regions are rendered strikingly romantic by the eastern Alps, and their varied ramifications. Dalmatia, Carniola, and Carinthia, as well as the other districts in that quarter present many romantic mountain scenes, but the Tyrol stands pre-eminent for the rich variety of its picturesque scenery. Switzerland, it is true, presents objects that are more stupendous; but, if the masses are more vast, the outline is not so broken, nor are the more impressive features of landscape so much blended or so fully brought within the range of the eye, as in the Tyrolean district. Here the traveller who delights in the union of the sublime and the beautiful, is sure to receive the highest gratification: here mountains and defiles of the boldest character, glaciers, cataracts and lakes of the most singular kind, with woods and valleys of a peculiar physiognomy, constitute a *total ensemble*, within the scope of distinct vision, which overwhelms the beholder with such impressions and feelings as no words can express. The mountains of Austria are indeed of all elevations and aspects, from the towering altitude of the Great Brenner, hiding his snow-capped summit above the clouds, to the gentle rising of a few hundred feet, which diversify the more fertile tracts of the empire.

Surface and mountains.

Principal rivers.

Rivers of all descriptions intersect these dominions in almost every direction. The majestic Danube divides them into two distinct parts, from north-west to south-east. It receives about forty tributary streams before it enters the imperial territories, and one hundred more before it completes its lengthened course by mingling its waters with those of the Black Sea. Some of the other large rivers are the Save, the Drave, the Theiss, the Inn, the Raab, the Scythia, the Morava, and the Mulda, which with several more will be described under their respective names. Besides these, which water the regions north of the Alps, many noble streams diversify the other districts, and convey to the ocean the overflowing of the subalpine lakes that adorn the southern flanks of that chain. Among these may be named the Tesino, the Adda, the Oglio, the Adige, and the Po.

Canals.

Internal navigation has not been wholly neglected in Austria; though it is yet far from the perfection to which an increased industry, and an improved culture will doubtless carry it. Many of the rivers are too rapid, or too much impeded by rocks and water-falls to be of much service in this respect. Even the Danube is so obstructed in some places as to render its ascent difficult, and in others altogether impracticable. Various schemes for connecting the great rivers have been formed; but the only two canals that have been completed are the Bega canal and that called the emperor Francis's canal. The former passes through the whole of Baust, by Requeswar, and joins the Bega to the Theiss near the junction of the latter with the Danube; so that vessels may pass from the one river to the other, a distance of about seventy-three English miles. The other canal, which was completed in 1801, and is

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about sixty-two miles in length, joins the Danube and the Theiss. There are also a few smaller canals on the south side of the Alps, two of which connect the lakes Maggiore and Como with the city of Milan.

AUSTRIA.

Lakes form a distinguishing feature in the Austrian landscape; but they are inferior both in magnitude and importance to those of Russia; while they are by some thought to be less interesting than those of Switzerland. Their character, however, is greatly diversified. On both flanks of the Alps, they partake of the sublime features of that stupendous range; while in Hungary, and some other of the lower districts, they are only extensive meres, which are in dry seasons almost changed into marshes; one of the largest of these is the Balaton lake, or Platten-see, which is about forty-five miles long, and from four to nine broad. The next is the Neusiedler-see, about ten leagues south-east of Vienna, which is nearly fifty miles in circumference, but too shallow to be navigated, except by boats. There are also several small lakes in Bohemia, and some near the borders of Bavaria. The Tyrol and all the mountainous districts in that part of the empire abound in these picturesque features of nature; while those on the southern side of the Alps frequently confer a charm on the landscape, which the combined effect of all its other Alpine features could not impart. Among the most striking of these may be enumerated Maggiore or Lucarno, Lugano, Como, Lecce, Iseo, and Garda, which form a series stretching from west to east. One of the most curious, however, is that of Czirknitz, embosomed in the mountains of Carniola, south of Laybach.

The climate and atmospheric temperature of the Austrian dominions, must be subject to an equal diversity with their difference of latitude and elevation of surface. At Vienna, which does not exceed 400 feet above the level of the sea, the medium temperature of the year has been stated at 51° of Fahrenheit's thermometer; while at Gratz, about a degree further south, it is only 49°; but the situation is nearly 700 feet above the level of the ocean. Salzburg, which is on the western frontier, and stands at the northern base of the Alpine range, has only a mean annual temperature of 47°; while at Prague, 2° further north, the medium is 48°. Austria, with respect to climate, may be divided into three regions. The first comprises the southern districts, and extends from about the 49th to the 46th degree of latitude. The olive, the myrtle, the vine, the fig-tree, and the pomegranate grow freely within those limits, and the winter resembles the spring a few degrees further north. The second region comprises the space between the 46th and the 49th degrees, and includes Austria Proper, and a great part of Hungary, with portions of Bohemia and Moravia. The olive is no longer found here, but vines and maize thrive well in favourable situations. The winter lasts between three and four months; the spring is mild and rainy; and the summer warm, but variable. The third region includes part of Hungary, with Galicia, a great portion of Bohemia and Moravia, and the whole of Austrian Silesia. Winter here assumes an increased length and severity; grapes and other delicate fruits no longer attain maturity; but in the valleys the heat of summer is often greater than in England. The climate of Hungary is less salubrious than in many other parts of the empire, which

Principal lakes.

Climate and atmospheric temperature.

AUSTRIA. doubtless arises from the extensive plains, morasses, and uncultivated districts.

At Offen-Buda, which is situated about a degree and a half further south than Paris, the mean temperature of its coldest month is several degrees less than that of the latter city: the summer, however, has often been found to be hotter than at Paris, and even to have equalled the temperature of Rome, which is situated in the 42d degree of latitude; but the difference of temperature between night and day is less in Hungary than in several other countries of Europe. The south-east is considered as the most unhealthy, as the plague sometimes spreads over those regions which border on Turkey, whence the contagion is supposed to be brought.

Soil.

This empire presents every species of soil, from the most fertile to the most barren. The low grounds in the basins of the Po, the Danube, and some of the other great rivers, have always been celebrated for their fertility. Some places, however, are occupied by sandy plains, which afford cheerless pictures of unbroken sterility; while extensive morasses are met with in other parts. It has lately been estimated by the statistical writers of the empire, that the productive soil of Austria is nearly four-fifths of the whole surface; the rest being occupied by rivers, mountains, and waste lands. It has also been computed, that if we suppose the whole productive part to be divided into 100 parts, these are employed nearly in the following manner; viz.

The land in tillage occupies	43 parts.
The meadow lands	9
The commons	9
Vineyards	2
Gardens, orchards, and nursery-grounds ..	9
Forests	35

100

Agriculture and vegetable products.

Considerable attention has for several years been paid to agriculture by the Austrian government; but, from the produce obtained, it must still be concluded that the practice is yet imperfect. Various causes appear to retard the improvement of this primitive and essential art. Among these are the deficiency of enclosures in many districts; the imperfect mode of tenure in others; the want of intercourse between the proprietors and cultivators in most; and not infrequently the small skill and capital employed in their cultivation. In the most fertile parts of the country the produce is often less than the consumption of the population. In some districts of Hungary and Galicia, which consist principally of extensive plains, several kinds of grain are produced for exportation; but this is rather the effect of a small consumption than of abundant crops. In Hungary, and some other places, the corn is still trodden out by cattle, and preserved in holes in the ground instead of granaries. Wheat, rye, barley and oats, are generally cultivated, but the produce is subject to great variation in point of quantity. In Austria Proper, in some parts of Moravia, and in the fertile tracts of northern Italy, the average crop of all these kinds is fifteen or sixteen *metzen* per jock, which is about eighteen Winchester bushels an English acre. In other parts of the empire, however, the produce is not more than a third or a fourth of this quantity. Several other kinds of grain are grown in different parts; as maize, particularly in Italy and the

south of Hungary; rice, in Italy and Hungary, and about Temeswar; millet, in Hungary, Carinthia and Moravia; buck-wheat, in Galicia and some other sandy districts. The whole quantity of wheat, rye, barley and oats, has been estimated at an average of 210,808,312 *metzen*; and including the inferior grains, at 210,000,000 *metzen*, or 360,000,000 Winchester bushels. As the quantity of arable land is about 43,560,000 English acres, and one-third of it is annually in fallow, there remains 29,054,700 acres which are yearly productive; and consequently the medium crop is less than 12½ Winchester bushels per acre. This sufficiently proves the imperfection of Austrian agriculture!

Besides these products, Austria yields all those which administer to the luxury, or constitute the support of man. Many districts abound with wine, others yield oil and various kinds of delicious fruits. Hops, hemp, flax, garden vegetables and saffron, grow in most of the countries north of the Alps. Large tracts are covered with forests of chestnut and walnut trees, while on the south of the Alps, oranges, lemons, peaches, figs, mulberries, and other fruits, that require a more concentrated heat to bring them to maturity, are produced in abundance. Tyrol and the Italian states annually yield more than two million pounds of silk, and employ a great number of persons in attending the worms, and managing the crop. The extent of land dedicated to the culture of the vine in the whole of the Austrian empire, has been stated at 2,314,570 English acres; and the produce at 493,109,565 gallons, which is about 215 gallons for each acre. The whole value of the vegetable produce of this empire has lately been computed at £68,500,000, which is little more than half the estimate for England and Wales, a few years ago.

Many of the mountains, and other parts of the Forests. Austrian dominions, are clothed with luxuriant forests, which produce timber of every species, both for home consumption and for floating down the rivers in vast rafts for the use of other countries. In some districts, extensive tracts of level country are covered with these silvan stores, not always crowded together, as in most of the woods of England; for Dr. Bright, who has traversed them for many miles together, considers them of great importance, as affording pasture for the cattle during the summer, when the sun is very powerful. At this season, almost all the cattle of the estate are driven into them, and remain under keepers of different descriptions for three or four months. With respect to the general features of these forests, they vary much, sometimes presenting deep labyrinths of wood, intersected by paths worn by herdsmen and their flocks, but requiring most experienced guides to conduct the traveller through their mazes; at others affording magnificent grove scenery, and opening like a wooded park, with trees grouped in beautiful variety by the unassisted hand of nature. The herbage was luxuriant whenever an opening amongst the trees permitted the partial influence of the air and sun." This author states the whole extent of the Austrian forests at 34 millions of jocks, or about 56,000 English square miles, which is nearly equal to the whole extent of both England and Wales.

Domestic cattle of most kinds are common in Austria, such as horses, cattle, buffaloes, sheep, swine, asses, and goats. Laudable attention has for many

AUSTRIA. years been paid by the emperor, and several other distinguished individuals, to improving the breed of horses, by the introduction of Arabian, and other superior species. The emperor's stud supplies the army with at least 1000 horses yearly, besides those employed in all other purposes. The breed in several parts is small, though in Bohemia, and some other countries, it is strong and spirited. Less attention has been paid to the cattle than to the horses. In many places they are almost all of a blue slate colour; in Hungary they are tall and active, and of a dirty white, with very long horns; in Styria they are chiefly of different shades of brown, with short horns. They are suffered to range through the forests, or feed on the common during the greater part of the year; and when the ground is covered with snow they are brought to the villages and farms, and principally fed on straw. The whole number of domestic stock of these descriptions in the Austrian empire has lately been stated as follows; viz. 1,500,000 horses, 10,000,000 horned cattle, and 12,000,000 sheep. It is nearly half a century since the emperor set his nobles a laudable example, in his attention to the improvement of the native breeds of sheep, which has within the last twenty years been followed by many of the great land owners. Wool, being the principal object of value, the emelioration has been chiefly effected by the introduction of the Spanish breed. Hungary, however, is the country where the largest flocks are kept, and where this improvement has for some time been carried on with the greatest attention. The whole number of sheep in that country is estimated at 10,000,000, of which more than half are of the improved species. In 1813, the number of sheep in several other parts of the empire, were given in an authentic document as follows:—

In Bohemia	1,190,421
Moravia and Austrian Silesia	438,501
Austria below the Enns	352,091
Austria above the Enns	108,120
Styria	156,971
Carinthia	60,459
Galicia	443,308

Total .. 3,669,697

Bees are numerous in many parts of the Austrian territories, particularly in Hungary, where hundreds of thousands are annually fed in the forests. Bees have likewise excited great interest, and strenuous exertions have been made by government to call the attention of the people to this source of emolument. A late Austrian writer, M. Bisinger, states the whole yearly produce of honey at 100,000 *centners*, and of wax at 6,000 *centners*. A *centner* is more than 120 lbs. avoirdupois.

Wild animals.

Where mountains, forests, and uninhabited tracts, are so abundant, wild animals must be numerous; and among these are the wolf, the bear, the lynx, the chamois, the marmot, and most of those that inhabit the uncultivated regions in other parts of Europe. The birds are chiefly such as are common in the other countries of the continent, except amidst the mountains of Carinthia, where some species are met with seldom found in other places. Most of the rivers abound with fish, some of which are said to be peculiar to the Danube and a few other streams. Among these are a small kind of salmon, of so delicate a

nature as to be thought a suitable present from one prince to another. The Fogus of the Plutonee is much esteemed.

Amidst such a diversity of mountains as Austria presents, minerals can scarcely fail of being a prominent feature in its productive riches. Accordingly we find them both more varied and more important than in most other countries of Europe. The gold and silver mines of Hungary and Transylvania have long been celebrated; but besides the precious metals, the same regions yield copper, iron, antimony, coal, salt and alum. The opal, too, is a valuable gem peculiar to Hungary. Bohemia also yields the precious metals, with copper, iron and tin. The latter is peculiar to Zinwald (or Tin Forest), and some other tracts towards the western confines of that country. The garnets of this kingdom, too, are highly valued. The iron of Styria is of a quality so superior for the manufacture of steel, that much of it is imported into England. Quicksilver is likewise one of the mineral products of this empire, and is obtained in the Illyrian provinces, towards the top of the Adriatic. The mines of Styria produce an excellent marble; but one of the most abundant of these treasures is salt. This is obtained in various places; but the two most noted are in Styria, near the borders of Salzburg, and at Wieliczka, which lately belonged to Poland. At the former of these places, the annual produce of the mine which is worked in the mountain of Aussee, is stated at 150,000 *centners*, or 8,270 tons. The quantity yearly obtained from the mines at Wieliczka and Bochnia, near Cracow, which were ceded to Austria by the act of Congress, is about 600,000 quintals.

Mineral products.

Mineral waters are met with in many parts of the Austrian empire. Those at Baden, in Austria Proper; at Toplitz and Carlsbad, in Bohemia; with those at Erlau, Buda, and Schemnitz, in Hungary, are among the most celebrated in eastern Europe. A spring near the Balaton lake is also much frequented, and its waters are sent to various parts of the empire. Beside these, there are more than 300 separate springs, chiefly in Hungary.

Mineral waters.

As this empire is almost wholly an inland country, and destitute of a navy, colonies and settlements are unknown, and the islands are few and unimportant. The last are situated in the north-west part of the Adriatic, and stretch along the shore of Dalmatia, from the gulf of Jussarro to the southern extremity of that country. The chief of them are Veglia, Cherso, Osero, Grossa, Brazza, Sesina and Melida.

In concluding this brief physical description of this empire, a few of its more prominent antiquities and curiosities must be enumerated. The former are intimately connected with the state of society among its ancient possessors, the latter either demonstrate the immense superiority of nature over art, or show what can be accomplished by the combined and persevering efforts of feeble man. Gibbon has observed that, "if we except Bohemia, Moravia, the northern skirts of Austria, and part of Hungary, between the Tyos and the Danube, all the other dominions of the House of Austria were situated within the limits of the Roman empire;" and it is within these limits exclusively that monuments of antiquity are to be found. They must consequently be ascribed to Roman origin; and so great is their resemblance to those of Italy,

Antiquities and curiosities.

AUSTRIA. that the following only shall be enumerated. One of the most attractive of these fabrics is the cathedral church of St. Stephen at Vienna, which is closely connected with almost every period of the Austrian annals; for the Roman inhabitants of Vindobona, the hero who has defended, and the sage who has added lustre to the Austrian name, have mingled their ashes on this sacred spot.

As we advance towards the south, we approach the centre of the Roman power, and specimens of their art become more numerous. Two of the most conspicuous are the following. About forty miles south of Trieste, on a small peninsula, stands the amphitheatre of Pola: it is the only one of the Roman edifices of this kind the precinct of which remains entire. Another specimen of these structures is to be found at Verona, but only a part of it is now to be seen. Among the natural curiosities, are various alpine scenes, chasms, and caverns. In Hungary, the cavern near Izadello is of great extent, and does not yet appear to have been fully explored. In the adjacent part of the Carpathian mountains there is also another noted cavern, which contains a small glacier; while others are found containing numerous bones of animals. The lake of Czirknitz is one of the most singular of its kind: being wholly surrounded by mountains, it has no visible outlet, but in June or July the waters subside, and sink into caverns in the rock, and the bed becomes a rich meadow or pasture; but in October or November, when the rains descend copiously upon the adjacent mountains, the waters again issue from their receptacles, the lake resumes its former size, and is well stocked with fish. The lake of Jesero, in the island of Cherso, is said to discharge its waters only at intervals of four or five years from each other. The salt mines near Saltzburg, and those at Wieliczka, are among the most interesting artificial curiosities of these regions.

Interesting cities and towns.

Vienna is the capital of this empire; besides which it contains many large and interesting towns, which will be described under their proper names. Here it will, therefore, be sufficient to observe, that while the very names of some of them are closely associated with the deeds of ancient days, others are as intimately interwoven with the heroic actions and noble daring of modern times.

In a work which professes to exhibit a luminous body of human knowledge, the social and moral states of man must ever be interesting topics, both to the general and the philosophic observer. To the one they present a mass of amusing and valuable information; to the other they offer the moral and political elements of society, and lead him to contemplate the depths of human economy.

Government and laws.

Though great moderation in the exercise of royal power, and a strong desire for internal improvement, have long characterised the Austrian rulers, the government falls little short of an absolute monarchy. The empire is composed of a variety of kingdoms and states, and many vestiges of their ancient constitutions remain; but as the imperial title is hereditary, and both the armies and revenues of these different countries are wholly at the disposal of the emperor, none of them can singly resist his will. Several of those states still preserve their national assemblies, which meet at certain periods, but the whole extent of their power is to offer humble advice to the supreme

government. Hungary has always had at least a nominal government of its own, and has been jealous of its constitutional privileges. The emperor is styled king of Hungary, and his authority is exercised through the medium of the national states. The Austrian executive consists of four great departments, all established at Vienna. These were first organised by Maria Theresa, and preside respectively over the internal affairs of the empire, its foreign relations, its military concerns, and the internal administration of Hungary.

The laws of the empire are still more complicated than its ancient constitutions; but the government has lately caused a more easy exposition of their fundamental principles to be promulgated; the criminal part in 1804, and the civil in 1819. These laws are mild, and appear to be salutary; as capital crimes are seldom committed, and the punishment of death is rarely inflicted. When it becomes unavoidable, the sentence is carried into execution with great solemnity.

In all absolute monarchies, where the public documents are confined to the archives of office, nothing more than an approximation to the military establishment and revenue of the state can be attempted. M. Hassel states the nominal amount of the Austrian army in 1815 to be 535,594 men, comprised in 115 regiments, and 756 battalions; but the actual amount was only 481 battalions, composed of 257,404 men. There is still more difficulty in ascertaining the revenue than the army. This, however, has been estimated at 82 millions; and arises principally from a tax upon landed property and articles of domestic consumption. The imperial domains, the monopoly of certain manufactures, and a duty upon several articles of commerce, with a tax upon Jews, also contribute to the above sum. The mines likewise constitute a productive source of revenue.

Austria had long to contend with adverse circumstances in reference to her manufactures; and she is, therefore, behind several other countries in this respect; but these have been greatly fostered since the return of the general peace. Among other means of their improvement, a public institution has been established at Vienna, for collecting, as into one focus, specimens of all the articles manufactured in the dominions, and occasionally comparing them with those made in foreign states. This establishment affords a great facility of diffusing real knowledge of the various subjects to which it relates. While the late war caused some of these branches of Austrian industry to decline, it had a contrary effect upon others. Cotton was one of the principal of those that were thus benefited; and the manufacture of it now employs about 360,000 persons. Its chief seat is Austria Proper, into which the English machinery and improvements have been introduced; and the quality of the manufactured articles is only inferior to those of England, Saxony and France. Bohemia, Moravia and Styria, also participate in the same trade. Linen is likewise an important article in the Austrian manufactures, and is extensively made in Bohemia, Moravia and Silesia; the latter of which is particularly noted for the fineness of its fabric. More than 60,000 pieces are here annually produced, though without any large establishments. Austria Proper, and Galicia, are both engaged in this branch of industry, while much of a coarser kind is made

Army and revenue.

Manufactures.

AUSTRIA. in Hungary, and exported by Greek and Serbian merchants. The manufactures of iron and steel also employ many people in different parts of the empire. The whole number of iron forges is estimated at 1000. At Vienna, and several other places, fine works in these metals are executed. For both porcelain and glass, Austria has obtained much repute. The glass works are computed at 170, more than half of which are supposed to be in Bohemia, where magnificent services, elegant lustres, and large plates are made, both for domestic and foreign use. The Vienna porcelain is well known, though by many it is thought to be inferior to that of some other countries. Silk is also one of those articles, which has much declined, and the looms employed in its manufacture have been principally converted to the weaving of shawls. Leather, paper, gunpowder, numerous works in wood, and many other articles, exercise the industry of various places. Vienna is noted for its jewellery; and its cinabar manufacture, which is considered superior in quality to that of Holland, produces about 6,000lbs. a week. Gold and silver lace, cutlery, and musical instruments, are also made in the capital. We are not aware that any authentic document relative to the total value of the Austrian manufactures, has been published; but it may be stated at about £50,000,000.

Commerce. As most of the countries included within the Austrian dominions are agricultural nations, and both in climate and situation are capable of producing all the necessaries and most of the luxuries of life, its chief commerce is either of the domestic kind, or that carried on with other internal states. In this sense the trade of Austria is not restricted to a communication between one part of the empire and another, but now extends over the whole of Germany, Poland, Russia, and Turkey. Vienna has therefore become the rendezvous of merchants from most of the commercial nations of Europe, and some of those of Asia. Since the acquisition of the Italian states, foreign commerce has been greatly increased; and now extends not only to Italy, Poland, and Turkey, but to the Netherlands, France, England, and even to the Indies. Vienna must no longer be considered merely as the capital of all the Austrian states, but as the emporium of its commerce, since the payments in Trieste and other places are generally made by bills on Vienna. Much exchange business is therefore carried on there for the ports on the Adriatic, and most of the merchants of the interior have their bankers in the capital. One of the chief branches of the Vienna trade is that with Turkey, to which glass, cloth, hardware, and Spanish pistoles, are exported; and cotton, coffee, goat's hair, fruits, wines of Greece, and leather, are imported in return. Among the various associations that have been formed for the extension of commerce, the two most important are the Egyptian Company, and the Bohemian Lincen Company. The first of these has an establishment at Smyrna, and exports various Austrian manufactures, in return for cotton, silk, coffee, &c.; and the latter sometimes makes shipments by way of Cadiz, to South America. The principal imports of Austria are East and West Indian articles, with some from the Levant and Africa, and a few manufactured goods from the other states of Europe. M. Lichtenstein lately states the whole annual value of the foreign commerce at £6,200,000, estimating the exports at £3,000,000, and the imports

at £3,200,000. Thus the balance of trade is against Austria; another proof of the low state of her industry.

The established religion of the Austrian empire is the Roman Catholic; but since the year 1791, toleration has been allowed. The emperor is at the head of the Austrian church; and here he is perhaps more free from restraint than in the exercise of his political functions. In Hungary in particular the King is virtually head of the church: he appoints the bishops, regulates their incomes, suppresses or establishes monasteries and other ecclesiastical institutions, and controls the correspondence of the bishops with the Pope. The number of catholics is supposed to be about two-thirds of the whole population; the other third being composed of Calvinists, Lutherans, members of the Greek church, Jews and Mahometans. The number belonging to the Greek church is estimated at two millions.

Austria affords an example of the fact, that the diffusion of general knowledge has been less attended to in the catholic than in the protestant countries of Germany; yet the Empress Maria Theresa set a laudable example in establishing schools in various parts of her empire, but proper teachers were wanted to give them the desired effect. This example has been followed by her successors, and the business of education is wholly the concern of government. In Austria Proper, most of the people can read and write, but in the more distant part of the dominions, this is seldom the case. Dr. Bright, in the account of his late travels, affords much interesting information on this head; and from him the following extract is taken. "The business of education in Austria is of a most formidable nature, both for duration and formality. It necessarily demands a large apparatus to keep it in activity, and accordingly, there are throughout the empire, universities, lyceums, district academies, gymnasiums, Latin schools, schools for instructing children in their native tongue, and schools for teaching the elements of religion; all under the immediate superintendence, and in the greater part supported at the expense of government. The professors and teachers are not only paid from the public treasury, but the young men are obliged, under pain of exclusion from all the endless offices of state, to attend to their instructions. Private schools are consequently unknown, and there are no traces of that emulation, which in more free countries, assures to parents a large choice of well instructed masters, each anxious to improve the time, and facilitate the business of education." The enormous nature of the machinery is sufficient to account for the inadequacy of its effect. The principal Austrian universities are at Vienna, Prague, Pesth, Eclau, and Lemberg, with those of Milan, Mantua, Padua, and Pavia, on the south side of the Alps.

Various languages are spoken by the collective nations that compose this political body; German is that of the ruling people, and the most prevalent. The Slavonic is spoken in Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, and part of Hungary. In the other part the proper Hungarian, which is said to be a dialect of the Scythian, prevails. In the southern provinces, the Italian is the common medium of communication; and near the borders of Turkey, the Walachian is chiefly used. French is spoken by all the higher classes; and in Hungary nearly the whole population, even the peasants, speak Latin. With all the machinery of public education they possess, the Austrians have no claim to

AUSTRIA.
Religion.

Education.

Language
and literature.

AUSTRIA. celebrity as a literary people. They are not devoid of eminent names in various branches of knowledge, but these are few, and the series often interrupted; while their writers are most frequently employed upon local subjects.

Arts and sciences.

The arts and sciences seem to be progressive, but in all except music they are inferior to many other continental nations. Several branches of science have produced men of superior attainments; but it would be difficult to find an eminent painter or sculptor. Even most of their buildings have been planned by foreign architects. In music however, the names of Haydn and Mozart, whose powers and taste were formed or pre-matured at Vienna, would alone be sufficient to establish the national fame.

The Austrians have shewn great ingenuity in mechanical inventions, but they have rather applied their genius to the purposes of amusement than utility; for while we perceive strong traces of this skill in a head that is capable of imitating all the sounds of the human voice, and in an instrument which will simultaneously emit all the diversified sounds of music, we find few who have followed the footsteps of a Brindley, an Arkwright, or a Watt.

Manners and customs.

As the Austrian empire embraces an assemblage of kingdoms and states that long existed under different forms of government and a diversity of local circumstances, no general sketch of the manners and customs can include the whole. Our remarks in this place shall, therefore, be confined to the Austrian provinces, referring the others to the respective heads of Bohemia, Moravia, &c. The following particulars are not only derived from travellers who have witnessed what they relate, but many of them from a gentleman who had resided many years among the people which he described, as well as in other parts of Germany; and who therefore had great opportunities of forming a correct estimate. He describes the Austrians generally, as a handsome athletic race, composed principally of German materials, but intermixed with the different inhabitants of Italy, Hungary, and Bohemia. This gives to the Austrian countenance a darker complexion and bolder features than is possessed by the pure German. In moral character the Austrian partakes of the grand German outline, in which sincerity, fidelity, industry, and a love of order, are the conspicuous qualities; but a deficiency of education, and a want of mental refinement are great obstacles to the proper exercise of these qualities; an attachment to old prejudices, and a predilection for sensual pursuits are the necessary consequences. Dr. Neale has remarked, in reference to this subject, that two circumstances particularly arrest the attention of the stranger at Vienna. These are, "the splendour and extravagance of the rich, and the sobriety and good conduct of the poorer classes of the Austrian capital." These too, are qualities that may, without hesitation, be extended far beyond this focus of the Austrian power. The Austrians are always inclined to gratify the propensities by which they are most strongly solicited. "They are as fond of dancing, noise, and gallantry, as the French; they have no more objection to a good dinner and a bottle of wine than an Englishman; no Italian can be more passionately fond of music; no Neapolitan of high-sounding titles, of finery in clothes and equipage, or of religious parade; and no schoolboy of play in every possible shape. But what holds true in reference to

few other nations, is strictly just when applied to them; **AUSTRIA.** they can rush from the ball or the banquet into the field of battle, and seem to enjoy the terrors of war no less than the pleasures it destroys. Their sensuality never unmans nor enervates them. Their hearts are as unsusceptible of fear as they are alive to delight; and nature seems to have given them the faculty of being contented in every place and emergency, whether in the comic theatre or the scene of blood, and whether running to their nuptials or their graves. Nor is this equanimity the child either of phlegmatic indolence, or philosophical calculation: it is the effect of a constitutional felicity upon a people who have rarely felt either political oppression or religious persecution. The great mass of the people seem to be as much at their ease, their houses are large and commodious, their lands fertile and comparatively well cultivated; their cattle, horses, and domestic animals well fed and judiciously managed, and their country better supplied with roads, bridges, salutary municipal regulations, (and these too pretty well executed), than any other province in Germany." According to this judicious observer, these peculiarities strongly mark the character of an Austrian:—he always betrays complete indifference about public affairs, whether domestic or foreign; he never inquires for news, or listens to political discussions or topics of a general or serious nature without evident indifference or aversion; he seems to have a constant bias on his mind the very reverse of that which distinguishes the British on these subjects. Another feature of the Austrian character is self-command. Quarrels among people intoxicated seldom occur, and when they do they are perfectly harmless. Maiming or murder on such occasions is wholly unknown; and there is perhaps more blood shed from this cause at a single country fair in Ireland, than in the whole of Austria in twelve months. No country indeed presents fewer instances of criminal offences than Austria; and years sometimes elapse without a single victim being immolated on the altar of public justice. The Austrians also manifest a great veneration for the deceased, and this is strongly evinced in the decency of their funerals, and the care of their churchyards and tomb-stones. Very few of their amusements deserve the name of athletic. Among the most common are billiards, cards, dancing and concerts; they are all passionately fond of music, and most of them are proficient on some instrument. This prevails in the most fertile tracts as well as in the most mountainous and secluded, and forms "a curious example of the results of the continual prosecution of an elegant study, by a slow and apparently an insatiable people."

We shall conclude this brief sketch with a few remarks from a discriminating traveller, (Mr. Le-maitre) relative to the persons, manners, attainments and delicacy of the higher classes of Austrian females. He remarks, "the Austrian ladies are the handsomest women I have seen on the continent; their countenances are expressive, and their complexions uncommonly fair. In beauty they are exceeded by no females in Europe, except only our own countrywomen, whose unrivalled superiority, I believe, is universally acknowledged. In manners they are elegant, and in conversation they are lively and well-informed. Much greater attention seems to have been paid to their education than is usual in other parts of the continent;

AUSTRIA. All of them speak French with as much fluency as German, and some are proficient in English. The best works in these languages are familiar to them; they are completely free from pedantry, and I have had frequent reason to admire the taste and knowledge displayed in their remarks." The following observations in reference to the anatomical collection at Vienna, shews the reverse of the picture. "In walking through the rooms, which were crowded with spectators, I could not help remarking with disgust some Austrian females, who looked on the most exposed objects without a blush, were extremely curious in their inquiries, and received very ample satisfaction, without being either offended at the explanation, or at the terms in which it was conveyed. Happily, in England, our ladies have a different idea of propriety; and conscious that the greatest ornament that a woman can possess is a refined sense of delicacy, would as unwillingly listen to a lecture on the formation of the human body, as to the indecent remarks of a drunken libertine. On the continent no such feeling characteristic of the sex exists, and women both hear and discuss at large subjects, which in our country it would be a breach of decorum to mention to their presence." Females enjoy a greater degree of freedom previous to marriage in Austria, than they do in France and other southern parts of Europe; and they are in general, subsequently distin-

guished by the assiduous discharge of every relative duty.

Independently of all other considerations, the situation and extent of the Austrian empire render it an important unit in the great confederacy of states which constitutes the European commonwealth. Her population too is ample, her products diversified, her territory compact, and the communication between one part and another either is already easy, or may readily be made so. Yielding all that is necessary to supply her own wants, and to exercise her industry in the most varied arts and manufactures, she is less dependent upon foreign resources than most of her rival nations. Nor is her situation unimportant. She is in immediate contact with Russia, Prussia, and Turkey, and only slightly separated from France. Her dominions stretch to the very centre of Italy, and give her access to the ocean by means of the Adriatic and the Mediterranean. Her military establishment is commensurate to her situation and extent; and her revenue capable of being rendered adequate to all her wants. France and Russia, being the two preponderating powers on the continent, a new interest is given to the position of Austria, as enabling her to hold the balance between them; and if that alliance with Prussia subsist, which their mutual interests demand, the two states will form a barrier to the aggrandisement of either France or Russia, which will not be easily surmounted.

AUSTRIA.
AUTHENTICATE.
Political importance and relations.

AUTENIGUA, a name given by the Hottentots to a region of southern Africa, situated east of the Cape of Good Hope, and signifying, in their language, the land of honey. It now forms part of the district of Zwelendani, and is represented by M. Vaillant as a delightful region, presenting a great variety of surface and scenery, exhibiting great fertility, and producing abundance of honey. It was partially inhabited by Dutch colonists while in possession of that nation; but it has been much improved since it came under the authority of the English. As many parts of it are covered with wood, it abounds with all the wild animals common to southern Africa. See ZWELENDANI.

AUTHENTICATE. } Fr. *authentique*; Barb. Lat. *authenticus*; Gr. *ἀuthēgēs*, of uncertain origin. Cicero uses *ἀuthēgēs*, (*Ad Atticum*, ix. 14. x. 9.) *cum auctoritate*, *certo auctore*, with authority, the author being well known; and the application seems to be, to make the author known; to refer to, compare with, establish by, the real or original author or authority, to authorize.

The Archbishop of saint Andrews, the bishop of Dinkell, Colyn, erle of Arzyle, lord Camell and lord Andrew, lord Anodale, Chamberlain of Scotland, wrote unto the duke of Albany a solemn and *authenticall* instrument, signed and sealed with their seals.
Holl. Edward IV.

Thel do (as ye would sale) sette out themselves to sale, by their new found disguised vesture, having a great pryde and falicitie to bee-letting vy and down where thair male bee seen in their *authenticall* robes of auncienttous reaching down to the hard ground.
Udall. Lady, esp. 20.

Grant morris lords alth it thee doth like

To licence me, now I wot and dare boldly
Assaile my purpose, with scripures outside

My worke will I ground, valuer, & fortifie.
Chaucer. The Renowde of Loue, fo. 322. c. 4.

And in like manner do ye first geve y^e *authenticke* scripture for your doctrine. If ye have no scripture, come forth and preach your doctrine, and eddifie it with a myracle. And then if ye bring not *authenticke* scripture against yo^r or confounde your sayings with a greater, as Moses dyd the sorcerers of Egypt, we will beleue you.

The Whole Worke of Wm. Tyndall, fo. 300. c. 2.

And as for the myrracles done at Saintes graces and at the presence of reliques, as long as true myrracles endured, and until the scripture was *authentically* received, were done to confirme the preaching y^e such Saints had preached while they were alive.

Id. Id.

Thirdly it appeareth by registers and records *authentically* made, yet preserved for submersion of the same.

Hall. Henry VIII.

The solemne feast of these xl. thousande shepherdes, for their voyage to Rouen, is yet so small matter in their idolatrous churches, and yet their poore souls never came there, as the *authenticke* writers doth prove.

Bale's Veneries, part i.

How could communities

Degrees in schools, and brother-hoods in cities,

Peacefull commerce from dissoluble shores,

The primogeniture, and due of birth,

Prequisite of age, crowns, scepters, laurels,

(But by shaggye) stand in *authenticke* place?
Shakespeare. Twelfth and Cressida, fo. 82.

But these things must have the date of antiquity to make them reverend and *authenticke*, for ever in the collection of writers, men rather weigh their age than their merit.

Daniel's Defence of Rhymus.

There is as much difference between the present and former times, as there is between a copy and an original; that indeed may be fair, but this only is *authenticke*. South. Sermon air, v. 7.

AUTHENTICATE.
—
AUTHOR.

Nothing can be pleasanter than to see a circle of these virtuous about a cabinet of medals, descending upon the value, rarity, and *authenticity* of the several pieces that lie before them.

Addison's Works, vol. iii.

The small resemblance of the portrait of Henry V. to genuine pictures of him, and the great resemblance of all the other personages to one another, make it evident that it was rather a work of command and imagination than of *authenticity*.

Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting.

The council of the French declared the Latin translation of the scriptures called the *vulgate*, which had been for many ages in use in their church, to be *authentic*.

Levett's Indian. Preliminary Disc.

Authentic means true, something that may be depended upon as coming from good authority. For example, one says such a history is *authentic*, such a piece of news is *authentic*; that is one may depend upon the truth of it.

Chesterfield. Letter XLIV.

I have, since the first edition of this work, *authenticated* two portraits of that prince (Humfrey Duke of Gloucester.)

Walpole's Anecdotes of Painting.

The nations that according to the best *authenticated* history, appear to have been first civilized, were those that dwelt around the coast of the Mediterranean sea. *Smith's Wealth of Nations*.

I shall not enter into argument in defence of the verse containing the testimony of the Three in heaven. It has indeed of late years been brought under suspicion; and the *authenticity* of it has been given up by men of great learning and unquestioned piety, even among the orthodox.

Herder's Sermons.

Being examined on these material defects in the *authenticity* of a paper, produced by them as *authentic*, [they] could give no sort of account how it happened to be without a signature.

Burke's Works. Report on Affairs of India.

Besides that those accounts either here, or will have, received a much stronger *authentication* than any that I could give to mine.

Id. Letter from Warren Hastings.

AUTHENTIC, a thing of credible and received authority.

Bishop Watson thus distinguishes between things *authentic* and things *genuine*. "A genuine book, is that which was written by the person whose name it bears, as the author of it. An *authentic* book is that which relates matters of fact as they really happened; a book may be genuine without being *authentic*, and a book may be *authentic* without being genuine. The books written by Richardson and Fielding are genuine books, though the histories of Clarissa and Tom Jones are fables. The *History of the Island of Formosa* is a genuine book; it was written by Psalmannazar, but it is not an *authentic* book, (though it was long esteemed as such, and translated into different languages,) for the author, in the latter part of his life, took shame to himself for having imposed upon the world; and confessed that it was a mere romance. Anson's voyage may be considered as an *authentic* book; it, probably, contains a true narration of the principal events recorded in it; but it is not a genuine book, having not been written by Walter to whom it is ascribed, but by Robins."

AUTHENTICS, a name sometimes given to the *Novelle* of Justinian, because they were *authentically* translated from the Greek into the Latin tongue.

AUTHOR, v.

AUTHOR, n.

AUTHORIAL,

AUTHORITATIVE,

AUTHORITATIVELY,

AUTHORITY,

AUTHORIZATION,

AUTHORLESS,

AUTHORLESSLY,

AUTHORSHIP.

Vossius strongly contends that the Latin word should be written *autor*; and inclines to adopt the opinion that it is derived from *augere*, *augmentum*, extending the application of the word from one who should *augment* or promote any thing already undertaken or begun, to him who should himself un-

dertake, or persuade to undertake.—Others ascribe it **AUTHOR** to the same origin with *authentic*. *Author*, as a verb, is used by Beaumont and Fletcher—to cause a beginning; a foundation; to found, invent, devise, create: to give credit, influence, countenance, support, power: to accredit, countenance, support, empower.

If *evangelic* thing bee through God's writing, and thereof take his being, then should God be maker and *author* of *holy* *works*, and so he should not rightfully punish *evangelic* *works* of mankind.

Chaucer. Test. of Love, book iii. fol. 317. 2.

I take not Luther for such an *author* but that I think verily that he both may erre and doth erre in *certayne* *payntes*, although not in such as concerne salvation and damnation.

Julius Fyrt, fol. 117. c. 1.

Of thye tway kynges y^e sayd Englyshe cronycle tellyth a longe processe, the which, for I fynde noon *author* of *evangelic* y^e wrytth or spekth of the same, I passe it over.

Falgar.

And so my boke (alle be it that many men se list not to geve credence to so thing, but to that that thei seen with thire eye, so be the *evangelic* ne the person never so true) is affermed and proved be oore *holy* *fadre*, in *maner* and *forme* as I have wryt.

Sir John Maundeville.

Now, sire, of elne, that y^e reperece me;

And certes, sire, though non *author* be;

Were in so boke, y^e gentiles of honore

Sein, that men shuld an othe wright honore

And etpe him fader, for y^e gentiles;

And *evangelic* thus I fynde, as I geue.

Chaucer. The Wf of Bath's Tale.

Where ever your words ben heard, and your reasons ben shewd, such small spoken lode, by *authority* of your excellence shulden ben stopp'd and shewd.

Id. Test. of Love, book ii. fo. 306. c. 3.

But that that written the scripture

Of Greke, Arabe, and Caldre,

Ther were of *anche* *authorities*,

That thei first funderd out the way,

Of all that then last berde mesey.

Gower. Con. Am. book iv.

Therefore, farewell, go trouble younger harts,

And in me claime no more *authoritie*;

With pille youth goe see the properties,

And thereon spend thy many brittle daries.

Wyon.

Who wrote if that Chaucer were was trewe,

Nor I wote not if this *avertion*

Be *authorised*, or forged of the new

Of some poete by his *avertion*.

Chaucer. Test. of Cresside, fo. 195. c. 1.

And shortly after it was agreed that the king of England should send in the company of the duke of Burgundy, his ambassadors to Troy in *Champaign*, sufficiently *authorised* to conclude so great a matter.

Grafton, v. 1.

Oh! thou the earthly *author* of my blood,

Whose yosthal spirit in me regenerate;

Doth with a two fold vigour set me on my

To reach at victory above my head.

Shakespeare. Richard II. fo. 26.

LEAR. —Thou hast scene a farmer's dogge burke at a beggar?

GLouc. I sir.

LEAR. And the creature run from the ear: there thou might'st behold the great image of *authoritie*, a dog obey'd in office.

Shakespeare. King Lear, fo. 303.

It is an excellent temper of the church, so to prescribe her *forma* of *abolition*, so to shew them to be results of the whole princely office, of procuring, of dispensing sacraments, of spiritual care, and *authoritative* *deprecatations*.

Taylor's Apology for authorized and set Forms of Liturgy.

AUTHOR. For, that, which obtaineth universally, must either have some force in itself, to command acceptance, or else must be imposed by some over-ruling authority; and what can that be but either of the great princes (as they are anciently called) of the church, the holy apostles; or of some general councils, as may authoritatively diffuse it through all the world.

Half. Polemical Works.

To quote a modern Dutchman, where I may use a classic author, is as if I were to justify my reputation, and I neglect all persons of note and quality that know me, and bring the testimonial of the scullion in the kitchen.

Stedens Table Talk.

Whether by the only authority of the giver, or by the authority of the prince for that time reigning, and by what tenure and form ye hold them.

Burnet. Records.

Many of the learned themselves are fallen upon this preposterous conceit, that learning consisteth rather in variety of turning and quoting of sundry authors than in soundly discovering and laying down the truth of things.

Hale's Golden Broom.

O by what name, for thou above all these,
Above mankind, or might thou mankind higher,
Suggest for my naming, how may I
Adore thee, author of this universe.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book vii.

O execrable son so to aspire
Above his brethren, to himself assuming
Jehohatic usurp, from God not giv'n.

Id. book xii.

TIERNEY. — Ye offend'd him
Your queen and crown; (but what was then your crown)
And hear'st authority'd it by his success.

Dryden's Oedipus.

That ancient fathers thus expound the page,
Gives truth the reverend majesty of age;
Confirms its force, by holier every test;
For best authorities next rules are best.

Id. Reliquie Leici.

To be governed by reason is the general law imposed by the author of nature upon them, whose uppermost faculty is reason.

Wetteston's Religion of Nature.

When men are perverse and disobedient, authority is judge, and may restrain and punish them.

Tillotson's Sermons.

Think it enough and too much to let them seek you out of your money, for pretended pardons and counterfeit relics; but let not the authority of any priest or church persuade you out of your senses.

Id.

A layman should not intrude himself to administer the sacred functions of authoritative teaching.

Burrow's Sermons.

See, at thy feet Cleanthes both'd in blood!
For love of thee he trod this lonely wood;
Thou art the cruel authors of his fate;
He falls by thine; thou by Evander's blade.

Gay. Dione.

If the formalists of this sort were erected into patrons, with a sole communion of authority; we should undoubtedly see such writing in our days, as would either wholly wean us from all books in general, or at least from all such as were the product of our own nation, under such a subordinate and conforming government.

Shaftsbury. Characteristics, v. l.

Of this sort is the apostle's creed. And its authority therefore, is not as being a creed, but as being a true summary of apostolical doctrine, or as containing the chief heads of the doctrine of Christ delivered authoritatively in scripture.

Clark's Exposition of the Church Catechism.

At her sight
The best the greatest of mankind inclines
Before the mistress of his being, low
As some oriental to the reverend form
Of Cybele, progenitrix of gods.

Glavin's Atheniad, book ii.

As I am not ignorant, so ought I to be sensible of the false aspersions some authorless tongues have laid upon me, in the report of the unfortunate passage lately happened between the Lord Bruce and myself, which as they are spread here, so I may justly fear they reign also where you are.

Guardian, vol. ii.

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As the disciples of Christ, we are to learn of him: to take our religious sentiments only from his precept, in opposition to all the authoritative dictates of men.

Mason on Self-Knowledge.

An author may be considered as a merciful substitute to the legislature; he acts not by punishing crimes, but preventing them.

Guidicini on Poetic Learning.

Can an author with reason complain that he is cramped and shackled, if he is not at liberty to publish blasphemy, bawdry, or sedition.

Chatterbird, letter dxxxi.

It would be indecent and unedifying in a child to dispute the authority, or question the wisdom, or neglect the orders of his parents, every time he could not discern the reason and design thereof.

Mason on Self-Knowledge.

Since he (God) evidently designs the regular course of nature for the support and comfort of man, we seem authorized to conclude, that he will apply his irregularities and disorders to his punishment, correction, and admonition.

Porteus's Letter to the Inhabitants of Manchester.

In that blest moment Nature throwing wide
Her veil opaque, discloses with a smile
The author of her beauties, who, retir'd
Behind his own creation, works unseen
By the impure, and hears his pow'r decried.

Cowper's Poems.

AUTHORPE, is the county of Lincoln, a discharged rectory, valued in the King's books at £5. 13s. 4d. Population, in 1811, 94. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 2s. 0d. in the pound, £33. 12s. 5d. 4 miles N. W. from Alford.

AUTOCHTHONES, from *αὐτί* itself, and *χθών*, the earth. The first possessors of a country, who have never migrated; as if they were sprung from the soil which they inhabited. In this sense, it answers strictly to the word *ὑπερίων*, sons of the earth, according to the ancient belief that, in the beginning of the world, men, like plants, sprang from the womb of a common mother—earth. In its commoner acceptation it answers to the Latin words *aborigines* and *indigetes*.

The Athenians especially affected the title of Autochthones. In the expedition of Xerxes, they claimed the naval command as being the only Greeks who had never changed their abode (Herod. vii. 161.). Pericles, in his funeral oration, styles his countrymen perpetual inhabitants of the same country (Thucyd. ii. 36.) They bound within the curls of their hair grasshoppers of gold (Thucyd. i. 6); and for this custom two reasons are offered: one that they might show themselves to be a musical nation (*μουσικοί*); the other, that it was a badge of their autochthony, since grasshoppers in like manner were supposed to be the product of the earth. Virgil has alluded to this custom in the *Ciris*.

Ego omnia caro residuae cum capillo,
Aurea solentem compositum quem filula rita
Cecropia tereti sciebant dente cicada.

The second of the four tribes into which Cecrops divided the Athenians, was called *autochthon*.

The Cantabrians and the Celts are the only inhabitants of Europe who can be termed *autochthones*; and this only so far as their immigration and descent cannot be traced.

AUTO DA FE, see **ACT OF FAITH**.
AUTOCRATOR, from *αὐτί* itself, and *κράτος* power, the possessor of irresponsible power.

On some extraordinary occasions the Athenians invested their generals with this supremacy; they were then styled *autocrators*. This was the case with Aristides at the battle of Plataea, and with Nicias, Alcibiades, and Lamachus, in the Sicilian expedition.

U

AUTO-
CRASY.

So too such ambassadors as were invested with plenipotentiary powers, received the name of *autoerators* from the Athenians.

AUTOGRAPH,
AUTOGRAPHICAL,
AUTOGRAPHICAL,
AUTOGRAPHICAL.

'*Autographos*, self-given, undelivered power; from *autos* and *graphein*, I am strong. Self-created, undelivered strength or power.

The divine will is absolute; it is its own reason: it is both the producer and the ground of all its acts. It moves not by the external impulse or inclination of objects, but determines itself by an absolute necessity.

South, Sermon 2.

And to give yet a greater instance of his sovereignty, he extends his dominion even to man's will, that great seat of freedom, that

with a kind of *autoeracy* and supremacy within itself, commands its own actions, laughs at all compulsion, scorn restraint, and defies the bondage of human laws or external obligations.

Id. Sermon i. v. vii.

The father, son, and holy ghost, in respect of the same divinity, have the same *autoeratical* power, dominion, and authority.

Pearson on the Creed.

AUTOGRAPH, from *autos*, myself, and *graphein*, I gave, I write.

He did accurately describe and turn into Latin from the original *autograph* in Cambridge public library.

Wood's *Athenæ Oxonienses*.

AUTO-
CRASY.AUTO-
MATON.

A U T O M A T O N .

AUTO'MATON,
AUTO'MATON,
AUTO'MATON.

The etymology of this word is unsettled. Its modern application will be best collected

from the citations.

Clocks or *automata* organs, whereby we now distinguish of time, have found no mention in any ancient writers: but are of late invention, as Pausanias observes. Brown's *Vulgar Errors*.

God having an understanding infinitely superior to that of man, in extent, clearness, and other excellencies, he may rationally be supposed to have framed so great and admirable an *automaton* as the world, and the subordinate engines comprised in it, for several ends and purposes, some of them relating chiefly to his corporeal, and other to his rational creatures; of which ends he hath reserved to make some discoverable by our dim reason, but others are probably not to be penetrated by it, but he conceded in the deep abyss of his unfathomable wisdom.

Boyle's *Inquiry into Nature*.

I conceive then in the first place, that the wise and beneficent Maker of the world, and of man, intending that men should, for the most part, live a considerable number of years, in a condition to act their part on the mundane stage; he was pleased to frame those living *automata*, human bodies, that, with the ordinary succours of reason, making use of their capacious structure fitted for durability, and of the friendly, though undesigned, assistance of the various bodies, among which they are placed, they may, in many cases recover a state of health, if they chance to be put out of it by lesser accidents than those, that God, in compliance with his great ends of his general providence, did not think fit to secure them from, or enable them to surmount.

Boyle, *Inquiry into Nature*.

The difference between an animal and *automatic* statue, consists in this—that, in the animal, we trace the mechanism to a certain point, and then we are stopped; either the mechanism becoming too subtle for our discernment, or something else beside the known laws of mechanism taking place; whereas, in the *automatic*, for the comparatively few motions of which it is capable, we trace the mechanism throughout.

Foley, *Natural Theology*.

AUTOMATON, in *Mechanics*, from *autos*, self, spontaneous; a machine possessing apparently spontaneous action. Machines of this kind are kept in motion for a limited time by means of springs or weights. When they represent human figures they are called *androids*; but clocks, watches, jacks, and the like, are all included under the name *automaton*.

The earliest mention of *automata* occurs in Homer. Vulcan is employed upon them, when Thetis comes to request the arms of immortal temper for her son:

That day no common task his labour claimed;
Fell twenty tripods for his hall he framed,
That placed on living wheels of many gold,
Would frown to tell, instant with spirit rolled

From place to place, around the blissful shades.

Self-moved, obedient to the beck of gods;

For their fair handles now, o'erwrought with flowers,

In moulds prepared the glowing ore he pours.

Just as, responsive to his thoughts, the frame

Stood prompt to move the aureous golden case.

Pope's *Iliad*, xviii. 439.

Plato and Aristotle (*Metaph.* 426, *Euthyphron*, 8. ed. Frankfurt, 1602) both mention certain statues made by Daedalus which could not only walk, but which it was necessary to tie in order to prevent them from moving. The latter speaks of a wooden Venus of this kind; and remarks, somewhat obscurely, that Daedalus made it move by pouring in quicksilver.

Aulus Gellius (lib. x. 12) describes a wooden pigeon made by Archytas, of Tarentum, which possessed the power of flying: but which, when it had once settled, could not renew its flight. Casiodorus, in the sixth century, speaks of some machines invented by Boetius, in the following terms: "Metalla loque, the birds of Diomedes trumpet in brass, the brazen serpent hisses, counterfeited swallows chatter, and such as have no proper note, from brass send forth harmonious music." (lib. i. Var. *Epiol.* 45). The little we know of the heads formed by Roger Bacon and Albertus Magnus is so mixed with fable, that it cannot be relied on. They are said not only to have moved but to have spoken; and that their inventors resorted to them as oracles. He who possessed the secret of their movement and articulation, if they possessed it, is little likely to have been so far deceived by the work of his own hands; and we may class this part of the story with the legend which informs us, that Thomas Aquinas was so alarmed when he saw the head of Albertus, that he broke it in pieces, whereupon the sage exclaimed "there goes the work of thirty years!"

The accounts of the *automata* made by John Miller, better known by the name of Regiomontanus, in the fifteenth century, rest only upon the authority of Peter Ramus, who did not flourish till a hundred years afterwards. Regiomontanus is said to have constructed an eagle, which upon the approach of the emperor Maximilian to Nuremberg, June 7th, 1470, perched upon the town gate, stretched out its legs and saluted him by an inclination of the body. He is also said to have made an iron fly, which he produced one day to his friends after dinner. The insect flew from his hand, took a circle round the room, and returned again to its

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master. A German writer, J. W. Baier, has thought it worth his while to compose an express dissertation "*de Regiomontani aqulâ et musæ ferreâ*."

Charles V. after his abdication, employed himself in the study of mechanism. For this purpose he engaged Turriano, one of the most ingenious artists of his day, to accompany him to the monastery of St. Justin. Here he laboured with him sometimes in useful experiments, sometimes in slighter and more fantastic works. Strada (*de bello Belgico*) informs us that he often introduced puppets upon table after dinner, some beating drums, some blowing trumpets, some charging each other with couched spears and mimic ferocity. In his cell he contrived wooden sparrows, which by their flight terrified the ignorant and superstitious monks into a belief that he was a magician who commanded the infernal powers. He framed also iron mills, which moved of themselves, so minute to size that a monk could carry one in his sleeve; and yet it was powerful enough to grind, in a single day, grain enough for the consumption of eight men.

In the middle of the sixteenth century, Hans Bullman, a padlock maker of Nuremberg made figures of men and women which moved backwards and forwards, beat a drum, and played upon the lute by clock-work. There are remarkable clocks of this kind at Lyons and at Strasburg. But even before this time the attention of artists in the east had been directed to the automatical embellishment of horological machines. Reaumur, in his *History of Mathematics*, gives an account of a *clepsidra*, or water-clock, presented by the Caliph Haroun Alraschid to Charlemagne. Twelve small doors in the dial respectively opened at the hour which they represented: and little balls, equaling the particular hour in number, falling out, struck the time upon a brazen bell. The doors continued open till noon, when twelve little knights, mounted on horseback, issued forth, one from each door; and having paraded round the dial, shut themselves in again.

The volume of *Mémoires de l'Académie des Sciences*, for 1729, contains an account of an extraordinary piece of mechanism, invented by Père Truchet, for the amusement of Louis XIV. when a child. It consisted of a series of moving pictures, representing an opera in five acts, in which the little actors performed their parts in pantomime. M. Cassini constructed, for the same purpose, (and he has himself given a description of the toy) a little carriage drawn by two horses, containing the figure of a lady, with a coachman driving, and a footman and page behind. When placed upon the table, the coachman smacked his whip, the horses proceeded moving their legs naturally: and when the carriage arrived opposite to the king's seat it stopped, and the page getting down, opened the door; the lady alighted, and, with a courtesy, presented a petition to the king. After a short pause she curtsied again, and re-entered the carriage. The page remounted, the coachman flogged his horses, the carriage moved on, and the footman running after it, jumped up again behind.

M. Vaucanson, in 1738, exhibited in Paris three automata, one which represented a flute-player in a sitting posture, and performed twelve tunes; the second was a standing figure, which played on a shepherd's pipe held in his left hand; and with his right, beat upon a tabor; the third was a duck of the size of life,

which moved its wings, quacked, drank water, ate corn, and, after a short time, dropped its dung.

None of these, however, appear to have been then invented for the first time. The anonymous author of the *Zodiacus Vita* describes a breathing image which he had seen himself at the beginning of the sixteenth century.

Vidi ego dum Romæ, decimo regnante Leone,
Erasmi, opus a figulo factum, jocosque figuram.
Erasmi augustae validum verum oris hista. xl. 846.

And Lahat, in his *Nouveaux Voyages aux Isles d'Amérique*, (vol. ii. p. 298, 384.) relates that the French general, De Genne, when about the year 1688 defended the colony of St. Christopher against the English, constructed a peacock, which performed all the functions of Vaucanson's duck.

The secret of the flute-player was explained by Vaucanson himself, in three sheets quarto, printed at Paris in 1738, under the title of "*Le Mécanisme du Flûteur automate, par Vaucanson*." From this it appears that the figure was five feet and a half high, seated upon a fragment of a rock, which was supported by a pedestal four feet and a half high, by three and a half broad. Within the pedestal nine pairs of bellows were set in motion by clock-work. A peculiar contrivance in the valves prevented the fluttering noise which usually attends their opening, and the wind was forced into three tubes, which, ascending through the trunk, terminated in a single reservoir connected with the cavity of the mouth.

Another piece of clock-work within the pedestal, was applied to communicate the necessary motions to the fingers, lips, and tongue. A revolving cylinder, with various pegs inserted in it, raised or depressed several levers on the principle of a barrel organ: and in this manner music is said to have been produced little inferior, if not fully equal, to the performance of a skilful living flute-player.

The piper depended upon the same principle: but from the imperfection of the instrument, presented far greater difficulties in its completion. A weight of fifty-six pounds was required for the bellows which produced the highest note; such therefore is the effort required from the lungs of a living performer; while one ounce only sufficed for the lowest note. Different proportions of wind also became necessary to produce even the same note, according as it succeeded one part or another of the scale of the flageolet. But in the end the mimic piper is said to have much excelled his flesh and blood rivals. The fatigue of the instrument is such, that in a rapid movement the notes are generally slurred: the automaton was enabled to produce all these with distinct separate articulations of the tongue.

We have not met with any description of the duck; but Beckmann, in his *History of Inventions*, vol. iii. p. 307, mentions a similar automaton, which he had seen himself. Counsellor Beirris, of Helmstadt, had bought of one Du Moulin, a silversmith, who travelled through Germany in 1759, three automata, similar to those of Vaucanson. They had either never been completed, or were designedly spoiled; and Beckmann, who does not appear to have been a mechanist, says only that the motion was communicated to the duck by means of a cylinder and fine chains, like those of a watch, all proceeding through the feet of the duck, which are of the usual size.

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In our own times, one of the most ingenious *automatical* mechanists has been Mons. Maillardet, a Swiss. He exhibited in London a female figure, which performed eighteen tunes on the pianoforte, at the same time that she imitated the motions of natural life. The bosom heaved, the eyes appeared to follow the movements of the fingers over the keys, the pressure of which produced the notes; and at the commencement and conclusion of each air, the image saluted the spectators by a graceful inclination of the head. The action of the machine, when wound up, continued for so hour.

Besides this, Mons. Maillardet constructed the figure of a boy kneeling on one knee, and holding a pen in his hand, with which he executed various drawings and pieces of writing; also an *automaton* tumbler, a little image, a few inches only in height, and inclosed in a glass case. The lower part of this case contained the mechanism; and the figure, when set in motion, threw itself into a variety of elegant and grotesque attitudes, keeping time to some music produced by the machine. The remaining human *automaton* was a magician, who returned answers to any question chosen at random from twenty different medallions. The medallion was placed in a drawer and after some minutes spent in consultation of his books, and solemn movement of his wand, the soothsayer struck two folding doors above his head, which opened and displayed the appropriate answer.

The other *automata* of Mons. Maillardet were, an oval box, about three inches in the major axis, which opened of itself; a humming-bird flew up from its nest, and after fluttering for some time with its wings, commenced warbling. The notes were loud and clear, and, when the bird had finished, it darted into its nest, and the lid closed: the action of the machine lasted four minutes. A spider, of steel, ran upon a table for three minutes; a serpent crawled about, and hissed for seven; and a caterpillar, a lizard, and a mouse, all closely imitated the natural actions of the beings they represented.

The real *automatical* pretensions of the celebrated chess-player have been doubted: but as the question is yet undecided, our account of *automata* would be incomplete, if we omitted to mention it. M. Wolfgang de Kempelen, a Hungarian gentleman, Aulic counsellor to the Royal Chamber of the domains of the Emperor of Germany in Hungary, devoted himself from a very early age to mechanics. Being in Vienna in the year 1769 upon business of office, he was invited, by order of the Empress Maria Theresa, to be present at certain magnetical experiments, exhibited by a Frenchman, of the name of Pelletier. While in familiar conversation with the empress, during this exhibition, M. Kempelen hinted that he thought himself competent to construct a piece of mechanism far more surprising than those which she now witnessed. The curiosity of the empress was excited; and she bound M. Kempelen to the attempt by a promise. He kept it, and in six months produced the chess-player.

At Vienna the *automaton* excited the highest astonishment and admiration. Its inventor, however, declined exhibiting it to public, refused considerable offers from persons willing to purchase it, laid it aside, and even took some of it to pieces. In this state it remained for several years, till on a visit made by the

Grand Duke Paul, of Russia, and his consort, to the court of Vienna, the empress signified a wish that it should be exhibited for their gratification. In five weeks it was repaired, and the august visitors were so delighted by its performances, that they urged the proprietor to permit its public exhibition, till at length he complied. It was at that time shown in various parts of Germany and France; and in 1785, it was brought to England. At M. Kempelen's death, which took place about 1803, his son sold it to Mons. Maelzel; and in 1819, the *automaton* again visited London.

The room in which it was then exhibited had an inner apartment, within which appeared the figure of a Turk of the natural size, sitting behind a chest three feet and a half in length, two in breadth, and two and a half in height: to this was attached the wooden seat, on which the figure sat: the chest was moveable on castors to any part of the room. On its top, in the centre, was an immovable chess-board, upon which the eyes of the figure were fixed. Its right hand and arm were extended on the chest, and its left, somewhat raised, held a pipe.

Certain doors, two in the front, and two in the back of the chest were opened, and a drawer in the bottom of it, containing the chess men, and a cushion whereon to place the arm of the figure, were pulled out. Two lesser doors were also opened in the body of the figure, and a candle was held within the cavities thus displayed: the same, if requested, was done at the conclusion of the exhibition. The chest appeared divided by a partition into two unequal chambers; that to the right of the figure was narrowest, and occupied about one-third of the whole. It was filled with small wheels, wheels, cylinders, &c. That to the left contained a few wheels, some small barrels with springs, and two quadrants placed horizontally. The door and the drawer having been closed, the exhibitor wound up the works with a key inserted in a small opening in the side of the chest, placed a cushion under the arm of the figure, and challenged any individual among the company present to play.

In playing, the *automaton* always made choice of the white pieces and had the first move. It played with the left arm: the inventor, as it is said, not having perceived the mistake till his works were too far advanced to permit its rectification. In making a move, it slowly raised the left arm from the cushion, and directed it towards the square of the piece to be moved. Its hand and fingers opened on touching the piece, which it grasped, and conveyed to the proper square: the arm then returned to the cushion. In taking a piece, the same motion of the arm and hand was made to lay hold of the piece, which it conveyed from the board, and then returned to its own piece, placed it on the vacant square.

After a move made by its antagonist, the *automaton* poised for a few moments, as if contemplating its own. On giving check to the king, it made a signal with its head. If a false move was made by its antagonist, it tapped on the chest impatiently, replaced the piece, and claimed the move for itself as an advantage. If its antagonist delayed any considerable time, it tapped smartly on the chest with the right hand. During the time that the arm was in motion, a low sound of clock-work running down was heard. The works were wound up at intervals by the exhibi-

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bitor, who was generally employed in walking up and down the room. At the close of the game, (which, in M. Kempelen's time, was, we believe, invariably won by the *automaton*, though it has repeatedly been lost under M. Maciel's superintendence,) the *automaton* moved the knight, with its proper motion, over each of the sixty-three squares of the board in turns, without missing one, and without a single return to the same square.

These phenomena are plainly inconsistent with the affects of mechanism only: and various conjectures have been proposed as to the mode of communication between the figure and the intelligent agent who conducts its operation. The most probable opinion is offered in a pamphlet, published in 1821, under the title of *An Attempt to analyse the Automaton Chess Player*. In this tract it is shewn, that notwithstanding the apparent display of the interior of the chest and the figure, yet ample space is left unopened for the concealment of a person of the common size behind a false back to the narrowest division only. That such is the secret of the *automaton* is corroborated by the following circumstances:—that the machinery when at rest is ostentatiously shewn, and carefully secluded from view when in motion; so that it is impossible to ascertain how far it is in truth connected with the *automaton*: that no variation ever takes place in the precise order in which the several doors are opened: that in winding up the clock-work, the key always appears limited to a certain number of revolutions, however different may have been the number of moves performed. Sixty-three moves have sometimes been executed without winding up; and once it was observed to be wound up without the intervention of a single move.

Whether the action of the *automaton* was that produced by a concealed figure, or was not, we do not take upon ourselves to pronounce: that it might have so produced, we think the plates, accompanying the little tract to which we refer above, distinctly prove. Certain varied positions of the assistant's body easily permit the several parts of the chest to be thrown open in the order in which they are exhibited: and these positions moreover require that the doors should be closed precisely as they are closed.

M. Kempelen is said to have proceeded to a still more extraordinary exertion of his mechanical talent, in the production of a speaking *automaton*. The following account of it is extracted from Dr. Brewster, who states that he believes no other description of it is known in England:—

"M. Kempelen having directed his attention towards the practicability of forming a speaking machine, limited his expectations to the production of vowels only. At first he entertained no hopes of obtaining consonants, far less did he deem it possible to unite them with vowels, and thus express words or syllables. In the course of his investigations, he tried all musical instruments, even horns and trumpets, with the view of finding which of them emitted sounds approaching nearest to the human voice: but although he was aware that the reeds of hautboys, clarionets, and bassoons, came nearer the voice of mankind, because there is a faint resemblance between their operations and the functions of the human glottis; and also knew that a reed stop, called *voce humana*, had been adapted to organs, his researches were ineffectual. The sound

of those reeds was found, on comparison, to be a very imperfect imitation of what they were intended to represent. At length, having accidentally heard the reed of a bagpipe, he conceived that it exceeded all others in this respect, and thence made it the subject of his future experiments.

"M. Kempelen then proceeded to a minute and assiduous study of the mode in which the human speech is produced, which has led to an interesting dissertation, *On the Mechanism of Speech*. There the anatomical position of all the different organs is shewn and described, and also the different relations of each sound to another. After considering these things, he supposed that the fundamental part of voice consists in A. But this was far from aiding his purpose; and he could obtain no other vowel, whether grave or acute, from a reed connected with a tube. However, after long study, he contrived a hollow oval box, divided into halves, which were attached by a hinge, thus resembling jaws. These were adapted so as to receive the sound issuing from the tube; and by means of opening and closing them, he heard the sounds of I, O, OU, and an imperfect E; but no indications of L, or the German S. His attention was next directed to consonants; and after the labour of two years, he obtained from different jaws, P, M, L. With these vowels and consonants, he could compose syllables, and even words,—*as mama, papa, aia, lama, wia*, because each touch of his instrument produced a different sound. Still he had to conquer a great difficulty in the first letter not having ceased when the second commenced; and on attempting to procure the sounds in immediate succession, the letters were confounded together. *Pupa*, instead of being one word, evidently consisted of so many different letters; and also the too sudden discharge of air into the tube produced a faint K. Thus *aia* nearly resembled *ka-ku-ki-ka*. Another imperfection likewise arose in an aspiration following the consonant; and *papa* then resembled *ph-a-ph-a*.

"As M. Kempelen proceeded in ascertaining the possibility of producing the sound of letters, he surmounted these difficulties, though it cost him a great deal of trouble. But the proper combination of them he saw must result from imitating nature in having only one glottis, and one mouth from which all the sounds should issue, and where their union should be formed. His invention therefore terminated in constructing a machine, which, in some measure, imitated the human speech.

"The speaking machine is of simple structure, and consists of only five principal parts:—1. The reed, representing the human glottis; 2. An air-chest, with internal valves; 3. Bellows, or lungs; 4. A mouth, with its appurtenances; 5. Nostrils, as in the living subject. We shall not attempt to expatiate on each of these parts, which would lead to a long discussion; and in order to avoid this detail, we shall briefly explain, so far as we are able without figures, the general composition of each. The reed, though not cylindrical, is formed in imitation of the reed of a bagpipe drone, which, probably, many of those who peruse this article may have seen. The hollow portion, however, is square; and the tongue of the reed, which vibrates, consists of a thin ivory slip, resting upon it horizontally. This hollow portion, or tube, is inserted into the air-chest; and the discharge of air

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occasioning a vibration of the ivory, the requisite sound is produced. To soften the vibration, the part supporting the slip is covered with leather; and a moveable spring, shifting along the upper side of the slip, brings the sound of the reed to the proper pitch. The sound is more acute as the spring is moved forward to the outer extremity, because the vibrations then become quicker; and if shifted farther from the anterior extremity, the sound becomes more grave, as the vibrations are then slower. The extremity of the ivory slip should not be applied close to the tube where it rests, but should remain a little open, that the air may penetrate, and occasion the vibration: thus we observe, that a common bagpipe reed may be closed, and produce no sound. A slight curvature of the ivory slip arises from the pressure of the spring, which is enough for the object desired.

"One end of the air-chest, which is of an oblong figure, receives this voice-pipe, as we shall call it, containing the reed; and into the opposite end is inserted the mouth of the bellows. Both the apertures are guarded by leather, to prevent the unnecessary waste of air: two smaller air-chests are then put into it, each having a valve above closed by the pressure of a spring, and each having a round aperture adapted to receive through the side of the large air-chest a tin funnel, and a round wooden tube for producing hissing sounds—as, s, z, sch, j: the voice-pipe is placed in the large air-chest, so as to be between the smaller air-chests.

"When all these parts are fitted to the air-chest, the operation of one lever raising the valve of the first smaller chest connected with the tin funnel, sounds s; while the operation of another, raising the valve of the second smaller chest connected with the wooden tube, sounds sch. But it is proper further to explain, that instead of being a simple funnel, it is in fact a tin box, with a square hole in the outer end, nearly covered by a slip of pasteboard; and the wooden tube is merely the mouth-piece of a common flute, closed at the lower extremity, and with the air-hole modified and contracted: the letter R is produced by the rapid vibration of the ivory slip, owing to a strong discharge of air.

"M. Kempelen's bellows, which are formed to supply the place of lungs, have no peculiarities. He found that his machine required six times the quantity of air used by a man in speaking: the nozzle, as we have observed, is inserted into the large air-chest, and the air which it discharges is also received by the small air-chest.

"With regard to the mouth, it consists of a funnel, or rather bell-shaped piece of elastic gum, applied to the air-chest; and so adapted, that the sound of the reed issues from it. Elastic gum is selected for this purpose, as more nearly approaching to the natural softness and flexibility of the human organs. Independent of its communication with the reed producing the sound required, a tin tube connects it with the air-chest, by means of which it may be kept constantly full of air. This M. Kempelen considers a very essential, or even an indispensable part of the machine. Besides these, there are small additional bellows, for the purpose of aiding the production of such sounds as P, K, T, which need a greater emission of air.

AUTOMATON.

"The nose consists of two tin tubes, communicating with the mouth. When the mouth-piece is closed, and both tubes remain open, a perfect M is heard; when one is closed, but the other is open, N is sounded."

It is necessary to add to this brief account of the principal parts of M. Kempelen's speaking machine, that the sound was regulated in a great measure by various modifications and empressions of the mouth. Four letters, D, G, K, T, he never could obtain perfectly, and substituted a P in expressing them, which was so managed as to bear a considerable resemblance, according to the mode of using it, and was sufficient to deceive the auditor. Nevertheless, M. Kempelen could produce not only words, but entire sentences: such as *opera, astronomy, Constantinopolis; or vous êtes mon ami; je vous aime de tout mon cœur; Leopoldus secundus; Romanorum imperator semper Augustus*; and the like. We acknowledge ourselves ignorant of the precise figure under which this machine, no less remarkable for ingenuity than simplicity, was ultimately adopted. At first it was exhibited only with the union of its essential parts. M. Kempelen next proposed that it should be an automaton like a child; and although we have reason to believe that his intention was fulfilled, we are by no means certain of the precise figure under which he accomplished it.

Among automata perhaps ought to be mentioned several musical instruments, or self-moving organs, of ingenious construction: and as the automatical principle might readily be applied to the extraordinary discovery which Mr. Babbage has recently announced, we think ourselves justified in including under this head, a brief mention of that gentleman's calculating machine.

Mr. Babbage has invented an engine capable of computing any table by the method of differences, whether they are positive or negative, or of both kinds. The greater the number of differences, the more will this engine outstrip the most rapid calculator; and by the application of certain parts of no great complexity, the roots of equations, and consequently the roots of numbers may be extracted.

A machine of this kind is absolutely executed. Mr. Babbage has drawings and plans of a second, to multiply any number of figures by any other number; of a third, to make tables of prime numbers from 0 to ten millions; and of a fourth, to construct tables which have no order of differences constant. This last engine will calculate tables governed by laws which have not been hitherto shown to be explicitly determinable; and will solve equations, for which analytical methods of solution have not yet been contrived.

One of the most mortifying difficulties with which calculators are beset, arises from the errors of copyists, and of the press. In Mr. Babbage's engine, means are contrived by which the machine itself takes from several boxes, containing types, the numbers which it calculates: thus becoming at the same time computer and compositor; and preventing all error both in copying and in printing.

Mr. Babbage's machine is worked by the hand. It would be very easy, if any advantage were to be gained by such a method, to apply to it a self-moving power.

AUTOMOLITE, a substance which, from its crystalline form, was considered at its first discovery to be a variety of *Spinel*, containing a portion of oxide of zinc. But a later and more accurate analysis has shown it to be an aluminate of zinc. It has been hitherto found only in Sweden, in small octahedral crystals, imbedded in talc. See *MINERALOGY*, *ZINC*, *ALUMINATE*.

AUTOPSY, from *αὐτός* and *ψύω*. Our own sight or vision.

In those birds that have forked tails, *autopsy* convinced us that it (the tail) hath this use, (i. e. to turn the body to the right or left.) *Ray. Wisdom of God in the Creation.*

AUTUMN, } supposed from *augere, auctum*; from
AUTUMNAL, } the augmented, increased, fruits of
AUTUMNITY, } nature.

The air strews, and the smooth wind
Of Zephyrus, among the blossoms white
So hallowed was, and so nourishing by kind,
That small brooks, and round blossoms lie,
In manner gay of her breech delight.
To you we hope there fruits shall take
Against autumn ready for to shake.
Chaucer. Complaint of the Black Knight, fol. 271. c. i.

But Nile before the dog-days nears Brown,
Nor is confid' within his banks again,
Till the autumnal equinoxes.

Maj's Lucan, book x.

These fields, had they been either thinner sown, or seasonably
sown down, had yielded a fair crop; and those boughs, had they
been but moderately laden, had outlived many autumns.

Sp. Hall's Britain of Gildard.

Rein'd of granite turf
This table was, and monie seats had round,
And on her ample square from side to side
All autumn pill'd, though spring and autumn here
Danc'd hand in hand.

Milton's Paradise Lost, book v.

On the beach
Of that inflamed sea, he stood and call'd
His legions, angel forms, who lay listless
Thick as autumnal leaves, that strow the brooks
In Vaucluse.

Id. book i.

Thy grandeur's words surround'd of thriftless leaves,
Or mainly guttles: but thy furnace rocks
Hate steams of wine; and can aloof describe
The drunken draughts of sweetest autumn.

Sp. Hall's Satire, book ii.

That season deem the best to plant thy vines.
Next that, is when autumnal warmth declines;
It's heat is quite decay'd, or cold tongue,
Or Capricorn admits the winter sun.

Dryden's Virgil, Georg. ii.

For Oenoe, with autumnal plenty blest,
By gifts to bear a his gratitude express'd;
Call'd sheen to Ceres; to Lyones, wine;
To Pan, and Pales, offer'd sleep and kine;
And fat of olives, to Minerva's shrine.

Dryden's Fables.

And now the aged year
No rest remains of beauty hath resign'd;
Transparent snow of autumnal skin
Is chang'd to mist, the air serene to storm.

Greene's Athenae, book xv.

The oak is the noblest ornament of a fire-ground, spreading
from side to side, its tortuous branches; and foliage rich with
some autumnal tint.

Oliver's Tour to the Lakes, &c.

AUTUMN, the third season of the year; com-

encing in our northern hemisphere about the 23d
day of September, when the sun enters Libra; and
ending about the same day of December when he
enters Capricornus.

AUTUN, an ancient town of France, chief place of
a district in the department of the Saône and Loire,
16 leagues S. W. of Dijon, and 65 S. E. of Paris. Lat.
N. 46° 56', long. E. 4° 17'. Augustus planted a Roman
colony here under the name *Augustodunum*; and the
neighbourhood abounds with Roman remains. Before
the revolution, Autun gave title to one of the richest
bishops in France. The town, which is small,
stands on the river Arroux, at the foot of a mountain
of the same name. It has manufactures of linen,
blankets, and hosiery, and carries on an active trade
in wool and cattle.

AUVERGNE, a province in the heart of France
previous to the revolution, which took its name from
its ancient inhabitants, called the *Auverni*. It was
bounded on the east by Velay and Forez, on the west
by Limousin, Quercy, and La Marche, on the north
by Bourbonnois and Berry, and on the south by Rou-
ergue and Gévaudan. It was divided into Upper and
Lower Auvergne, which together contained a surface
of about 500 square leagues, and 800,000 inhabitants.
The upper division was a rugged and elevated country,
but afforded much good pasturage, to which a great
part of the lower division was also devoted; and many
cattle were annually sent both to Paris and Lyons.
The mountains of Auvergne were among the most
noted in the interior of France; the northern part of
the chain was called *Puy de Dôme*, the southern that
of Cantal, while the centre was formed of the *Monts
d'Or*, including some of the highest summits in the
kingdom. This province was divided at the revolution
into the two departments of Puy de Dôme and Cantal;
the former including the greater part of Lower Au-
vergne, and the latter most of the upper division of
the province. The other small districts not embraced
by these two departments, were annexed to those of
Creuse, *Allier*, and the Upper Loire. Auvergne anciently
maintained a pre-eminence among the independent
states of Gaul, and was conspicuous in the various
revolutions experienced by France. Its brave inhabi-
tants displayed a singular trophy in the sword of Caesar,
which he lost before the walls of Gergovia. They
maintained a faithful alliance with the Romans after
they became subject to them; and if all the other
provinces had shewn the same courage and loyalty,
the fall of the western empire would at least have been
retarded.

AVULSED, } *Avellu*, I tear or pull away; from
AVULSION, } *a*, and *vellu*, I tear.
Torn, pulled or rent away.

But in truth, the pressure of any ambient field, how great
soever, can be no intelligible cause of the cohesion of the solid
parts of matter. For though such a pressure may hinder the
union of two polished superficies, one from another, in a line
perpendicular to them, as in the experiment of two polished
marbles; yet it can never, in the least, hinder the separation by
a motion, in a line parallel to those surfaces.

Locke. On Human Understanding, book ii.

The wise
Spare not the little offspring, if they grow
Redundant; but the thronging clusters thin
By kind selection, else the starvelling brood,
Void of sufficient sustenance, will yield
A slender autumn.

Philips's Poem.

AVULSED I fear that if, when the receiver was well exhausted, the upper marble, by a certain contrivance, laid flat upon the lower, they would not then adhere so firmly, but be with great ease separated, though it did not by any phenomenon appear, that any air could come to rush in, to possess the place given it, by the recess of the upper marble, whose very *evacuation* is as easily explicable by our hypothesis: since the pressure of that little air, still remained in the receiver, being too faint to make any at all considerable resistance to the *reversion* of the upper marble; the hand, that drew it up, had very little more than the single weight of the stone to surmount.

Boyle. Animadversions on Hebbes.

Ye towering minds! ye sublimated souls!
Who scatter wealth, as though the radiant crop
Glist'ed on every bough; and every bough
Like that the Trojan gather'd, once *avuls'd*
Were by a splendid successor supplied
Instant, spontaneous! listen to my lays,

AUXERRE, a town in France, formerly the capital of the district of Auxerrois in Burgundy, now the capital of the département of the Yonne. It stands on a hillside by the river Yonne. Lat. N. 47° 47' long. E. 3° 34'. It leagues S. E. from Sens, and S7 E. from Paris. Before the revolution it was the see of a bishop. Population 12,000. Its only manufacture is woollen stuffs.

AUXILIAR, *n.* Lat. *auxilium*, (ab *auvco*, cum *auxilium*, *adj.* *accesserant*, qui *adjuvamento essent*, *adjuvamento*.) From the *aug-*
AUXILIARY, *a.* *adjuvamento* *Verro.* From the *aug-*
AUXILIARY, *adj.* *ment* strength, which those *sup-*
AUXILIARY, *adj.* *ply*, who aid or help us.
One who augments or increases our strength or
power, who helps, aids, assists; who succours, sup-
ports; an aider, helper, assister, or supporter.

A chill cold checks her blood; death looks less pale,
And least the hearbes she gave should chance to faile;
Vahcard auricularis charmes imports;
And calls th'assistance of her secret arts.

Savage's Orid., book vii.

That they might with loyal armies, with one heart, and with common accord of counsell, conduct and manage the warre: and in the mean time, with the cavellerie, with *auxiliaire* or aid soldiers lightly armed, repress the enemy, and staye him from spoyleing so licentiousely at his pleasure.

Holland. Live, book xxi.

And now at the present, seeing his enemies so near, first and foremost he made a stand with his vanguard; then he sent out toward the foremost ensigns, his auxiliary Cantolates that came to aid him, and those horsemen which they call Tarantines.

Id. book XXV.

Nor from his patrimonial heaven alone
Is Jove content to pour his vengeance down,
Aid from his brother of the seas he craves;
To help him with auxiliary waves. *Dryden's Ovid.*

If any the least member is hurt, what a general auxiliary, what a concurrent help is there from all the rest! the eye bewails, the tongue bemoans, and the hand plasters and forments it.

See A. Serres, *loc. cit.*, p. 13.

O Greeks! it is not from any want of barbarians, that I make use of you as my auxiliaries, but because I look upon you as superior to great numbers of them.

1800. *The Expedition of Cyrus.*

The Trojan heard uncertain, or to meet
Alone, with vent'rous arms, the king of Crete;
Or seek auxiliar force; at length decreed
To call some hero to partake the deed.

Pope, Homer's Iliad, book xiii, p. 21, l. 571.

It was the design of Agricola to complete and ensure his success by the easy reduction of Ireland, for which, in his opinion, one legion and a few auxiliaries were sufficient.

Gibbon's Roman Empire.

Each on his grappled gonnel firm maintains
A fight still dubious, when their pointed beaks
Aurifer Echylus and Cimón strike
Deep in the hostile ship. *Gloucester's Athenaid*, book vi

AUXILIARY VERB, a verb that helps to conjugate others. In the English language the several circumstances of mode and time are expressed, with very little variation of the principal verb, by the help of the auxiliaries *be, have, do, let, may, can, shall, will,*

Do and *dis* mark the action itself, or the time of it, with greater force and distinction. They are also of frequent and almost necessary use in interrogative and negative sentences. They sometimes also supply the place of a verb which has gone before, and make the repetition of it needless in the same or subsequent sentence.

Let not only expresses permission, but praying, exhorting, commanding.

May and might express the possibility of doing a thing; can and could the power.

Must denotes necessity.

Will, in the first person singular and plural, promises or threatens; in the second and third persons only foretells; *shall*, on the contrary, in the first person simply foretells, in the second and third persons, promises, commands or threatens; a distinction which was not observed by our older writers. It must be understood also of explicative sentences only, for when the sentence is interrogative, the direct reverse takes place for the most part.

Would denotes inclination; *should* obligation; but both these often express simple events.

Do and *have* make the present time; *did*, *had* the past; *shall*, will the future: *let* is employed in forming the imperative mood: *may*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*, in forming the subjunctive: *here*, through its several modes and tenses, is placed only before the present participle; and *be* in like manner before the present and passive participles; the rest only before the verb, or another auxiliary in a primary form.

When an auxiliary is joined to the verb, the auxiliary goes through all the varieties of person and number, and the verb itself continues invariably the same. When there are two or more auxiliaries joined to a verb, the first of them only is varied according to person and number. The auxiliary *must* admits of no variation. *Lenth's Grammar*.

AWA'TT, v. } Fr. *guetter*, *aguetter*; Ger. *wach-*
AWA'IT, n. } *ter*; Dutch *waken*; A. S. *wæccan*,
AWA'ITER, n. } *wacian* to wake or watch.
AWA'TING, n. } To await or lie await, is to lie in
watch : to watch, to be watchful, vigilant; to attend
upon, to observe; to lie, stay, or keep upon the look
out in attendance; to observe, to guard.

Mid al here power of Kent, and wryd þe Londreis þer t
 Awatede hem to þilke out, þat þe swertrout iong was.

H. Gloucester, p. 49.

There is ful many an eye and many an ere
dwining on a lord, and he n'ot wher.

Chancer. *The Sompnours Told*, v. i. p. 307.

For they to make his purchaſe
He lieth away *twede* on the paſſe,
And what thyng that he ſeeth ther paſſe,
He taketh his parte, or more or leſſe,
If it be worthy to be take.

Querc. Can. Am. book v.

The trampling staid with gold and purple tapt,
Chawing the fomic bit, there fiercely stood.
Then issued shr, anoyed with great train,
Clad in a cloak of Tyre embroidered rich.

Surrey. *Arms*, book iv.

AUXILIARY
—
AWAIT

AWAIT. His owne teneantes, the men of Northumberland, of which
AWAKE. province he than was lorde, some avenge hym and take from hym
 that he hadde, and lastyng charred hym into Flounders with a fyre
 personage, thus awaigynge vpon hym. *Malyn.*

The leue sit in his *awake* away
 To see the innocent, if that he may.

Chaucer. The Freres Tale, v. l. p. 231.

A good wif, that is cleue of wek and thought,
 Shuld not be kept in non *await* certain.

Id. The Manciple Tale, v. ii. p. 269.

And if he be a pryncy *awakener* hidde, and reioyseth him to roush
 by wiles, thou shalt saine hym lyke to the fowle wychepe.

Id. Boecius, book iv. fo. 232. c. 2.

Siche ministers euer bide the deuil which can seke occasions
 craftly in aucte good kinges good mynyds from the trewth when
 vnder an higher pretence of office and vertew, *awake* is laped to
 destroy them.

The Expositiō of Daniel by Joyce.

Yes, our misery seemed to be increased, for whereas at first we
 could looke for nothing but a present end, that expectation was
 now turned, into the *awaiting* for a lingring death, of the two, this
 far more fearful to be chosen.

World encompassed by Sir Fra. Drake, p. 99.

Adraue't in view, they stand, a horrid front
 Of dreadful leugh and dazling arm, in guise
 Of warriors old with order'd spear and shield,
awaiting what command their mighty chief
 Had to impose. *Milton. Paradise Lost, book i.*

Adam obseru'd, and with his eye the chase
 Pursuing, not wosou'd to Eue thus spake.
 O Eue, some farder charge *awaits* us nigh,
 Watch here's by these note signs in nature shew
 Forerunners of his purpose. *Id. book xi.*

Waxes beard, and for a spare reiged't
 To tender play all his manly mind;
 Then rising in his rage, he turns to fight;
 The Greek *awaits* him with collected might.

Pope. Iliad, book xiii.

Flung'd in the flood, not long the struggler sinks,
 With his white flakes, that ginsse through the tide;
 The sturdy scine, in the middle wave,
awaits to scize him raising.

Dyer. The Fleets, book .

— I feel myself at large,
 Courageous, and refresh'd for future toil,
 If toll *awaits* me, or if dangers new. *Cowper. Task.*

AWAKE, v. A. S. *awacian*, *awacian*, to wake or
AWAKE, adj. watch, to put upon the watch.
AWAKEN, } To put upon the watch, to put into
AWAKENING, } action; to rouse from inaction, from
AWAKENING. } inertness, from stupor, from sleep.

Jo Bret a wot of hys slep, and of his vnder stod,
 Hys men he tolde al jn cas with wel bipte mod.
R. Gloucester, p. 15.

In hor bed hil founde hom in trone jo hi come.
 Of softe *awake*age hil toke hys gume.
 Voe to wel slepys hom his no greue hom no tume.

Id. p. 557.

For he had yeven drinke his gylter so
 Of a clere, made of a certain wine,
 With narcotics and opie of Therbes fine,
 That all the night though that men wold him shaka,
 The gylter slep, he mighte not *awake*.

Chaucer. The Knightes Tale, v. l. p. 58.

And straight into his chamber went,
 And guth to bedde, and slep hym bent,
 And laie, that no man hym a wote.

Geoffr. Cn. Am. book v.

Awake the luste men, and nyle speke do synne, for summe han
 ignourance of god, but to reuerence i speke to ghon.

Wiclif. i Ceryn. chap. xv.

Awake truly out of slepe, and synne not. For some have not
 the knowledge of God: i speake this to yowre shame.

Bede, 1539.

These wordes said he for the aunes all
 Y' wish such thing he might his awry make
 And with his awrye down his awrye fall
 As for a time, and his awrye *awake*.

Chaucer. Run of the River, fo. 153. z. i.

I come to bring him *asleep*. "To such an ynt
 That creep like shadowes by him, and do sight
 At such his needlesse heauings: such as you
 Nourish the cause of his *awaking*."

Shakespeare. Winter's Tale, fol. 284.

What is delivered as an emblem of vigilancy, that the hare and
 lion do sleep with one eye open, doth not evince that they are any
 more *awake* than if they were both closed.

Brown. Vulgar Errors.

— *Awake*

My furest, my espous'd, my latest found,
 Hic'as last best gift, my ever new delight,
Awake, the morning shines, and the fresh field
 Calls us. *Milton. Paradise Lost, book v.*

Now is the pleasant time,
 The cool, the silent, save where silence yields
 To the night-warbling bird, that now *awake*
 Tunes sweetest his love-labour'd song. *Id.*

— He rook'd't
 With all his legions to dialogue, and leave
 Unworship, uncoloy'd, the throne supreme,
 Conspicuous, and his next subordinate
awaking, those to him in secret spake. *Id.*

They are also, by fits, under great apprehension of the danger of
 their condition, and that the course which they are in, if they
 continue in it, will prove fatal to them, and ruin them at last; es-
 pecially, when their consciences are thoroughly *awakened* by some
 great affliction, or the near approach of Death, and a lively sense
 of another world.

Tillotson's Sermons.

Betwixt shame and gratitude, the sense of his present and of his
 past condition possessing him, he does perchance, especially in the
 first fervours of his soul, think himself as much obliged to his
awakener, as Paulinus was to Saint Paul; to whom the Scripture
 says, that he *aw'd* even himself. *Reps.*

How dreadful had my condition for ever been, if my first
awakening had been in the flames of hell! Nothing but the in-
 finite goodness and patience would have waited so long for the
 repentance of such an offender as I have been.

Stillingfleet's Sermons, vol. iv.

There are some men formed with feelings so blunt, with tempers
 so cold and phlegmatic, that they can hardly be said to be *awake*
 during the whole course of their lives.

Burke on the Sublime and Beautiful.

This night, however, rising first, he stood
 Beside me suddenly, and in dispatch'd
 Already to *awaken* whom thou nam'st.

Cowper. Iliad, book x.

If the careless and indifferent were at any time to be *awakened*
 to a sense of danger, the last judgment was likely to afford a more
 prevailing argument than the prospect of the temporal ruin in-
 pending over the Jewish nation.

Hesley's Sermons.

AWARD, v. } A. S. *wardian* or *wardian*, to
AWARD, n. } look at, to direct the view. Tooke
AWARDS. } supposes it to be a guard, to keep,
 i. e. to determine or adjudge, who is to look after, to
 keep for himself, have, hold in possession the thing in
 dispute.

To determine, to adjudge.

[It is required that we] before the resurrection of the dead to
 come and also that last judgment, which shall *awards* some to
 eternal felicity, and other some to everlasting misery, and dam-
 nation.

Udall. Hebrews, cap. 6.

And we decree, ordain, and *awards*, that my mich lord of
 Wycheater, in the presence of the bygge, our soursaighe-lorde,
 my lord of Bedford, &c. saye and declare in summer and forme
 that followeth.

Hall. Henry VI.

To stand jointly to the *award* of his sovereignty, or of him that is
 higher in degree: certain this is a great work of humilitie.

Chaucer. The Parson's Tale, v. ii. p. 321.

X

AWARD.

AWARE.

Pos. A pound of that same merchant's flesh is thine,
The court awards it, and the law doth give it.
Jaw. Most rightfull judge.
Pos. And you must cut this flesh from off his breast,
The law allows it, and the court awards it.
Jew. Most learned judge—a sentence—come, prepare.
Shakespeare. Merchant of Venice, fo. 109.

It is the will of our Judge, from whose mouth our doom must proceed, awarding life or death, weal or woe unto us; and what sentence can we expect, what favour can we pretend to, if we presumptuously shall offend, oppose that will, which is the supreme rule of justice, and sole fountain of mercy?
Barrow's Sermons.

—Then those whom form of laws
Condemn'd to die, when traitors judg'd their cause,
Nor want they lots, nor judges to review
The wrongful sentence, and award a new.
Dryden's Virgil, .En. 6.

—Thus reverend,
And plac'd beyond the reach of sordid care,
The high awarders of immortal fame,
Alone for glory thy great masters strove;
Court'd by kings, and by contending states
Assum'd the boasted honour of their birth.
Thomson. Liberty, part II.

Her (the countess of Pembroke) immediate succession to the large estates of her ancestors in the north, had been disputed by an uncle, who inherited the title; and an award had been given against her by James I., to which however she would not submit.
Gilpin. Tour to the Lakes.

—This man affirm'd the fine
All just, haranguing vehement the crowd,
That man denied that he had ought receiv'd;
And each, producing witnesses, appear'd
Impatient for the award.
Corpus. Iliad, book xviii.

AWARD, in Law, is the final adjudication, by an arbitrator, of matters referred to him by litigating parties. Such references are sometimes made by the parties themselves spontaneously, to avoid the expense and delay of processes in courts of law; and sometimes by order of the court before which the cause is pending. In the former case, the parties usually enter into bonds to abide by the decision of the arbitrator; in the latter, an order or rule of the court is made, that the matter in issue shall stand by his award. Law as well as facts are within his province. If in the award (which is in writing and under seal) the arbitrator states the legal grounds on which he has decided, and those grounds appear to the court to be wrong, the award will be set aside. But if he merely makes his order without assigning his reasons, the award must be abided by, though he may have been mistaken in point of law. The courts will set aside an award, if the arbitrator can be shown to have made it from corrupt motives.

AWARE, v. } Goth. *waryan*; A. S. *warian*, war-
AWARE, adv. } *rian*; Dutch *waaren*; Ger. *waren*,
AWA'RN. } *beuaren*. Wachter considers the
primitive meaning to be, *oculis usurpare, spectare, in-*
tueri—*Ab oculis corporis transferatur ad oculum quasi et*
tunc significat, quantum potest considerare, curare, servare,
observare, custodire, curare; to see, to observe, to fore-
see, to take heed, to use or give caution, to be or make
cautious, provident, to foretell.

'When erich of them had a staff
Into his hand soon
Gambly was aware tho
He scowled them round.
The Cook's Tale of Gambly, in Chaucer's

AWARE.

AWAY.

A corse is layd vnto an old sore, not to heale it, but to stirre it
vp, and make the disease worse, that a man might feele in what
inwardly he is, and howe ayre death and not aware, and to make a
way vnto the healing plaster.

The Whole Works of William Tyndall, fol. 9. c. 2.

Argues slowly turn'd his ready steel,
And ere his foe was wit or will aware

Against his side he drove his couriers head,
What force could he guist so great might prepare?

Fairfax. Tasso, book vi.

Now gas the humid vapour shed the ground
With peary dew, and the earth's gloomy shade

Did dim the brightness of the welkin round;
That every bird and beast awar'd made

To shroud themselves, & hies sleep their senses did invade.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book iii. c. 10. s. 46.

He that speaks ill of another commonly before he is aware,
makes himself such a one as he speaks against; for if he had
civility or breeding he would forbear such kind of language.
Selden's Table Talk.

For heav'nly minds from such distempers fons
Are ever clear. Whereof hee soon aware,
Each perturbation smother'd with outward calme.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book iv.

A man may through bodily indispositions and faults in his con-
stitution, which it is not in his power to correct, be subject to
starts and loquacities, or objections to snore, which he cannot
be aware of.
Williston's Religion of Nature.

A man that knows himself will be aware of his remote tem-
ptations.
Mann on Self-Knowledge.

Fastidious, or else listless, or perhaps
Averse of nothing amuse in a task
They never undertook, they little note
His dangers or escapes, and haply find
There least amusement where he found the most.
Comper. Task.

AWAY, } Goth. *ga-wagyan*; A. S. *wagian*;
AWAYWARD. } Ger. *weges*; Dutch *weghen*; Engl.
wagge, to move; Goth. *weges* or *wige*; A. S. *weg* or
weg; Ger. and Dutch *weg*; Engl. *wag*.

Away is sometimes the imperative, as *away* to the
field; move, remove, begone. Or the past participle,
as he is *away*; i. e. he is moved, removed, gone. In
the Bible, 1539, I cannot awake with your new
moones, your sabbathes, and solemne dayes; in the
Geneva, is, I cannot suffer; by Lowth, I cannot endure
I cannot *away* with, is, I cannot more with; in unison
with.

Nennyn caste yis owne sword upon a way wel fure,
And nom yet award to hym, but so noble was and rich.
R. Gloucester, p. 49.

On the syght he fled away, but not sold him se.
R. Browne, p. 16.

Je wyle he sleep, je treytour je woy aw-awayward nom
Sulliche bi balces, but me naste wher he bi com.
R. Gloucester, p. 151.

Give thou to him that with of thee, and turne thou not away
fro him that wote howen of thee.
Wiclif. Matthew, chap. v.

Geve to him that subeth the: and fro him that wolde howen,
turne not thou away.
Idem, 1539.

This Phobus gan awayward for to wien.
Chaucer. The Manciple's Tale, v. li. p. 273.

But he that hyge with eye wrothe
His chere aweward for the caste
And forth he passed at the laste.
Geoff. Gen. An. book i.

Make a virtue of necessity, and conform thyself to undergo it:
If it be long, 'tis light; if grievous, it cannot last; it will *away*.
Burton's Anatomy of Melancholy.

Trincavellus had a patient that would make away with
himself, for fear of being hanged, and could not be persuaded,
for three years together, but that he had killed a man. *Id.*

AWAY.
—
AWE.

For I so little am disposed to pray
For life, I would not cost a wish away.
Such as it is, 'tis 'tis offence is all my care,
And what to Guinevere is already done,
Or to be done, is doom'd by thy decree,
That, if not executed first by thee,
Shall on my person be perform'd by me.

*Away, with women weep, and leave me here,
Fix'd, like a man to die, without a tear.*
Dryden. Sigismunda and Guinevere, v. ill. p. 144.
Farwell the stage! if just as thives the play
The silly bard grows fat, or falls away.

Peper. Institutions of Horace, vol. ii. book ii. p. 276.
A fool squanders away without cost or advantage to himself,
more than a man of sense spends with both.

Chatterfield. Letter cxxxiv.
— And if a mortal man
Offer'd them by the transgression of their laws,
Lustre, incense, sacrifice, and prayer.
In meekness offer'd, turn their wrath away.

Cooper's Hind, book ix.

AWBURN, in the east riding, county of York, in
the parish of Fraythorpe, a curacy, of the certified
value of £2. 13s. 4d. Patron Sir George Strickland,
Bart. 5 miles S. W. from Bridlington.

AWE, s.

AW, s.

A'WFUL,

A'WFULLY,

A'WFULNESS,

A'WFUL,

AW-COMMANDING,

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As he lay listless he saw, at just conall wild do,
He laurus had given awe, when just wit he wild do.

R. Branner, p. 215.

And soon, frae the sail up aw
Then till Macbeth with little awe
She said, "Macbeth look up, and see,
Under you sail forenoon is he,
The thame of Tife whom thou hast sought."

Andrew of Wyntoun, in Ellis, vol. I.

And if he found where a good fellow
He wold techen him to have non awe
In awiche a cas of the archdeacon curse.

Chaucer. The Prologue, v. l. p. 27.

There is one: even the Hyent, the maker of all thynges, the
Almighty, the kyng, of power (of whom men ought to stand greatly
in awe) which stytteth vpon his troor, beinge a God of dominion.

Bible 1539, Syrach, chap. I. fo. 463.

So lookt Rimold, when he shooke his crest
Before them wale, each Pagan feare and flin
His dreadfull sight, or trembling staid at least:
Such dread his awful visage on them cast,
So scarce poore dourer at goshalkes sight agast.

Fairfax. Tenth, book III.

To the high earth whitest awful Henry goes,
From whence strong Harbuck he mightiest came,
With sprightly words he thus their courage wanes.

Dryden. Battle of Agincourt.

Then the kind mother carefully forecasts
(For at three months a scuttling was laid,
And searchers then sent every where about,
That in that time if any were conceal'd,
They should make proof and strongly bring them out.)

To Pharaoh's will she awful must bow,
And therefore listens to his awful words,
And to the flood determines it should go,
Yet ere it went she'drown it with her tears.

Id. Moore, book I.

The greater strokes, the fiercer was
The monster's awful sight:
So that the Greeks and Trojans all
Misdoubt their dreadline knight.
Warner. Alton's England, book I.

And which of all those oppressive acts or impositions did he
ever disclaim or disavow, till the late *awful* this Parliament hung
ominously over him? *Milton. Answer to Eikon Basilike.*

—
AWE.
—
AWEARY.

— And to consummate all,
Greedness of mind and nobleness their seat
Build in her bosom, and create an awe
About her, as a guard Anglie plac'd.

Id. Pericles Lost, book vii.

— Nor think thou with wild
Of air's threats to awe wisdom yet with deeds
Thou canst not.

Id. book vi.

— And then sly hypocrite, who now wouldst seem
Faithful to liberty, who now thou dost
Once fawn'd, and cring'd, and servilly sold
Hear'st awful Monarch?

Id. book iv.

A subject bears a reverential fear to his prince, from the sense
of his majesty and grandeur: and thus, much more the majesty
and grandeur of almighty God, excites reverence and *awefulness*,
tho' there were no other argument in that fear.

Sir Matthew Hale's Contemplation.

Premuning on his force, with sparkling eyes,
Already he devours the promise'd prize.
He claims the bull with *awful* insolence;
And having seiz'd his horse, across the prince.

Dryden. Fugit, Æn. v.

Love and obedience to her Lord she bore
She much obey'd him, but she lov'd him more.
Not aw'd to duty by superior sway;
But taught by his indulgence to obey. *Id. Elkanah.*
Far vice, tho' frontless, and of harle's face,
Is denoted at the sight of *awful* grace.

Id. Hind and Panther.

By tracing Heaven his footsteps may be found:
Behold! how *awfully* he walks the round!
God is abroad, and wondrous in his ways,
The rise of empire, and their fall surveys.

Id. Brit. Rev.

Long stood the noble youth oppress'd with awe,
And stupid at the wondrous things he saw
Surpassing common faith; transcending nature's law.

Id. Fables.

I was very much *awed* and delighted with the appearance of the
god of wit; there was something so amiable, and yet so piercing
in his looks, as inspired me at once with love and terror.

Spectator, No. 63.

In the midst a form divine I
Her eye proclaims her of the Briton-line;
Her lip-port, her awe-commanding face,
Attempts'd sweet to virgin-grace.

Gray's Bard.

Your persons little acquainted with the world, and who have
not been used to approach men in power, are commonly struck
with an awe which takes away the free use of their faculties.

Barker on the Solitude and Beautiful.

His frown was full of terror, and his voice
Shook the delinquent with such fits of awe,
As left him not, till penitence had won
Lost favour back again, and clos'd the breach.

Cooper. Task.

So saying, she plac'd the armour on the ground
Before him, and the whole bright treasure rang.
Aw-struck, the Myrmidons all turn'd away
Their dazzled eyes, and, trembling, fled the place.

Id. Hind, book xix.

There is very rarely the *awefulness* of grandeur, and not very
often the splendour of elegance.

Johnson's Life of Addison.

God hath warn'd us that the enquiry into every man's conduct
will be public. Christ himself the judge; the whole race of man,
and the whole angelic hosts, spectators of the *awful* scene.

Hesley's Sermons.

It is held
By charter, and that charter sanctions awe
By th' unimpeachable and *awful* oath
And promise of a God.

Cooper. Task.

AWEARY. On weary, see WEARY.

Sir. Go thy wale, I begin to be *awearied* of thee, and I tell
thee so before; because I would not fall out with thee. Go thy
wale, let thy *harrow* be wet look'd so, without any trick.

Shakespeare. All's Well, in 252. c. 1.

x 2

AWEARY.
—
AWHIT.

For thou hast lost thy princely privilege,
With vile participation. Not an eye
But is aware of thy common sight,
Sere mine, which hath desired to see thee more.
Shakespeare. Henry IV. part iv. fo. 63. c. 1.

AWHAPED. A. S. *Awæped*, past part. confounded,
stupefied. *Tyrrhit.*

From A. S. *wegman*, to be amazed or astonished.
Skinner.

And when that Thibbe had espied that
She sat her up, with a full dreary hart
And in a cove, with dreifull foot she start,
For by the moone she saw it wel withall
And as she ran, her wimple let she fall
And take none hede, as sore she was awaked
And she so glad that she was awaked.

*Alisandre was sore awaked,
That he was so awaked,
Clancor. fo. 201. of Thibbe of Babilon.*
Kyng Alisandre, in Wyllier, v. 1.

It was to weet, a wild and savage man;
Yet was no man, but onely like in shape.
And she in stature higher by a span,
All over-grown with haire, that could awake
An hardy hart.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book iv. c. 7. s. 5.

AWHEELS, on wheels, is used by Ben Jonson.

And will they not cry then the world runs wheels.
Ben Jonson. Masques, fo. 18.

AWHILE, a time. A. S. *awile*, (for *awilof*) a turn,
walk a while; take a turn. *Tooke. See Writtle.*

Jo þu Vortiger hadde þat folk al in þa hand,
He seyde, he moete weade awile out of þis lond,
To percuse more treasure þe kyng for to spende,
For he hadde soght y newe, þu luygite to sounce.
R. Gloucester, p. 108.

Although mirth a while be taried, it shall come at such season,
that thy thought shall ben boyed.
Clancor. Test. of Love, book ii. fo. 308. c. 2.

But in deceit if that thou feignest,
And therupon thy luste attyneest,
That thou hast wonne with thy wile,
Though it the like for a while,
Thou shalt it afterward repente.

Greene. Con. Am. book 1.

And when in secrets so, he whispred had a while,
He raised his head with cheerful looks, his sorrowes up beguile;
And with the rest he prayde, to God in heaven on his
Which ended thus, Then comly Lord, canst helpe in miserie.
Goswiler.

Sir Amys Panrel, when he saw too much haste made in any
matter, was wont to say, stay a while, that we may make an end
sooner.
Bacon. Apophthegms.

Thus having said, th' embassadours went
Sood more awhile, and on each other part.
Dryden. Virgil, Æn. 11.

They languish awhile under the pains of mortality, and are cut
off in the flower of their age; a while many begin, and finish
their journey almost at the same time.
Gilpin. Sermons.

AWHIT. A whit, or o whit. A. S. *Awit*. See
WHIT.

He that hath not (such a one is he that byeth his treasure,
and keepeth it to him self) the same shall not at onely be newer
a whet the richer therefore, but also that thing whiche he thought
he had for his owne use, and no mans else, shall be qwyte taken
from him.
Udall. Marck, c. 4.

These farrs exceeds the haggards hauke
that stoopeth to no stule;
New forth on the lewe awbit,
but mounts with en'ry gale?
Turberville. Epitaphs, &c. p. 590.

AWK, } Of unsettled etymology. *Awk*,
A'WELLY, } which is not uncommon in our
A'WWARD, } own old writers, is perhaps formed
A'WWARDLY, } from the Dutch *acer-recht*, contra-
A'WWARDNESS. } *rius recto*; *preter rectum*; thus,
acerrecht, awrecht, aurcht, awc, auk or awk. The term
ination *ward*, from *keerd* the past part. of *keeren*, A. S.
cyrras, to turn, *auk-keerd*, *auk-kerd*, *aukerd*, after-
wards *ackward*. The old Scotch write *acquart*: and
thus it originally would signify

Turned out of the straight line; perverted or per-
verse, indirect, clumsy, inelegant.

They with *ackwards* indugment, put y' chiefes paynt of profiles
in outward thyngs, as in choyce of meates, and neglecte those
thyngs that be of the soule.

O blinde guides, which beinge of an *ackward* religion, do
streyne out a gnat, and swallowe up a camell, superstitious in a
lill thing, and negligent in a grante thing.
Id. B. esp. xxiii. fo. 90.

These trifles will prove earnest things
And serious in the end.

When all the worldle shal them deride
And presently them grudge,
And when all shal with *ackwards* dounce
And sinister then judge.

Drant. Horace. Arte of Poetry.

That which we in Greeke call *aspegram*, that is to say, at the
side or left hand, they say in Latine *sinistram*:
Holland. Plutarch's Morals.

So ignorant and untought persons many times when *foremen*
preacheth herself unto them on the right hand receive her *awky*.
Id. Tranquillity of Mind.

I knew a camel passeth in the Latine proverb either for glibness
and distorted, or for one that undertaketh a thing *awky* or un-
generly ("camelus salus").
Falke's Worthies. Cambridgehire.

If I had not known you usually, by your shambling gait,
and a certain reverend *ackwardness*, that is natural to all your func-
tion, here you had been expos'd to the laughter of your own
servants.
Dryden. Don Sebastian.

One only hag remain'd: But fowler far
Than grandame apes in leddian fairs are:
Against a wither'd oak she leen'd her wight,
Propp'd on her trusty staff, not half upright,
And droop'd an *awkerd* court'ry to the knight.

Id. Fables.

Remote subjects, tho' sometimes *ackward*, do not always strike
the eye with their *ackwardness*. *Gilpin. Tour to the Lakes.*

Ackwardness is a more real disadvantage than it is generally
thought to be; it often occasions ridicule, it always lessens
dignity.
Chesterfield. Maxims.

Half the beauty of a thing consists in the easiness of its intro-
duction. Bring in your story *awwardly*: and it offends.
Gilpin. Tour to the Lakes.

Though you are not to be a military man, yet these military
matters are so frequently the subjects of conversation, that you
will look very *awwardly* if you are ignorant of them.
Chesterfield. Letter cxliii.

AWL, Ger. *ahl*, *asahla*; A. S. *ale*, *ale*; Dutch *elen*, *elen*;
Gall. *aleme*; It. *teina*; Swed. *agl*, *Wachter*, who thinks
the Swedish *agl*, from *agl*, to saw, is the root. In R.
of Gloucester *awles*, is used for a weapon of war. In
Junius we find an opinion, that this word has the
same origin, with *eel*, and was so called, because it
can introduce and insinuate itself like an eel.

His awle and lingell in a thong
His tar-box on his broad belt hong,
His breech of coystric blice.

Dryden. Donnell.

Thou art a cobbler, art thou?

Truly, sir, all that I live by, is with the awle.
Shakespeare. Julius Caesar, fol. 109.

AWL.
—
AWRY.

It was generally reported, that the project was for some time successful, and that Savage was employed at the *awle* longer than he was willing to cozen.

Johnson. Life of Savage.

AWLSCOMBE, is the county of Devon, n discharged vicarage, valued in the King's books at £14. 10s. Patron, Duke of Bedford. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population, in 1811, 471. Poor's rates, in 1803, nt 2s. 10s. d. in the pound, £275. 6s. Two miles W. from Honiton.

AWME or **ACUM**, a Dutch measure of capacity, for liquids, containing eight steekens or twenty verges or vertels, answering to an English tierce; one sixth of a French, and one seventh of an English ton.

Rhenish wines are commonly imported in awmes.

AWORK. } In work, in working.

But sith I had been holly in min hand,
And that they hadde yeven me all hir lond,
What shuld I taken kepe hem for to please,
But it were for my yreke or mine ease?
I set hem as a *awerke* by my fey,
That many a night they souene wala wa.
Chaucer. The Wif of Bath's Prologue. v. l. p. 235.

Who should bee the makers of any manner cloth, if the a lashed men of substance to set sidy sories a *awerke*.

See Thomas More's Works, fo. 1208. c. 1.

He first suborna a villain that embrac'd
The nobler name of March-born Mortimer,
Which, in the title of the house of York,
Might set the monstrous mallice awerk.

Drayton. Mirrour of Queen Maryaret.

Long they thus tressailed, yet never met,
Adventure, which might them *awerking* set.
Spranger. Mother Hubbard's Tale.
If she be apt and cunning—I could tempt now
This fool, but he will be long a *awerking*!
Then he's my husband's son—the fitter to
Supply his wants; I have the way already,
I'll try if it will take.—When were you with
Your mistress, fair Cleora?

Manning. The Bandman.

AWRE, in the county of Gloucester, in the parish of Awre, a vicarage with Poolton, valued in the King's books at £10. 8s. Patron, the Company of Hmberdaahers, London. Church dedicated to St. Andrew. Population, in 1801, 175. Poor's rates, in 1803, nt 3s. 5d., £165. 0s. 8d. Two and a half miles E. from Blackency.

AWREKE, A. S. *awrecan*; Goth. *wrekan*; A. S. *wrican*, to wreak, to persecute, to take vengeance.

Je kyng of France after fole wide aboute sende,
To a wreke hym of je isher men, but ye frowd to schende.
R. Gloucester, p. 36.

Than dame Prudence, when that she saw how that hire househede shone him for to *awerke* him on his feyn, and to begynne werre, she is ful humble wye, when she saw hire time, sayle him these wordes.

Chaucer. The Tale of Melibee, v. li. p. 79.

AWRY, the past participle *awryeth*, *awrythd* of the verb *awrythan*, to writhe. Tooke, l. 471.

Writhe, crooked, bended, disorted, ankance.

I saw Easy in that painting
Had a wonderfull looking
For she so locked but *awrie*
Or southward, all baggely
And she had a foule visage
She might looka in no visage
Of man no wemen, forth right phison.

Chaucer. Rom. of the Rose, fo. 117. c. iv.

To rule the heat of youth and herde rage,
Which, somewhat heat miled this knight *awrie*,
In equall ballance ponder then and page
Your hopes far distant, with your piec nie.

Faust. Tasso, book x. p. 167.

For *awwrewe* eyes, glazed with blinding tears,
Divides one thing i' two, to many objects,

AWRY.
—
AX-
BRIDGE.

Like perceptions, which rightly pass'd upon,
Shew nothing but confusion, cry'd *awry*
Distinguish forms: so your sweet mistress,
Looking *awry* upon your lord's departure,
Finds shapes of griefe, more than herself, to wail.
Shakespeare. King Richard II. fo. 36.

What marvel is it, if that which moved the unjust Judge to do right, against the best of his will, he able to draw the weak *awry*.
Sp. Hall. Temptations Repelled.

AWR. In every peevish mood she will upbraid
The life she gave to it, I but look awry,
She cries, I'll tell my brother.

Dryden. All for Love.

On these considerations I have shun'd henymeticks: not being willing to imitate Virgil to a fault; like Alexander's courtiers, who affected to hold their necks *awry*, because he cou'd not help it.

Id. Dred. to the Kneels.

With a collar round her neck, the pretty said thing is taught a fantastical gravity of behaviour, and forced to a particular way of holding her head, leaving her breast, and moving with her body; and all this under pain of never having a husband, if she steps, looks, or moves *awry*.
Spectator, No. 66.

He may be some points, be in error—he may be many points pursue the way, which we may not think best, yet if he be a pious and good man, his path cannot possibly be much *awry*.
Gilpin. Sermons.

AX, a river of England, which rises in the county of Dorset, and entering Devonshire, passes by Axminster, and falls into the sea a little below Axmouth.

AX, a river of England, which rises in Wokey-hole, near Wells, in the county of Somerset; and after passing Axbridge falls into the Bristol Channel about eight miles lower down.

AX, } Ask, asking. See **ASW**.

AXINGO. } But Robin may not wete of this, thy kove,
Me shan thy mayden Gille I may not save;
Are not yett? for though then are me,
I will not tellen goddes privetee.

Chaucer. The Miller's Tale, v. l. p. 140.

And ye shal hode anon unto me were,
That never me ye shal my countee dene,
Ne maken werre upon me night ne day
But ben my freendes in alle that ye may.
I you foryeve this trespass every del,
And they bin aware his *axing* layr and wel,
And him of lordship and of merce praid,
And be ben granted grace.

Id. The Knightes Tale, v. l. p. 73.

AXE, see **ADDOCE**.

We set the *axe* to thy vauping route:
And though the edge lath something hit coarselous,
Yet know thou, since we have begun to strike,
We'll never leave, till we have hewen thee downe.
Shakespeare. K. Henry VI. part iii. fo. 155.

—To the ground they cast,
All east their leafy wandes, while, ruthless, he
Spaw'd not to smite them with his murderous axe.
Cowper. Hind, book vi.

AXBRIDGE, in the county of Somerset, n discharged rectory, valued in the King's books at £11. 4s. 4d. Patron, the Bishop of Bath and Wells. Church dedicated to St. John the Baptist. Population, in 1811, 835. Poor's rates, in 1803, £259. 23 miles N. W. from Somerton; 131 W. from London. Market on Saturday. This town was anciently a borough, by prescription, and sent members to parliament during the reigns of the three first Edwards, after which it was excused at its own desire. The corporation consists of a mayor, recorder, town-clerk, ten aldermen, and 22 burgesses, out of whom a sheriff, serjeant-at-mace, and constables are chosen. King hose is the only manufactory. The kings of England formerly had a hunting chase here

AX-
HOLME
ISLE.
—
AXIOM.

AXIOLME ISLE, in the west division of the wapentake of Manley, Parts of Lindsey, county of Lincoln. It is bounded on the east by the river Trent, on the north and west by the river Don, and on the south by the river Idle. It is about 80 miles in circumference, and contains 87,500 acres. In it are comprised the parishes of Althorpe, Belton, Crowle, Epworth, Haxey Luddington, and Owston, with their respective hamlets. Flax in abundance grows here.

AXIM, a district in Africa, on the Gold coast, forming part of the country of Ahafo, between capes Apollonia and Tres Puntas, distant from the former, from which it is separated by the river Accobra, ten leagues. The Portuguese founded the settlement, but they were driven from it by the Dutch in 1642, who still possess in it the strong fort of St. Antony, situated on a high rock and inaccessible from the sea. The climate is so moist that a native proverb states that it rains eleven months and twenty-nine days in Axim; nevertheless the country is richly cultivated, and produces large crops of maize. On the coast are many populous villages, and the natives in general are wealthy, from the traffic in gold. The capital, Axim or Achombene, stands under the Dutch fort, and is screened by a thick wood; the river Axim runs through it.

AXINITE, in Mineralogy, a crystallized substance, found principally in Dauphiny, in France, and latterly in Cornwall, in the neighbourhood of St. Just. The colours are generally a light violet brown. Its name is derived from the general form of the crystals, whose edges bear some resemblance to the edge of an axe. See MINERALOGY.

AXINOMACY, (*ἀξινωμια*, an axe, and *παρρησια*, divination) in this mode of divination an axe was exactly poised on an upright stake, and the names of suspected persons being pronounced, it was supposed to point out the guilty by its motion.

AXIOM, } *Ἀξίωμα*, from *ἀξιος*, worthy, de-
AXIOMATICAL } serving. *Ἀξίωμα*, according to
Cicero, was *quidquid enunciatum, omnis enuntiatio, omne pronuntiatum*. By the Aristotelians, *omne enunciatum quod ex se intelligitur*.

But the poem itself, to me, discovers, in the very first line of it, a great air of that solid astronomical vein, which is observable in other productions of Raleigh's muse.

Ode. Life of Sir Walter Raleigh.

There are a sort of propositions, which under the name of maxims and axioms have passed for principles of science.

Letter to the Human Understanding.

Thus out-laws open villainy maintain;

They steal not, but in squabbles scour the plain:

And, if their pow'r the passengers subvert;

The most have right, the wrong is in the few.

Such lawless axioms foolishly they show.

Dryden. Medea.

Nothing more common than to hear people assert, that such a thing follows from such a thing; when it does not follow: i. e. when such a consequence is founded in no axiom, no theorem, no truth that we know of.

Wallston. Religion of Nature.

General ideas or notions, such as the mind frames by its innate powers, such as are said to be archetypes, and to refer to nothing besides themselves, may seem to be materials of astronomical, mathematical, and, in a word, of absolute true knowledge.

Bolingbroke. Essay on Human Knowledge.

That a superficial criticism should often be mistaken, cannot be wonderful, when to others or himself, if it be considered that in his art there is no system, no principle and arithmetical truth that regulates subordinate positions.

Johnson. Preface to Shakespeare.

A'XIS,
A'XLE,
A'XLE-
A'XLE-TREE.

Lat. *axis*; Gr. *ἄξω*, *ab ἄξω*; i. e. a circumagendo. Minshew.

The line, that we derive from those to thither so,
As swift is, upon which the heavens about do go.

Wyatt.

But mark me well also, these mountings of these scenes,
Be not about the axle-tree of the first moving heaven. *Id.*

Whe y^e chariot was on the drawe-bridge, between both y^e gaine, the chariotmaster gave the porter money, and for the money, let one yow fall to the grounde, and while the porter stooped to take it up, the waggone with his drawe stroke him in at his throte; so that he cryed for an hralpe, and the ii. greave helbers slew the other porters, and with their axes cutte the axle-tree of the waggone, so that the drawe-bridge could not be shortly drawn up.

Hall. Henry VI.

At both ends of the axle-tree without the nave there were two such like hookes fastned and bended divers ways.

Holland. Liry.

And Hebe, she proceeds

T' address her chariot, instantly, she gives it either wheele,
Beams'd with eight spokes of sounding brass, the axle-tree was steale.

Bright Hebe waits; by Hebe, ever young.

The whirling wheels are to the chariot bring.

On the bright axle turns the hidden wheel

Of sounding brass; the polished axle steale.

Pope. Iliad.

Hebe to the chariot roll'd

The brass wheels, and join'd them to the smooth

Bright axle.

Cooper. Iliad.

The turning of the earth upon its own axis every twenty-four hours, whilst it moves round the sun in a year, we may conceive by the running of a bowel on a bowing-green; in which not only the centre of the bowel takes a progressive motion on the green, but the bowel in its going forward from one part of the green to another, turns round about its own axis.

Letter to the Human Understanding.

That the diurnal rotation of the earth about her axis should be inverted is a phenomenon that has never been known to happen.

Wallston. Religion of Nature.

Inferior ministers, for Mars repair

His broken axle-tree, and blessed wax.

Dryden. Virgil, Æn. vii.

AXISO. For I have dreamt all night of horrid slaughters,
Of trampling horses, and of chariot wheels
Wading in blood up to their axle-trees.

Id. Troilus and Cressida.

And bade her spirits bear him far,

In Merlin's aqua-ard car,

To her green lake's ennoble'd steep,

Far in the navel of the deep.

T. Warren. The Græve of King Arthur.

AXIS, a line drawn through the centre of any body round which it revolves. For the different applications of the word axis, see the separate treatises on the sciences in which it is used.

AXMINSTER, in the county of Devon, a rectory and vicarage. The rectory is valued in the King's books at £40. 6s. 8d.: the vicarage at £44. 6s. 8d. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 2387. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 6s. 7d. £1107. 11s. 2d. 2½ miles E. from Exeter, 147 W. from London. The market is on Saturday. The petty sessions are holden here. King Æthelstan founded a minster here, for seven priests to pray for the souls of those who were slain in a battle which he fought with the Danes at Bremesdown, in its neighbourhood.

AXIS.
—
AXMIN-
STER.

AX-
MOUTH.
AY.

AXMOUTH, in the county of Devon, a vicarage valued in the King's books at £22. 19s. 2d. Population, in 1811, 406. Poor's rates, in 1803, £406. 17s. 5d., at 5s. 9d. $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles S. by E. from Colyton.

AXUM, (*Arâma, Arâma*), properly *Akshim*, (corrupted by the Portuguese into *Caxum* and *Chapume*), in Abyssinia, the capital of a powerful state in the time of the Ptolemies; still retaining monuments of its former splendour. Caverns excavated in one of the neighbouring hills; an ancient throne of granite, and two rows of obelisks, one of which struck Mr. Salt as the most beautiful he had ever seen, are among the remains which still render this a place of considerable interest. But perhaps the most curious of all, is a long Greek inscription, which records the victories of one of the Ptolemies, and the extent of their empire. Prudentius, the apostle of Ethiopia, was the first Bishop of Akshim, and many churches had been excavated from the surrounding mountains before the close of the fifth century. It carried on a considerable trade with India and Arabia, through the port of Adulis. It is the place where the kings of Abyssinia are crowned. Mr. Salt found it to be in lat. $14^{\circ} 6' 36''$ N. Its present population is about 3000; they wear coarse woollen cloths, and the monks prepare the best parchment in all Abyssinia. (Lord Valentia's *Travels*; Salt's *ditto*.)

AXYRIS, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Monocotylæ*, order *Triandria*. Generic character: male. Calyx, three partite. Corolla none. Petals. Calyx, five leaved. Corolla none; styles two. Seed one. A Siberian genus.

AY, *adv.* Sax. ever. Tyrrhit. Goth. *an aino*, *etw aino*, in æternum, without end; for ever.

A byng þat strims with kin, he may not wete spede,
Whore so he sæta or tines he lyngs up in dede.

R. Brunne, p. 233.

Malcolm, þe Scottis byng, þerwith had curie,
þat Gospatrick of auk þing bare his state so kin,
Dight him to Combriland, destroyed about ætwele,
Ilkum he stull at hand, þe goddes away bare.

Id. p. 72.

Of port benigne, and wonder glad of chere
Hearing overture her new advenchance
Always to reason, so that her desire
Is bridled air, by wit and providence
Thereto of witte, and of her prudence
She is the well, etc. demand of pride
That rate vertue, her selcon is the gild

The *Flower of Courtisie*, by John Lydgate, p. 249, c. 2.

For thilke blood, which shold have ease,
To reue amonge this molate velous
Is dre of thilke voluvelous velous,
Through which stule is fired etc.

Gower. *Con. Am.* book II.

— Faire Hermia questions your desires,
Know of your youth, examine well your blood,
Whether (if you yeeld not to your father's choice)
You can endure the livery of a Nunne,
For you be to be shadly cloister new'd,
To live a barren sister all your life.

Shakespeare. *Midsummer Night's Dream*, fo. 145.

And jols with these calm Ponce, and Quiet,
Spare Fast, that oft with gods doth dight,
And leuen the Muses in a ring
Ay round about Jove's allies sing.

Milton. *Il Penseroso*.

And much, and oft, he warr'd him to eschew
Falshehood and guile, and ay constrain the right;
By pleasure unaccost'd, unaw'd by lawless might.

Scottie. *Minstrel*.

AYCLIFFE, GREAT, in the county palatine of Durham, a vicarage valued in the King's books at £30. Patrons, the Dean and Chapter of Durham. Church dedicated to St. Acca. Population, in 1811, 1139. Poor's rates, in 1803, £304. 1s. 3½d., at 2s. 7½d. 6 miles N. from Darlington. This village is of great antiquity, and was formerly part of the possessions of the see of Lindisfarne. According to the *Saxon Chronicle*, a synod was held here A. D. 782, and another in 789.

AYE, Tooke thinks is the imperative of a verb of northern extraction; and means,—have it, possess it, enjoy it. In Swedish, German, and Dutch, it is *Ja*; Goth. *ya*, or *ja*; A. S. *gea*, *ja*.

Glow. The trick of that voyce, I do well remember;
Is't not the King?

LEAR. I, every inch a king.

When I do stare, see how the subject quakes.

Shakespeare. *Lear*, fo. 293.

LEAR. They flatter'd me like a dogge, and told mee I had the
white haires in my beard, ere the blacke ones were there. To
say I and we, to every thing that I said: I and we too was no good
distinety.

Id. *Ibid*.

Sometimes in mutual ay disgreve,
Let eyes seeme nos, and nos seeme eyes;
Ayre he in courts denials meane,
And one in bishops give consent.

Thus eyes propound,—and, for reply,
No for the first time, answered eyes.
They parted with a thousand kisses,
And fight'd e'er since for yare, like brimies.

Gey. *Age and No. A Fable*.

AY'EN, } SEE AGAIN.

AYENIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: petals five, connected in a star-like form. Nectary uncorollate, covering the pistil, stamiferous. Capsule five-celled.

A tropical genus of the new world.

AYLESBEARE, in the county of Devon, a discharged vicarage valued in the King's books at £16. 2s. 4d. Church dedicated to St. Christopher. Population, in 1811, 747. Poor's rates, in 1803, £402. 12s. at 4s. 10d. $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles W.S.W. from Otery St. Mary.

AYLESBURY, in the county of Buckingham, a discharged vicarage valued in the King's books at £84. 18s. 1d. Patron, the Prebendary thereof, in Lincoln Cathedral. Church dedicated to St. Mary. The prebend is valued in the King's books at £36. Patron, the bishop of Lincoln. Population, in 1811, 3447. Poor's rates, in 1803, £2606. 10s. 8½d., at 7s. 11d. $18\frac{1}{2}$ miles S. E. by S. from Buckingham, and 38½ N.W. by W. from London. This town sends two members to Parliament. It was incorporated by Queen Mary in 1554; but by neglect the Corporation was dissolved. The petty sessions for the three hundreds of Aylesbury, and the assizes in the Lent Circuit, are holden here. Here is an endowed Grammar school.

Aylesbury, the Æglesbury of the Saxons, was a strong British town, which maintained its independence till the year 571, when it was reduced by Cuthwulf, brother to Cealwin, king of the West Saxons. In the seventh century, it was famous as the burial-place of St. Oryth, whose remains worked many miracles. A religious house was in consequence dedicated to her on the spot on which the parsonage

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AYLES-
BURY.
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AYMES-
TREY.

now is built. The vale in which the town stands is rich and extensive. Drayton has thus commemorated it:—

*Aylesbury, 'tis a vale that walloweth in her wealth,
And, by her wholesome air, continually in health.
Is lusty, firm, and fat; and holds her youthful strength.*

The church was made prebendal to Lincoln, by William the Conqueror.

AYLESBY, in the county of Lincoln, a curacy (not in charge) of the clear yearly value of £10. Church dedicated to St. Lawrence. Population, in 1811, 110. Poor's rates, in 1803, £103, at 2s. 4 miles W. from Great Grimsby.

AYLESFORD, in the county of Kent, a vicarage valued in the King's books at £10. Patrons, the Dean and Chapter of Rochester. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population, in 1811, 875. Poor's rates, in 1803, £1069. 6s., at 5s. 3½ miles N. W. from Maidstone, and 3½ E. S. E. from London.

Aylesford is the *Ægelesford* of the Saxons, and *Eleford* of Domesday Book. The first Carmelite priory in England was erected here in 1240, by Lord Grey, of Condon, after his return from the Crusade. Sir Paul Rycaut, the celebrated eastern traveller, and author of the *State of the Ottoman Empire*, is buried in the church of Aylesford; the Priory having been the seat of his family. The conventual buildings are yet standing in good preservation. Aylesford is the birthplace of Sir Charles Sedley. It was the scene of a bloody battle in 455, between the Britons under Vortimer, and the Saxons under Hengist and Horsa. The Britons were victorious, but Catigern, brother to Vortimer, was killed in the contest. He is supposed to have been buried under a cromlech on the Downs, about a mile N. E. of Aylesford, now known by the name of *Kil's Coty House*. Many other Druidical remains are to be found in the neighbourhood. Here also both Alfred and Edmund Ironside obtained victories over the Danes.

AYLESHAM, in the county of Norfolk, a vicarage valued in the King's books at £17. 19s. 7d. Patrons, the Dean and Chapter of Canterbury. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population, in 1811, 1760. Poor's rates, in 1803, £2849. 15s. 9½d., at 10s. 6d. 13 miles N. by W. from Norwich, and 13½ N. E. by N. from London. Here is a Free school, and also a county Bridewell.

AYLESTONE, or ELSTONE, in the county of Leicester, a rectory valued in the King's books at £31. 8s. 11½d. Patron, the Duke of Rutland. Church dedicated to St. Andrew. Population, in 1811, 509. Poor's rates, in 1803, £469. 3s. 6½d., at 6s. 10d. 2½ miles S. by W. from Leicester.

AYLMERTON, in the county of Norfolk, a discharged rectory (in two mediæties) valued in the King's books at £6. 11s. Church dedicated to St. John the Baptist. Population, in 1811, 290. Poor's rates, in 1803, £394. 8s. 3½d., at 11s. 6d. on the rack rental. 3½ miles W. S. W. from Cromer.

AYLTON, in the county of Hereford, a discharged rectory valued in the King's books at £3. 3s. 4d. Patron, Earl of Oxford. Population, in 1811, 84. Poor's rates, in 1803, £69. 17s. 4d., at 4s. 10d. 4 miles W. from Sedbury.

AYMESTREY, or AYMISTRE, in the county of Hereford, a discharged vicarage valued in the King's

books at £7. 14s. 9d. Patron, the King. Church dedicated to St. John and St. Alkmund. Population, in 1811, 808. Poor's rates, in 1803, £361. 15s. 6d. at 8s. 9 miles N. W. from Leominster.

AYNHOE, in the county of Northampton, a rectory valued in the King's books at £25. 5s. 5d. Church dedicated to St. Michael. Population, in 1811, 631. Poor's rates, in 1803, £424. 13s. at 3s. 6 miles W. S. W. from Brackley.

AYOTT, MAGNA, or AYOTT St. LAWRENCE, in the county of Hertford, a rectory valued in the King's books at £8. 13s. 4d. Patron, Sir Leonard Lyle, Bart. Population, in 1811, 149. Poor's rates, in 1803, £54. 4s. 6½d. at 2s. 3 miles N. by W. from Welwyn.

AYOTT, PARVA, or AYOTT St. PETER, in the county of Hertford, a rectory valued in the King's books at £7. 8s. 6½d. Population, in 1811, 176. Poor's rates, in 1803, £42. 4s. 7d. at 2s. One mile and three quarters S. W. from Welwyn.

AYRSHIRE, a maritime county, in the south-west of Scotland; bounded on the north by Renfrewshire, on the east by the counties of Lanark, Dumfries, and Kirkcudbright; on the south by Wigtownshire; and on the west by the Irish Sea and the Frith of Clyde. Its greatest length is from north to south, and is about 80 miles; while its extreme breadth does not exceed 32. A few small islands are included within the limits of this county. Its superficial content is stated at 1600 square miles; and its population, according to the census of 1831, consisted of 197,999 individuals; in 1801, the number of inhabitants was 84,506; in 1811, they had increased to 103,954; thus exhibiting an increase of 23 per cent. in the former period of ten years, and of 93 in the latter. Ayrshire is divided into three districts, which were formerly denominated the three bailiaries of Scotland: these are, Carrick, on the south of the river Don; Cunninghame, on the north of the river Irvine; and Kyle, which occupies the intermediate space, and is divided by the river Ayr into King's Kyle and Kyle Stewart.

Much of the surface is billy and uncultivated; but in many of the lower parts the soil is good, and the usual pursuits of agriculture are followed; but in the practice of farming art, though much improved of late years, it is still behind many other parts of Scotland. A great part of the county is in pasture, and the breed of cattle is much esteemed. Being exposed to the vapours from the western ocean, the climate is moist, and the air, in the billy parts, chilly. So great a difference, indeed, is there between the east and west sides of Scotland, in reference to the moisture of its atmosphere, that 19 inches more rain annually falls in this county than at Edinburgh, near the eastern coast. This excess is chiefly in the autumnal and winter months; but in spring the western counties have the advantage of the eastern; as they are not so much exposed to those eastern winds, that frequently check vegetation in the vicinity of the German ocean; nor are those dense fogs, which often hang over the frith of Forth, so much felt near the estuary of the Clyde. The climate of Ayrshire is considered as salubrious, and the inhabitants are distinguished for their health and longevity. Besides the frith of the Clyde, which washes a considerable part of its western confines, Ayrshire contains several

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other rivers, which chiefly rise in the mountains towards its eastern boundaries, and fall either into the sea or the Clyde. Its surface is likewise diversified with several small lakes. The mountains afford a variety of mineral substances; copper, lead, and iron, with black lead and antimony, are obtained; but one of the most valuable is the abundance of coal which is found in successive seams, and annually exported in great quantities. Stone of various kinds abounds; among which are agates, porphyry, and Jasper. Calcareous petrifications are occasionally met with. This variety of minerals, the abundance of fuel and building materials, and the facility for export and import, renders this county particularly adapted for the seat of different manufactures. Those branches of industry have therefore flourished for many years. Woollen cloth is made in almost every parish. Thread is produced in large quantities; and all branches of the cotton manufacture are carried on to a great extent. Iron works and collieries are also numerous. More than twice the number of people are engaged in trade and manufactures than are employed in agriculture. Several harbours, canals, and rail-roads have lately been constructed to facilitate the commerce of this county; the exports of which consist principally of coal, cotton, and woollen cloths, with iron and other mineral products. Its imports are chiefly grain, wood, wine, colonial produce, and the raw materials of its various manufactures. Ayrshire contains several considerable towns, the chief of which are Ayr, Kilmarnock, Irvine, Maybole, and Ardrossan, of which Ayr is the provincial capital. It is also divided into three districts, Carrick, Kyle, and Cunningham, and comprises 46 parishes, which are now richly adorned with the splendid mansions and parks of opulent landowners. Much of its scenery is very picturesque, and has been rendered classical by the muse of Burns, who was born within a few miles of the chief town. Few parts of Scotland have experienced greater vicissitudes, or have participated more in the revolutions of time than this. The aborigines appear to have been the Selgovi, the Novantes and the Damii, who were undoubtedly of British descent, and seem to have occupied the peninsula between the friths of Clyde and Solway, at the time of the Roman invasion. These tribes also formed part of the ancient Valentia, which submitted to the yoke of the great wall of Antoninus, the Caledonians, north of the great wall of Antoninus, maintained their independence. Though the whole, or the greater part of this county, was included in the chieftaindom of the Novantes; the Damii were also inhabitants of Ayrshire; and after the abdication of the Roman government, it formed a part of that territory which is described as an independent principality, and was known by the appellation of the Cambrian Kingdom. During the Saxon heptarchy, this part of Scotland was infested by the Northumbrians; and to this period it is supposed that several Saxon names and usages, which are still visible, must be referred, as well as some of the superstitions, which still exist, and which are thought to be vestiges of the ancient Saxon mythology. This promiscuous race of Britons, Saxons, Scots, and Picts were frequently infested by the Danes and Norwegians; and were also greatly increased by the number of English refugees who fled from the sword of the Norman conqueror, during the reign of Malcolm Canmore. Many vestiges of anti-

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quity may be traced in cairns, encampments, Druidical circles, &c. in various parts of Ayrshire. The castles must also at some remote period have been numerous, as the ruins of many may still be found in various parts of the county. There were also many abbeys and other religious houses or establishments in Ayrshire, several of which were opulent, and their inmates equally dissolute; yet the arts which they introduced, and the efforts which they made to cultivate the country, had a direct tendency to open the minds, and polish the manners, of all classes of its inhabitants.

AYRY. (of Hawks.) *quod optime comum Juhana*
Barnes Eyry scribit, a Teut. Ey, ovum; pl. eyr,
ova, q. d. ovipitram catin, qui ab ovicalem tempore in-
cubitus nati sunt, et in comen nido educati. Skinner.
Eyry, i. e. eggery, the nest or place where the egg are deposited,—by hawks or any other bird.

No. know the gallant mousarch in its arms:
And like an eagle, o'er his eyryr towers
To some unwarlike that comes near his nest.

Shakespeare. King John, Act 20.

You son-bred eyry, whose immortal birth
Heirs you shalt beyond the sight of earth,
The heaven-touch'd feathers of whose brightly wings
Shirts (from above) the palaces of kings.

Dryden. The Owl.

Mean while the tepid carves, and fens, and shores
Their brood as numerous hatch, from the egg that soon
Bursting with lively rapture forth discloses
Their callow young, but feather'd soon and feather
They sum'd this penne, and scuffle th' air sublime
With clang desp'd the ground, under a cloud
In prospect; there the eagle and the stork
On clifts and cedar tops their eyryr build.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book vii.

But you Mr. Garrett, out of your unclouded influence of super-
abundant grace, ennobled your heart and uttermost to bruise the
very nest-egg of this royal and high-flying eyry, if it had been
possible.

Steele. Trial of Henry Garrett.

Then, as an eagle (who, with pinion rare,
Was beating widely on the wing far prey)
To her new silent cry does repair,
And feeds her callow infants fore'd away,
Sung with her love she stoops upon the plain,
The broken air loud whistling as she flies:
She stops and listens, and shoots forth again,
And guides her pinions by her young ones cries.

Dryden. Anna Maritima.

The black eagle is very common and destructive in Germany. Beekstein says, that in an army of one were found the skeletons of three hundred ducks and forty hares; and that the rapine they commit in cultivated parts cannot be computed.

Ponsant. Zoology, vol. i. p. 204.

AYSGARTH, in the north riding, county of York, a disbarred vicarage valued in the King's books at £19. 6s. 8d. Patron, Trinity College, Cambridge Church dedicated to St. Andrew. Population, in 1801, 268. Poor's rates, in 1803, £163. 16s. 3d. at 5s. 6d. 9 miles W. from Middleham.

AYSTON, in the county of Rutland, a rectory valued in the King's books at £8. 7s. 6d. Church dedicated to St. Mary. Population, in 1811, 110. Poor's rates, in 1803, £105. 16s. 7d. at 2s. 6d. 1½ miles N. W. by N. from Uppingham.

AYTON, EAST, in the north riding, county of York, a chapel to the vicarage of Seamer, dedicated to St. John Baptist. Population, in 1811, 327. Poor's rates, in 1803, £199. 19s. 0d. at 2s. 7d. on the rack rental. 4 miles S. W. by W. from Scarborough.

V

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AYTON.
AZOF.

AYTON, GREAT, in the north ridg, county of York, a chapel of the certified value of £14. Population, in 1811, 1094. Poor's rates, in 1803, £618. 12s. 6d. at 4s. 5d. 3 miles N.E. by E. from Stokesley.

AZAB, a road on the coast of Abyssinia, in lat. 13° N. where Bruce says "he found the remains of a very ancient aqueduct." He supposes this to be the *Sabe* of Strabo; and the country of the *Sabei* so famous for their myrrh and frankincense. "Those gums," he adds, "are still produced in the neighbourhood." Behind this place are the pits of rock salt, whence the pieces used as coin by the Abyssinians are extracted. It is believed by the natives to have been the residence of the queen of Sheba.—Bruce, vol. i. Strabo, xvi. Diod. iii.

AZALEA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character; corolla, campanulate; stamina inserted in the receptacle. Capsule five-celled. This is a favourite ornamental genus, particularly the *A. audiflora* and *A. viscosa*, of which many varieties are cultivated; they are both natives of North America. One species, the *A. procumbens*, is occasionally met with in the Highlands of Scotland.

AZAMOR, (or *Amamir*) a small town in the province of Dakhla, (*Dagrella*) and empire of Morocco, at the mouth of the river Om-rabad, in lat. 33° 20' N. and long. 7° 54' W. There is a bar which renders the entrance extremely dangerous. A cape bearing the same name, extends beyond the town. During the greater part of the sixteenth century this town was in the hands of the Portuguese. Ruins of an ancient city are said to exist in the neighbourhood. (Hart's *Narratives*, p. 83.) The name is written *Uzammirah*, by Abul Nâzin ibn Abd'l Ilakk, in his *Geographical Dictionary*. MSS.

AZIMUTH, (*Arabic*.) in Astronomy. The azimuth of any heavenly body is an arc of the horizon comprehended between the meridian of a given place, and any vertical circle passing through the body; and it is equal to the angle at the zenith formed by this meridian and this vertical circle, which is measured by this arc. The azimuth is reckoned eastward, before noon, westward after it, and usually either from the south or north. See ASTRONOMY.

AZIMUTH COMPASS, an instrument for finding the magnetical azimuth or amplitude of a circle at sea. See COMPASS.

AZIMUTH, Magnetical, an arc of the horizon contained between the magnetical meridian and the azimuth or vertical circle of the object.

AZIMUTH Dial, a dial whose gnomon is perpendicular to the plane of the horizon.

AZOF, (or Azov,) a village and fortress in the government of Yekatorinoslaw, and at the mouth of an arm of the Don. Lat. 46° 53' N. long. 39° 14' E. There was not, when Dr. Clarke saw it in 1800, more than 50 houses in the whole settlement; the garrison consisted of a few worn out invalids, and the works were abandoned to decay. It is surrounded by a swamp, and the interior of the neighbouring country is a parched and barren desert. The unhealthiness of such a situation, and still more, the continual diminution of the waters in the bay, have occasioned the decline of this town; for it was anciently a considerable port. Tanaïs is mentioned by Strabo, as a settlement of the Bosphorani, but Dr. Clarke could find no trace of

the ancient town near the site of Azov, and supposes it must have been at the embouchure of the Danests or northern arm of the Don. Its ancient history is very obscure; but it passed from the Polovtzes to the Genoese, who called it *la Tana*. It was wrested from them by Tamerlane in 1399, and was possessed, after his decease, by the khans of the Krim till 1471, when it fell into the hands of the Turks. Peter the Great took it by assault, and laid out large sums upon its fortifications, but he was obliged to give it up at the peace of 1711. The fortifications were demolished in compliance with the terms made at the peace of Belgrade in 1739, and it was finally ceded to Russia in 1774; but the establishments of Peter the Great were not restored.

The sea of Azov, named from the town described above, and called in the middle ages, *Mar de Zabacchi*, from a fish peculiar to it, is the *Pulus Mæotis* of the ancients. It is properly only a bay of the Black sea with which it is united by the straits of Caffa, (*Kerfe*). Its principal port is Taganrok. Its fish are small, but plentiful, so that 60,000 are often taken at one draught. This sea seems to be gradually filling up with the alluvial earth brought down by the Don; and the water is sometimes driven back so far by the violent east winds, that the channel between Azov and Taganrok, an interval of more than 13 miles, can be passed dry-shod. A new island, at some distance from the shore, was thrown up on the 5th of September, 1799, with phenomena evidently volcanic. This sea is 210 miles in length, and about 50 broad. Lat. 45° 30'—47° 30' N., long. 34° 30'—39° 30' E. Tooke's *View of the Russian Empire*. Clarke's *Travels*, i. 417. Frieber *Russlands Handel*, l. Storeh's *Gemelde*.

AZORES, or WESTERN ISLANDS, a group in the Atlantic ocean, situated between 37 and 40 degrees of latitude, and about 800 miles from the western shore of Portugal. This name was given to them on their first discovery by the Portuguese, from *Azor*, a falcon, on account of the numerous goshawks which they found there. As these two were undisturbed by man or beast, they were remarkably tame, and thus since they afforded the most striking feature in their Zoology which presented itself on a cursory view, the discoverers denominated the isles the *Land of Falcons*. The Azores are sometimes called *Western Islands*, from their situation with respect to Europe, and particularly to Portugal; and *Terceras*, from the principal island. The Azores belong to the crown of Portugal, and may be considered as forming three separate clusters. St. Mary and St. Michael lie at the eastern extremity; the five islands of Terceira, Graciosa, St. George, Pico, and Fayal, form the central group, while Corvo and Flores, are more detached, and lie farther north-west. The Arabian Geographers of the middle ages, appear to have had some knowledge of these islands; but they were not known to Europeans till towards the middle of the fifteenth century, when Vander Berg, a Flemish merchant, was driven by contrary winds on these shores. Intelligence of this event soon reached the court of Lisbon, then pursuing its career of maritime discovery, and an expedition was immediately fitted out to explore and colonise these new lands. The Flemings also took possession of Fayal, where traces of them are still visible. When Portugal became subject to the Spanish yoke in 1580, these islands fell under Spanish control till the duke of Baganza was raised to the throne in 1640. After this,

AZOF.
AZORES.

Discovery, position, and progressive geography.

AZORES. the Portuguese government soon became too lethargic to pay much attention to these detached parts of its possessions; but the beauty of the scenery, and the salubrity of the climate supplied the want of encouragement arising from this neglect. In consequence of these, cities were founded, and the population greatly increased.

Physical
appearance
and phenomena.

From the physical appearance and phenomena of these islands, there can be little doubt of their volcanic origin. The conical mountains, the mouldering lava, the sulphureous exhalations of the boiling springs, the repeated earthquakes, and the rising of new islands from the bottom of the deep, all indicate the presence of subterranean fire. "Nature appears every where smiling; the plains wave with golden harvests, delicious fruits adorn the sides of the hills, and the towering summits are crowned with ever-greens. Little would the superficial observer suspect that nature had chosen such a scene for the display of her most terrible phenomena; yet few mountains remain which after being formed by the volcano, have not been rent by the earthquake." In 1591, these islands were, for twelve successive days, shaken by violent concussions, and the Villa Franca entirely destroyed: a similar occurrence also took place in 1757. This group has also been characterised by new islands raised from the bottom of the sea, by the elastic power of volcanic action. In 1790, one of these phenomena took place, on approaching which, the next day, an English captain observes, "we made an island of fire and smoke. The ashes fell on our deck like hail and snow, the fire and smoke, roared like thunder or great guns." Another instance of this kind happened in 1811, near the western extremity of St. Michael, when flames were seen issuing from the sea, accompanied by volumes of smoke and showers of scoria and ashes. The rocks remained just below the surface, with the waves dashing violently over them, and soundings of 80 fathoms, were found almost close to the embryo island.

The Azores are discovered from a great distance at sea, by a high mountain called the Pico, or peak, which has a strong resemblance to the peak of Teneriffe, and rises about 7000 feet above the level of the ocean. The whole appearance is mountainous, but many delightful valleys separate the rounded and conical hills, of which the greater part of their surface is composed. These islands are subject to violent winds, and the fury of the waves is sometimes injurious to the low grounds near the sea. The soil is in general fertile, and in many places consists almost entirely of pulverised lava. Some kinds of grain and valuable woods are produced, but their chief produce is wine and fruits, both of which are exported in large quantities. The wine has some resemblance to Madeira, but is much inferior in quality. The oranges are much esteemed.

Historical
observations.

Referring to the respective islands for a more particular description, we shall conclude this brief sketch with a few historical remarks. All that is known respecting the original discovery of these islands, has already been mentioned. They were at that time destitute both of inhabitants and of all descriptions of animals, except falcons, and some other birds. The first was a circumstance highly favourable to the Portuguese settlers, as in establishing themselves, they had no occasion to employ either treachery or violence; nor had they any necessity to wade to power through scenes of blood and massacre. The

original settlers prized a country which they obtained without difficulty, and fields which nature herself had rendered fertile; and influenced by the peaceful feelings which such circumstances are so well calculated to produce, they lived together in great simplicity and harmony. Satisfied with this primitive mode of life, they cultivated the ground, and bartered the surplus produce with traders from Lisbon, for the few necessities they required from the parent state. But this patriarchal age was not destined to be of long continuance, for Spain formed a plan for the subjugation of these islands. "An armament was fitted out; a descent was made; horror and dismay were seen through the once happy Azores. The king's governors, and the deputies of the deputies, were strangers and soldiers, needy and tyrannical; their duty, conquest; their reward, plunder; their residence, an encampment; their administration, a campaign. As the superior acts and arms of the Spaniards changed the Portuguese into subjects, their jurisdiction was enlarged, but they had no laws to dispense, no civilisation to communicate."

The next event which characterises the history of the Azores, was the increase of their population by the accession of a very different race of Spaniards. When those of Moorish extraction were either oppressed or driven from their country, about the time of the fifth Ferdinand, many of them fled to the Azores, and joined those islanders who were determined to stand up in defence of their laws, and of a better system of government. These, in their turn, became a race of people simple in their manners, and happy in their lives. "They were not, indeed, acquainted with those ornamental accomplishments by which human nature is exalted; but they were intimate with those arts by which society is made happy." In a climate so favourable, and under a policy so prudent, prosperity, wealth and comfort could scarcely fail of being progressive; and we accordingly find the effects sketched by the historian of these isles in the following terms. "An improved state of cultivation and civilisation; loyalty and affection towards the monarch, a ready obedience to the laws; opulence and magnificence among the higher classes, comfort and cheerfulness among the subordinate ranks; splendid religious establishments, filled by an exemplary clergy; seminaries of learning, celebrated even on the continent; charitable institutions worthy of equal celebration; money becoming general in circulation throughout the islands; commerce flourishing to an extent unknown to their former history; capitals advantageously embarked in the construction of harbours, roads, and buildings; these were the best and proudest proofs of the general conduct of the Spaniards, and of the wisdom of that system of policy by which they governed the Azores." This state of prosperity, however, was decreed to undergo a revolution which was fatal to its existence. After Spain had become possessed of her American possessions, the Azores fell again under the government of Portugal, whose measures on this occasion were equally impolitic and cruel. They subverted established institutions, destroyed public works, and plundered and oppressed the whole Spanish community. But the Spaniards of the Azores, particularly those of Moorish extraction, were ill fitted to bear these marks of Portuguese intolerance. They were men of enlarged endowments and of great acquisitions, possessing a mental energy fitted to command, but which rendered

AZORES.

AZORES. them of all others, the most unfit for slaves. They consequently removed to Teorifice, and the Cape de Verd islands, and left the Azores a depopulated, and nearly original state. Thus abandoned to the sway of a haughty aristocracy, and a bigoted people, these islands naturally sunk into a state of degeneracy. Of this state, history presents nothing interesting, nothing worth recording; a whole century was lost in a blank. One luminary, however, at last arose to cast a cheering but momentary ray across this gloom. Pombal was the first Portuguese minister whose wisdom was sufficiently expansive to embrace these islands. "He first taught the Azoreans that they might become a people, and Portugal that she might cease to be a despot. During his mission, the islands were improved by his authority, adorned by his munificence, and extolled by his praise." But a day of gloom has succeeded this auspicious dawn. The liberal administration of Pombal was succeeded by a sulkea and bigoted ministry, composed of the most furious of her churchmen, who were appointed to guide the helm of the state, instead of superintending the morals of the people. A cabinet so formed, soon destroyed the foundations of the rising prosperity which had been laid during the former administration. The islands were shortly inundated with bigoted ecclesiastics; a circumstance which was attended by a train of subordinate evils, amongst which were the destruction of commerce, the extinction of arts and sciences, and the consequent introduction of indigence and barbarity. "All the islands," says the late historian, who had resided in the country, "are under the religious dominion of a sordid and luxurious priesthood, and subject to the evil control of a licentious military power; to a government which condemns the country to a perpetual state of ignorance and sloth, and which confines the whole of its intercourse with the civilised world to the banks of the Tagus, or the port of Lisbon. For the last hundred and fifty years, the penceable islanders have had to withdraw their eyes from the rest of the world, from every general public care, and fix them steadily and perpetually on the court of Portugal." Such is, and such has long been the gloomy and miserable state of political degradation in which the Azoreans are sunk. The spirit of the people has been misled by the arbitrary measures of the government, but they are described by those who have been resident among them, as an honest race, who prefer peace to conquest, and who seek distinction in industry rather than in arms; as "an innocent people, who are as eminent in the humble vule of domestic life, as the hero in the stormy regions of blood and warfare." Their whole happiness, however, consists in the idea of home, for country they have none. They constitute a number composed of units, without any common principle of union; a people with individual motives, but without any common bond of action; a community not insensible to the ties of kindred, but uncemented by national feeling; a political blank in themselves, and comparatively useless to the parent state.

Such may be considered the present condition of the Azoreans, in relation to their political existence; but if placed beneath the banner of national freedom, and fostered by the liberality of a generous protection, they are capable of exhibiting a very different picture. The colossal empire of Britain already extends into every region of the globe; and with no European

power could the Azores be associated with so much benefit as with this. First to bestow freedom and the dignity of self-government upon the Azores, and then to secure them by a disinterested and honourable protection, would obviously be productive of advantages to both countries, upon which the nature of this work forbids us to speculate. Such as are desirous of more information respecting these Atlantic isles, may consult the *History of the Azores*, London, 1813; and the respective islands in this work.

AZOTE, a name given by the French chemists to a species of air which is "destructive of animal life," from a *privative* and *zōē*, I live. The same property by which it is not fitted for respiration, renders it incapable of supporting combustion. It forms about four-fifths of our atmosphere, but is there mixed, or possibly combined, with the remaining fifth of another air, having properties directly the reverse of its own; and thus a compound suited to our existence is produced.

AZRAEL or **ASRAEL**, in the Mohammedan religion, the angel of death who is employed to separate the soul from the body. The Persians call him Mordrid. A Mohammedan tradition relates that God sent the angels Gabriel, Michael and Israfil one after another, to fetch for the erection of man seven handfuls of earth, from different depths, and of different colours; whence some account for the variety of complexions among mankind. The earth being apprehensive of the consequences, and desiring them to relate her fears to God, that the creature he designed to form would rebel against him, and draw down his curse upon herself, they returned without performing God's command; whereupon he sent Azrael on the same errand, who executed his commission without remorse; for which reason God appointed that angel to separate the souls from the bodies, whence he is called the angel of death. (D'Herbelot, *Bib. Or.* 55.)

Al Beidwī relates the following story concerning Azrael. He one day passed by Solomon in a visible shape, and looking earnestly at a man who was sitting with him, the man asked Solomon who he was, and when Solomon answered, the angel of death, he said, he seems to want me; therefore order the wind to carry me hence into India. This was done accordingly; and the angel then said to Solomon, "I looked so earnestly at the man out of wonder, because I was commanded to take his soul in India, and found him with thee in Palestine."

A'ZURE, } *Azure* is applied by Chancer to some
A'ZUREO, } precious stone. Fr. *azur*; Ital. *azzurro*;
AZURIN. } Sp. *azul*, from the Arabic *lazul*, or *lazurd*.
Color cilestro, *color Turchino*, sky coloured, blue. The Arabic *lazul* is applied to an earth or stone of a blue colour (*ceruleum*). Mennage. *Ceruleum* or *azure*, and its use to the painter are minutely described by Pliny, *Nat. Hist.* book xxxiii. c. 13.

But well I wot, a broche of gold and *azure*
In which a rubie set was like an herie
Crescende him yow, and stacke it on his sherte.
Chaucer. Trevisa and Crescende, book iii. fol. 174. c. l.

What woldst thou demen if a man woldte yow three quarters
of nobles of gold, that were a precious gift? ye certes (q.d. I)
And what (q.d. she) of an mokei *azur*? (q.d. I) a precious gift at full.
Jd. Test of Love, fol. 316. c. ii.

And he had also in that girdle, many faire welles; and beside
the welles, he had lute make faire halles and faire chambers,
depaynted alle with gold and *azur*.

Sir John Mandeville, p. 336.

AZORES.
AZURE.
Relative
importance

And on his shield enveloped scornfold
He bore a crowned little erminin,
That deckt the azure field with her faire powdered skin.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book iii. c. ii. s. 25.

By whose ayde
(Weake masters though ye be) I haue bodym'd
The none-tide son, call'd forth the mutinous winde,
And 'twixt the green sea, and the aue's vault
Set roaring warre. *Shakespeare. Tempest, fol. 16.*

His eyes
He walkt with to support meane steps
Ouer the burning marle, not like those steps
On heauens azure. *Milton. Paradise Lost, book i.*

By the rusky fringed bank,
Where grows the willow and the osier dank,
My aliding chariot stays,
Thick set with agat, and the azure sheen
Of turkis blue, and emerald green,
That in the chancel strays. *Id. Comus.*

Thus, while with heavenly charity she spoke,
A streaming blaze the silent shadow broke;
Shot from the skyes a cheerful azure light.
Dryden. Hind and Panther.

Direct his eye and contemplation through those azure fields and
vast regions above him, up to the first stars, that radiant number-
less host of heaven; and make him understand, how unlikely a
thing it is, that they should be placed there only to adorn and
bespangle a canopy over our heads.

Williamson. Religion of Nature.

And now the aged year
In its remnant of beauty hath resign'd;
Transparent azure of autumnal skies
Is chang'd to mist, the air serene to storme.
Greener. Athenian, book 24.

When slowly floating down the azure skies
A crimson cloud flash'd on his startled sight;

Whose skirts gay-sparkling with meadow'd dais.
Launched the long billowy trails of flickery light.

Hestie. Poems.

Azure, in *Heraldry*, one of the tinctures of the shield. It is represented in engraving by horizontal lines from side to side, and is supposed to represent the sapphire among precious stones, Jupiter among the planets, tin among the metals, Taurus and Libra among the zodiacal signs, April and September among the months, Thursday among the days of the week, air among the elements, summer among the seasons, childhood among the ages, sanguine among the temperaments, justice, humility and loyalty among the virtues, and 4 and 9 among numbers.

Azure, in *Mineralogy*, a blue substance, which occurs principally in *Syria*. Its crystalline form, as well as many of its other characters, distinguish it from *lazulite*, or as it is more commonly termed, *lapis lazuli*, of which at its first discovery, it was regarded as a variety. See *MINERALOGY*.

AZYME, Gr. *ἄζυμος*, without ferment, composed of a *priestess* and *ζύμη*, ferment. Menage. See *Azymus* in *Vossius*.

This word appears to have been used by the translators of the Bibles published at Douay and Rheims.

They had, (they said,) (i. e. the translators of K. James's bible), on the one side avoided the scrupulosity of the puritans, who left the old ecclesiastical words and betook them to other, as when they put washing for baptism, and congregation for church; and on the other hand, had shunned the obscurity of the papists in their *aymes*, *trunks*, *rational*, *holocausts*, *prepace*, *pasche*, and a number of such like, whereof their late translation was full, and of that purpose to darken the sense, that since they must needs translate the bible, yet by the language thereof it might be kept from being understood.

Preface to King James's Bible.

B.

B, is denominated by Wilkins, a semispiritous or half-breathed consonant, a name which he applies to such as are accompanied with some kind of vocal murmur. *B* and *P* are framed when the breath is intercepted by the closure of the lips; the first of them being more soft, with some kind of murmur, the other more hard and wholly mute.

B is the second letter in most alphabets. In the ancient Irish and in the Abyssinian, it is the first. The Germans interchange it with *P*, the Gascons with *V*, whence the sarcastic remark, that in Gascony *vivers* and *vibers* are the same thing.

B, in ancient inscriptions, is used as an abbreviation for the following words: *Baccho*, *Beleno*, *Bennarenti*, *Barna* (*Verna*) *Beneficario*, *Bonus*, (*Vivus*), *Bisit* (*Visit*). *B. B.* is often *bene bene* (*optime*.)

B, as a numeral, represents 300. *B̄*. 3000.

B, in the Chemical Alphabet, denotes Mercury.

B, in *Music*, is the note on the second line in the bass, and on the third in the treble.

BAAL, or *Bet*, a word of Hebrew origin, denoting *ruer*, was the name by which several of the eastern nations worshipped the solar fire, which they supposed to be the governing principle of the universe. At

first, indeed, this appellation seems to have been given to *Jehovah*. But as idolatry began to prevail, and the supremacy of the true God to be forgotten, his attributes were ascribed to those objects in nature whose appearance was most splendid and overpowering, or whose influence was most sensibly felt. The sun, accordingly, became an object of general adoration, and was supposed to hold the highest rank among those divinities with which the wild imaginations of eastern idolaters had peopled the heavens. A bull was the emblem of this divinity; and as this idol was represented in different places with various insignia, hence arose the denominations, *Baal-berith*, *Baal-gad*, *Baal-moloch*; and these diversified *Baals*, says Parkhurst, seem to be what the Scriptures call in the plural *Baalim*. There can be no doubt, however, that the appellation *Baal* was not always restricted to the sun, but was frequently given to those distinguished personages, who, in different nations, were exalted for their achievements to the rank of deities. Among the Phœnicians, in particular, there were several divinities besides the sun honoured with this name. *BAAL*, *BEL*, or *BELZE*, was the principal god of the Carthaginians, Sidonians, Babylonians, and Assyrians;

BAAL-
ZEPHON.

and as he was supposed to delight in human sacrifices, he was probably the same as the Moloch of the Ammonites, the *Ephraim* of the Greeks, and the Saturn of the Latins.

High places were always chosen for the temples and altars of Baal, in which was preserved a perpetual fire. His priests and prophets were extremely numerous; and the manner in which they conducted the worship of their god, was at once frantic and ferocious. While the victims smoked on the altar, they danced around it with the most violent gesticulations, cut their bodies with knives and lancets, and raved and prophesied as if immediately under the inspiration of Baal.

Bishop Newtoe observes in a note on *Paradise Lost*, book i. l. 419, "Baalam and Ashtaroth were the general name of the gods and goddesses of Syria, Palestine, and the neighbouring countries. It is supposed that by them is meant the sun and the host of heaven." 1 *Kings* xviii. 2 *Kings* x. and ch. xxiii. 5.

BAALBEC, see BALAZ.

BAAL-GAD, a city of Palestine, situated at the foot of Mount Hermon, so called from the idol Baal-gad, or the god of chance, who was worshipped in this place. *Josh.* xi. 17.

BAAL-PEOR, an idol deity of the Moabites and Midianites, supposed by some to have been *Priapus*, whose worship was conducted with great impurity; by others to have been *Adonis*; and by others to have been *Saturn*, adored under this appellation in Arabia. Mede, supposing Peor to have been the name of a mountain in the land of Moab, on which a temple was erected to Baal, concludes that Baal-peor was only another name of Baal derived from the situation of his temple; and the learned Selden suggests, that Baal-peor is *Pluto*, founding his conjectures on *Psa.* cvi. 28. "They joined themselves unto Baal-peor, and ate the offerings of the dead." The sacrifices here alluded to, he thinks, were offered to appease the manes of the dead. But it may mean no more than the sacrifices and offerings made to idols or false gods, who are properly called "the dead," in contradistinction to the true God, called in scripture "The living God." *Numb.* xxv. 3.

BAAL-ZEPHON, a place, thought by some to have been a city, opposite to Pihahiroth, where the Israelites encamped before they passed the Red Sea. It was distinguished either by its northern situation (the Hebrew word *zephon*, signifying north) in *Erod.* xxvi. 20, *Josh.* viii. 11, or by some tower or idolatrous temple that was erected upon it. Dr. Shaw supposes this place to have been at the eastern extremity of the mountains of Suez or Attackah, the most conspicuous of those deserts, inasmuch as it overlooks a great part of the lower Thebais, as well as the wilderness that extends towards the country of the Philistines. Bruce, in his *Travels into Abyssinia*, says, "Baal-zephon was probably some idol's temple, which served for a signal-house upon the cape which forms the north entrance of the bay, opposite to Attackah, where there is still a mosque or saint's tomb. It was probably a light-house, for the direction of ships going to the bottom of the gulph, to prevent mistaking it for another foul bay, under the high land." It is said in the *Jerusalem Targum*, that when Pharaoh was pursuing the Israelites in their departure out of Egypt, he offered sacrifice to the idol of Baal-zephon at this temple,

waiting till the next day for his attack upon Israel, whom he believed his god had delivered into his hands; but in the mean time they passed the Red Sea and escaped.

BAAL-ZEBUB, see BEELZEBUB.

BARA, a district of South America, in the province of Guayaquil, and kingdom of Quito. Its capital is of the same name, as is also its principal river. This district is 22 leagues in extent, it abounds in cacao, and its population amounts to 4000 souls.

BABAHYOYO, a district of South America, in the province of Guayaquil, and kingdom of Quito. Its capital, of the same name, lies in lat. 1° 47' S. The custom-house and royal arsenal are in it, and it is a great mart for trade. A river of the same name waters this district, which is extremely level, and is inundated in winter. Its fertility is great, and it abounds in cattle. Rice, cotton, sugar, tobacco, cocoa, and fruits, are its principal exports.

BABA-TAGIL, a large town in the sanjak, or district, of Silistria, situated between two mountains, in a swampy spot. It has a college, five mosques, and 10,000 inhabitants. It has generally been the head quarters of the Grand Vizier's army in the wars between Turkey and Russia. It was built by Bayazid I. who peopled it by a Tatarian colony, and it derives its name (Saint's Hill) from the tomb of Sari Saltik Bey, a celebrated Tatarian saint, buried on one of the neighbouring mountains. The strait was called *Dék*, "the oock," by the Greeks. Ptolemy places it in lat. 11°.

BA'BLE, v. } Dutch, *bakelen*; Swed. *bjæbla*; Fr.
BA'BLE, n. } *bakiller*; Gr. *βασίλιν*, from the He-
BA'BLEMENT, } brew *label*, where, says Junius, the
BA'BLE, } first confusion of speech arose. *Bor-*
BA'BLINO. } *baros omnes, propter intussum atque*
inconcinnum asperi sermonis duritiam Attici olim Baby-
lionic dixerunt, Henschini. v. βαβυλῶνιον.

To bubble, is to talk confusedly, inarticulately, to prate idly, unreasonably, inconsiderately.

For this blessing is given to all them that trust in Christ's blood, that they thirst and hunger to do God's will. He that belittles not this faith, is but an vaporous dealer of faith, and worketh, and wotteth neither what he belittles, nor what he meaneth, or whereto his words pertain. *Tyndall's Works*, fol. 66.

Sith frere Barnes I say telleth vs in effeete theys tale contrarye to some other partes of his owne tale, I wel may and will cutte of all his *bible balles* that he maketh in telling vs that the general comyns maye ere, because it maye be (he sayeth) that they have not the spirite of God with them.

Sir Thos. More's Works, fol. 754.

For he told me werryly, y^e langleis he reckoned but *babbles* muske to serve for singers. *A. fol. 111. v. li.*

As for your interpretative and acedasticall doctories, I neuer regard them nor yet theyr expocitions, when they thus varye from the truths of the scriptures, but accompt them bothe blasphemous *babblers* and lyars. *Bale's Apology.*

And for this cause lette your women in tolemt assemblies holde theyr peace, lest y^e, (as that kynde is to muche given to babblyng) there aryse an uncomely confusion. *Edoll. Cor. c. xv.*

She had a proper wyte, and could both reade and wyte, merry in company, redy and quick of answer, myther mize nor full of bold, somtyme taunting without displeasure, but not without dispute. *Hall. King Edward 7.*

On. Why, what would you?

Vio. Make me a willow cabin at your gate,
And call upon my soul within the house,
Write loyal cantons of contemned love,

BAAL-
ZEPHON.
BABBLE.

BABBLE

—BABE—

And sing them loud even in the dead of night:

Hallow your name to the desert-voice hills,

And make the falling gongs of the air,

Cry out, O'ho!

Shakespeare. Twelfth Night, fol. 259.

They having but newly left those grammatical flets and shallows where they stuck unreasonably to learn a few words with lamentable construction, and now on the sudden transported under another climate to be torn'd and term'd with unbelieved wits in fathomless and unquiet depths of controversy, do for the most part grow into hatred and contempt of learning, much'd and deluded all this while with rugged notions and *babblements*, while they expect worthy and delightful knowledge.

Milton. On Education.

Be not *babblers*, or full of words, that is *babble*, whereby the same thing is signified; yet are not long prayers hence condemned, but those that are vague, fond, and superfluous.

Walsgill's Defence, fol. 694.

When St. Paul was speaking of Christ, and his resurrection, the great Athenian philosophers looked upon all he said to be mere *babbling*.

Beveridge. serm. 89.

The dazzling pomp of words does oft deceive,

And sweet persuasion wins the easy to believe,

When fools and liars labour to persuade,

Be dumb, and let the *babblers* vainly plead.

Rose. Golden Verses of Pythagoras.

Though pointless satire make its weak escape,

In the dull *babble* of a mimic ape,

Boldly pursue where genius points the way,

Nor heed what uselessly gay critics say.

Lloyd. Epistle to Churchill.

'Tis not the *babbling* of a busy world,

Where praise and censure are at random hurl'd,

Which can the *meanness* of my thoughts control,

Or shake one actious purpose of my soul.

Churchill. The Conference.

BABCARY, in the county of Somerset, a rectory valued in the King's books at £13. 10s. 5d. Church dedicated to the Holy Cross. Population, in 1821, 422. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 2s. 11d. £236. 1s. 6d. 4½ miles E. from Somerset.

BABE, A word, says Skinner, according to Menage, of Syriac origin. Skinner himself would derive it from the Italian, *babbo* a *babbo*; but as it is purely of infantile, and the infants of one country do not borrow from those of another, it needs no foreign etymology. It consists of the repetition of *ba*, (see *ba ba*), the earliest, because easiest consonant uttered by children; and framed merely by the interception of the breath from the closure of the lips. Akin, to it is the Gr. *βᾶβας*, papa; Heb. *ab*; Syr. *abba*. Udall uses the verb, to *babble*; and Young, the verb, to *babble*.

To deceive or delude, as *babies*; to treat as *babies*, who are easily deceived, or cheated; deluded, or played upon.

You, whom I beheld now to be strong and established in magnificent Philosophy, have now as yet like tender *babies* to be fed with the milk of lowest doctrine: rather than be meete to receive the strong meats of higher learning.

Udall. Hebrew, c. v.

God therefore of necessity, not willing to lose that people of *ba*, but favouring to leave with their *babish* weakness, gave fourth certain rules and precepts by his servant Moses.

Bal's Apology.

When the duke had done, the temporal meane wholly, and the more parts of the spirituall men also, thanksgave no hearts earthly most toward the young *ba*, *babble* in effects, that if he were not delivered he should be *babble* out.

Mel. King Edward F.

And thus hitherto that same cure heavenly sovereign lord and prince, who had for ours sakes advanced and humbled himself downe even to *babbling* clothes, to the cradle, to crying in his swathing bandes on other children doe, and to the strengthless *babble* of the body, was preached and declared to the world by the single testimony of other folks talking.

Udall. Luke, c. ii.

Nevertheless we do not thus *babble* womanly, as though we would exclude them from the fellowship of salvation.

Id. Timothy, c. iii.

The Pharisee had *babbed* the simple people, with false and cold religion, and had tangled their consciences with uncessant ordinances.

Id. John, c. vii.

So I have seen trim-books in velvet dight,

With golden leavens, and painted *babbling*,

Of silly boys please unacquainted sight:

But when the road began to play his part,

Fain would, but could not, fly from golden smart.

Sidney. Arcadia, book i.

If a young gentleman be demure and still of nature, they say he is simple and lacketh witte; if he be bashful and will some blunche they call him a *babble* and ill brought up thing; when Xenophon doth precisely note in Cyrus, that "his bashfulness in youth, was the verie true signe of his vertue and stoutness after."

Anthon. The First Book for the Youth.

How many a brave peer, thy too near allies,

(Whose loss the *ba* that's yet unborn shall rue)

Have made themselves a willing sacrifice

In our just quarrel, who it rightly knew.

Dryden. The Marries of Q. Margaret.

— This reckless innocent

The burning glee with his soft tongue doth lick.

Which though in Phœnix he desire it wrought,

His foolish imbecility to see,

To the child's speech impediment it brought,

From which he never after could be freed.

Id. Mares his lord, &c. book i.

PERK. Speaking of me?

ROS.

Of you: "Aye," quoth the marquess,

"Were not the duke a *ba*, he would arch

Swift vengeance for he knew it long ago."

Ford. Love's Sacrifice, vol. i.

Lift up thy brow (renowned Salisbury)

And with a great heart brace away this storm;

Command those waters to those *ba* eyes

That never saw the giant-world carag'd;

Nor met with Fortune, other then at founts,

Full wars of blood, of mirth, of gossiping.

Shakespeare. A. John, fol. 19.

Another taught her *ba*les to talk.

Ere they could yet to go-carts walk;

There *Alma* settled in the tongue,

And orators from Athens sprung.

Prior. Alma, c. ii.

His sleep ambition lies in curious fancies,

His daughter's portion a rich shell enhances,

And Asinole's *ba*-house is, in his view

Britannia's golden mine, a rich Fera.

Young. Sat. 4.

Much learning shows how little mortals know,

Much wealth, how little worldlings can enjoy;

At least, it *ba*les as with endless toys,

And keeps us children till we drop to dust.

Young. The Complaint, Night, 6.

— Nations would do well

To erect their truncheons from the puny hands

Of *ba*les, whose infirm and *ba*ly minds

Are grinded with mischief.

Comper. The Task, book v.

BAB-EL-MANDEB, (the Gate of Affliction), a promontory and strait at the southern extremity of the Red Sea. "This mountain," says Idriat, (Geograph. Nubien. p. 28-5 and MSS.) is surrounded by the sea

BABE.

—

BAB-EL-

MANDEB.

BAB-EL-
MANDEH.
BABOON.

on all sides. Its southern extremity is the highest, and it stretches in a northerly direction with a little deviation to the west. Its length is about 12 miles. Behold it, on the Abyssinian side, there are innumerable rocks and shoals as far as Záligh, Akent and Bakel, so that it is impossible to navigate that sea. In the midst of those shoals and islands, there is a conspicuous rock called Múrkúh, which reaches nearly from Záligh to the back of El Mandeh; it is of no great height; being only occasionally raised above the surface of the water. "On the Arabian side," he adds, "the passage is so narrow, that a man standing on one shore, would recognise a person whom he saw standing on the other." It appears from this, that the island was considered by the Arabians as the mountain of Mandeh, and the passage between it and the coast of Yemen as the gate. This island is now called Perim or Mehda. It divides the strait into two parts, of which the eastern though narrowest, is most frequented, as it has deep water and is free from shoals. "It is at most three geographical miles in width," says Bruce, "and has 20 or 30 fathom water." Lord Valentia and Niebuhr make the breadth of the strait between Perim and the Asiatic shore the same as Bruce; between it and the coast, there are from 15 to 20 English miles. His Lordship observes, that "Perim should be kept close on the harbour side, in order to avoid a deep bay the eastward of the cape, which has been sometimes mistaken for the strait." The wider or western channel is much obstructed by rocks and small islands. The Arabian cape is in lat. 12° 40' N. long. 43° 33' E. (Niebuhr's *Reisebeschreibung*, l. 448. Bruce's *Travels*, i. 361. Lord Valentia's *Travels*, ii. 13. Vincent's *Periplex*, l. 111. Hartmann's *Edrei*, 94.).

BABINGLEY, or BABINGLEY, in the county of Norfolk, a discharged rectory valued in the King's books, at £1. 13s. 4d. Church dedicated to St. Felix. Population in 1821, 63. Poor's rates in 1803 at 2s. 2½d. £20. 18s. 6d. Two miles N. E. from Castle Rising. Babingley is remarkable as being the village in which the first Christian church in East Anglia was erected. It was dedicated like the present church to St. Felix the Burgundian, who converted the East Angles. Some hills in the vicinity are called *Christian hills* from this event.

BABINGTON, in the county of Somerset, a discharged rectory valued in the King's books at £10. Church dedicated to St. Margaret. Population in 1821, 156. Poor's rates in 1803, at 3s. 3d. £119. 6s. 4d. Five miles N. W. from Frome.

BABOON, Fr. *babouin*; It. *babuino*. B. *Babouin*. From *Babe*, according to Skianer and Menage; because, says the former, it very greatly resembles the human race.

AWO. I am neither your minotaur, nor your centaur, nor your satyr, nor your hyena, nor your baboon, but your mere traveller, believe me. *Ben Jonson. Cynthia's Revels.*

Of all the rest that most resembles man,

Was an s'crown'd ill-favoured baboon:

Which of all others (for that only he

Was full of tricks, as they are us'd to be)

Him in her craft so seriously she taught,

As that in little time she had him brought,

That nothing could afford this life he set,

That presently he could not counterfeit.

Dryden. The Mock-calf.

All rules of pleasing in this case unite,

And affect not any thing in Nature's spite."

Baboons and apes ridiculous we find;
For what? For ill-resembling human kind.
Congress. Of Pleading.

Should a monkey wear a crown,
Must I tremble at his frown?
Could I not, through all his ermine,
Spy the strutting, chattering vermine?
Safely write a scurrilous lampoon,
To expose the brusk baboon?

Swift. To a Lady.

BABOON.
—
BABY-
LON.

BABOON, in Zoology. See SIMIA.
BABRAHAM, formerly BABURHAM in the county of Cambridge, a discharged vicarage valued in the King's books, at £6. 5s. 6d. Church dedicated to St. Peter. Population in 1821, 238. Poor's rates in 1803, at 3s. 9d. £257. 1s. 2½d. Four miles N. W. of Linton. The manor of Babraham was formerly in possession of Sir Horatio Pallavicini, collector of the Pope's taxes in the reign of Queen Mary, who on Elizabeth's accession, detained the money which he had gathered, and settled in England. Lord Orford in his *Anecdotes of Painting* cites the following epith on Pallavicini, from a manuscript of Sir John Crew.

Here lies Horatio Palmaraze,
Who robbed the Pope to lend the Queen.
He was a thief—a thief; thou best:
For what? he robbed but Austria.
Hym Death with beam swept from Bab'ram
Into the bosom of old Abraham;
But then came Hercules with his club
And struck him down to Babelub.

Notwithstanding these bitter lines, Sir Horatio has some higher claims to remembrance. He was one of the commanders against the Spanish Armada, and his portrait is preserved in the tapestry of the House of Lords. The register of Babraham parish, records the marriage of his widow with Sir Oliver Cromwell, the Protector's uncle, exactly a year and a day after her first husband's decease.

BABUL-ALWAR, see DESERTS.

BA'DU'L-AWADI, (Gates of the Deserts) or Mahrab, a province on the south coast of Arabia, thus named, from its being the southern entrance to the great central deserts. See MARRAB.

BABUYANES, a group of islands on the north coast of Luzon. See PHILIPPINES.

BABYLON, in Hebrew *Babyl*; a very ancient city for a long time the metropolis of the Chaldean empire. It was on or near the site of this city, that the descendants of Noah 101 years after the flood, according to the Hebrew text, or 531 according to the Septuagint, began to build a city and a tower, the size and height of which were to surpass any thing human, and to enable them to reach the skies: but God, to punish their temerity, caused them suddenly to speak different languages, so that they could no longer combine together to carry on this stupendous work. (Gen. xi. 1-9.) Moses begins his narrative of this miraculous event, by observing that, till that time, all mankind spoke one language; and such could hardly fail to have been the case, if as is most probable, the present Hebrew text is correct; for the family of Noah was the only one upon the earth after the waters of the flood had subsided, and it was hardly possible that any material change in the language of one family, could take place in the short interval of a single century: nor was it improbable, even on the calculation of the Septuagint, that all the different branches of Noah's family should speak a language mutually

BABY-
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intelligible. That Shinar, or Sennar, was the plain on which Babylon afterwards stood, appears from various passages in the Scriptures, as well as from Josephus. (See SEMIRAM.) That historian ascribes the building of the tower to Nimrod, who however was, if then born, too young to have had any part in the design of it; (see Bochart's *Phaleg*, i. 10.) and the traditions still current in Asia have, as we shall see presently, affixed the name of that prince to some of the remains of Babylon. Abydenus (as quoted by Eusebius, *Prepar. Evangel.* ix. 14.) tells us that the first men, contemplating the power and authority of the gods, and relying on their own extraordinary strength, built a lofty tower, which nearly reached the sky, in the place where Babel then stood. But the winds, coming to the assistance of the gods, overturned the whole mass upon the heads of its builders, and from its ruins Babylon was afterwards built. The gods also, at the same time, caused mankind, who had before all spoken the same language, to speak henceforward in different tongues. A tradition of a similar tendency is also mentioned by Plato, who says that, in the golden age one common language was spoken both by men and beasts, but that Jupiter confounded their tongues as a punishment for their insolence in eluding immortality and eternal youth, (Plato, *Polit.* p. 272. ed. Steph.) These traditions shew that traces of the Mosaic account were scattered far and wide among the nations of Asia. The immediate consequence of this confusion of tongues was the separation and dispersion of the different branches of the great patriarchal family; and the buildings which they had begun were discontinued: "they left off to build the city," says Moses; (xi. 8.) but it must have been continued subsequently, for he adds, (v. 9.) that the name of it was called Babel, (for *Babél*, confusion) in consequence of this confusion of the tongues of its builders. It is also mentioned as the chief city in the kingdom of Nimrod, the son of Cush; but it is never again spoken of till the time of the captivity of the Israelites under Hoshea, 730 years before the birth of Christ. So that, for an interval of 1515 years, we have no account of this city in the Scriptures. But the Greeks supply what the Jewish writers had no occasion to give—a history of the Assyrian and Babylonian empires, and of their great metropolis. (See SEMIRAMIS, NINEVEH, &c.) As the descriptions of the city itself, and the tower of Belus, supposed by the learned Bochart to have been the same as that mentioned by Moses, have been already given in the passages referred to, it is unnecessary to repeat them here. We therefore pass on to the period at which these splendid monuments of the power and magnificence of the Babylonian sovereigns were finally destroyed.

An insurrection under Darius Hystaspes (B.C. 500) provoked that prince to throw down the walls and gates which had been left by Cyrus. The temple of Belus was plundered and ruined by Xerxes; and Alexander was prevented by his early death from fulfilling his intention of restoring it. Strabo says (xvi. 1.) that 10,000 men were employed for two months in removing its materials. The foundation of Seleucia in its immediate neighbourhood, by Seleucus, one of the successors of Alexander, drew away all the remaining inhabitants of Babylon; and in the time of Strabo and Diodorus Siculus, the greater part of the space

within the walls was completely desolate. St. Jerome, in the fourth century, was informed by a Persian monk, that the site of Babylon had been converted into a chase, or park, for the use of the Persian kings; and that the walls were from time to time repaired, in order to prevent the game from escaping. Thus was the prophecy of Isaiah (xlii. 9.) literally fulfilled! Various travellers, from Benjamin of Tudela in the twelfth to Niebuhr in the eighteenth century, have given a description of the mounds of earth and fragments of massive walls which just serve to shew the site on which this mighty capital once stood: but the most complete and satisfactory account is that of the late Mr. Rich, resident, on the part of the East India Company, at the court of the Pishah of Baghdad. His peculiar advantages, in consequence of the post which he occupied, and his extraordinary knowledge of the language and literature of the east, rendered him more fit for such an inquiry than any of his predecessors; and little addition to his communications can be made, till some fortunate concurrence of circumstances enables some antiquary to make excavations among the ruins. "He expected," he says, "to have found more and less on the site of Babylon than he actually did:" more, because he supposed he should have been able to have identified some of the ancient buildings, which was quite impossible; "less, because he could form no conception of the prodigious extent of the whole mass of ruins, their size, solidity, and the perfect state of some of their parts." (*Memoir on the Ruins of Babylon*; *Mines d'Orient*, tom. iii. p. 129.) The traces of the city begin to be perceptible near Mohseril, a khán, or inn, nine English miles from Hillah, and thirty-eight to the south of Baghdad. The whole of the space between the two former, exhibits here and there masses of bricks and bitumen, and three mounds particularly attract attention by their magnitude. Hillah itself is placed by Niebuhr in lat. 35° 38' N. on the east side of the Euphrates. On that side also are all the remains of any antiquity, except two small elevations, and one very considerable ruin. A kind of circular mound, or enclosure, which commences about two miles above Hillah, has the appearance of having been the boundary-wall. It includes an area of about two miles and a half one way, and one mile and one-third the other. On the east side, two straight dykes, or walls of earth, run from north to south, parallel with the course of the Euphrates, forming, together with it and the ends of the enclosure mentioned above, an oblong area, containing three principal mounds of rubbish, which rise above 100 feet above the ordinary level of the river. The most northern of these is the largest mass of ruins, it is called by the Arabs Makallehah, (i.e. subverted) pronounced *Muallabá* by the natives of this place; and is the tower of Belus according to Rennell and Pietro della Valle (*Geogr. of Herod.* 355; *Viaggi*, i. 399.) Its form is oblong; the sides face the cardinal points; the northern side is 900 yards, the southern 919, the eastern 192, and the western 156. The elevation of the highest angle is 141 feet. It is believed by the Arabs to be haunted by demons and satyrs; and is the abode of owls, porcupines, and wild beasts. The western face is that which presents the greatest appearance of masonry. Near the top of it there is a low wall, consisting of alternate layers of unburnt bricks and reeds, cemented with clay-mortar

BABY-
LON.

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NALIA

of great thickness. On the south-east angle there is something like a turret. On digging into the earth accumulated upon the summit, there were found layers of burnt brick cemented with mortar, and occasionally whole bricks, with inscriptions on them. (See CHINESE CHARACTERS.) The great ruin, in point of size, called by the Arabs El Kair, (the Castle) is one mile to the south of the Mujelibeh. It consists of several walls and piers, also facing the cardinal points, eight feet thick, ornamented with buttresses, pilasters, and niches, of fine burnt brick, laid in lime-mortar of extraordinary tenacity. There are subterranean pits and passages beneath this building, which are still unexplored. Near this ruin is an atleeh, (*tamarix articulata*) which the natives believe to have been coeval with the city. Of the walls of Babylon, Mr. Rich could find no traces; but perhaps the curved dyke, which takes in an large a circuit, may be a part of them. The most curious ruin, however, which Mr. Rich coincides with Niebuhr (*Reise* ii. 289.) in considering as the celebrated tower of Belus, is on the west side of the river, about six miles S.W. of Hillah. It is called by the Arabs Birs Nemrud, the tower of Nimrod, (for *birs*, which embarrassed Mr. Rich, is plainly the Persian word *horz*, as Gesenius has justly expressed it,) and the prison of Nebuchadnezzar by the Jews. It forms a mound entirely consisting of fine burnt bricks, with inscriptions on them; and is of an oblong form, 702 yards in circumference. The height of the east side is 50 or 60 feet; but on the west it rises to 196 feet, in a conical form, being 28 feet in breadth at the base. Its position, on the western side of the river, seems not to agree with the place assigned by Herodotus to the tower of Belus; but it is not clear from his account in what part of the town that building was placed. No works of art which deserve to be called beautiful have been found in these ruins; but bricks and gems, with inscriptions, and sculptures, similar to those brought from Persepolis, shew the early connection between the Babylonian and Persian empires. The inscriptions are generally placed on the lower side of the bricks; and were therefore buried in a substratum of mortar, and not designed to be observed or read. It has been thence inferred that they are magical formulas, or charms, to protect the building from the attack of evil spirits. (See Rich's *Memoir on the Ruins of Babylon*, 1818; Maurice's *Observations on ditto*, 1816; Gesenius, in Ersch's *Encyclop.*)

BABYLONIA, the territory of Babylon. See CHALDEA.

BABIANA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Triandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character. Spathe of two valves; the interior valve bipartite. Corolla tubulose; limbus sessipartite; stigma three, spreading; seeds baccate. Ker. in *Annals of Botany*, i. p. 253.

An African genus of the natural order *Liliaceae*. Several species are figured in the *Botanical Magazine*. Former authors described them under the genera *Gladiolus* and *Antholyza*. Ten species are admitted into the *Hortus Kewensis*.

BABIROSA, **BARIBOSA**, **BARIROSESA**, **BARYROUSEA**, in *Zoology*, a species of the genus *Sus*, which see.

BACBAKIRI, in *Zoology*, the name given by the inhabitants of the Cape of Good Hope to a species of *Larus*, in whose cry the syllables *bae-ke-ki-ri* may be distinguished. See *LARUS*.

BACCHANAL, } A follower of Bacchus. One **BACCHA**
BACCHANALIAN, } devoted to the pleasures of wine. **NAL**.

Unto whom (Bacchus) was yearly celebrated the feast **BACCHA**
called the ninth day of the month Antestercion, lyke as the **NALIA**
Iovians, who he deified of y^e Athenians, do yet at this present
hide it for troth. *Neville. Theocritus*, fol. 50. c. li.

In honour of whom (Bacchus) the old bacchanian feasts are
celebrated on the twelfth day of the month Antestercion; which
custom is still retained to this day by the Ionians of Attic descent.
Smith. Theocritides.

Some called him Bacchus, because of the great number of
shameless drunken bacchanian women, which followed him
with clamors and outcries, whom he taught to gather fruits, and
to press them, wherof they made drinke, and were daily drunk.
Steen. Chronicle, 18.

In halls
Carthusian fasts and fulsome bacchanals
Equally I hate. *Mons's* *biu's*. In rich men's houses
I bid kill some beasts, but no hecatombs.
Dante. Satire ii.

Well, I could wish, that still in lordly domes
Some beasts were killed, though not whole hecatombs;
That both extremes were banish'd from their walls,
Carthusian fasts, and fulsome bacchanals.
Pope. Imitation of Dante.

Hark! from you hall as headlong waste purveys,
What bacchanian revels loud recount,
With festive fires the midnight windows blaze,
And fever'd tumult reels his giddy round.
Mickle. Eleg. Parn.

Surely those who are acquainted with the hopes and fears of
eternity, might think it necessary to put some restraint upon their
imagination; and reflect that by evoking the souls of the ancient
bacchanals, and transmitting the maxims of past debauchery, they
not only prove that they want instruction, but virtue.
Johnson. Rambler, No. 22.

BACCHANALIA, festivals in honour of Bacchus at Rome, similar to the Dionysia of the Greeks. Of the enormities practised under the veil of these festivals, and which finally led to their suppression, Livy has left as a particular account (xxxix. 8. &c.) The Bacchanalia were first introduced from Greece to Etruria, and thence by an easy transfer they found their way to Rome. Debaucheries the most execrable formed the interior mysteries and esoteric doctrines to which the initiated were only admitted by degrees; and the most ungovernable fury of the foulest passions of human nature was gratified, lavishly, by those who had been permitted to enter the inmost sanctuary of the priests of the ivy-crowned god. The jealousy of a courtesan, whose lover had been persuaded to enrol himself in this detestable band, led to a discovery of their crimes, in the year of Rome 566, and a public inquiry was instituted by the authority of the senate. In the speech of the consul Postumius, during this investigation, we have a fine but terrific picture of the nightly orgies of this licentious crew. The contagion had spread widely through Italy, and more than seven thousand persons of the two sexes had bound themselves by oaths of secrecy in different degrees of initiation. Many fled from Rome at the first inquiry. Of the remainder, several were imprisoned, but still more were put to death. By a decree of the senate it was determined, that the Bacchanalia should be abolished throughout Italy; and that if any person considered himself bound by any religious vow to celebrate them, he should present himself before the *Prætor Urbanus*, who should refer the matter to the senate. Permission could only be granted in an assembly of at least 100 senators, and under these

BACCHANALIA. restrictions, that not more than five should be present at the sacrifice, and that these should have no common purse, no priest, and no one to preside over the rites.

BACCHANTES, or BACCÆ, the priestesses of Bacchus. The chorus of the play of Euripides, entitled *Baccæ*, is composed of these priestesses, whence it derives its name.

BACCHARIS, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Syngenesia*, order *Polygama Superflua*. Generic character: receptacle naked; pappus, hairy; calyx imbricate, cylindrical. Female florets mixed with the bisexual.

Willdenow describes fourteen species of this genus; they inhabit various parts of the world, but principally the western hemisphere.

BACCHIUS, βακχίος, in *Prose*, a foot of three syllables, in which the first is short and the two last long: as *amēri*. It is said to derive its name from its frequent usage in the dithyrambic hymns of Bacchus.

BACCHUS, in *Mythology*, a god, concerning whose parentage and adventures great diversities of opinion existed among the ancients. Orpheus, or the writer of the hymns attributed to that poet, occasionally makes him the son of Jupiter and Semele, sometimes of Jupiter and Proserpine, and sometimes also of Jupiter and Isis. In a hymn to Sabazius, who by others has been called the son of Bacchus, Orpheus adheres to the received belief, that after Semele had been consumed by the glory of the Thunderer (Ovid, *Metam.* iii.) when she was already in the eighth month of her pregnancy, Sabazius inclosed the unborn infant in the thigh of Jupiter. Hence the god received the Latin name *Bimater*, and the Greek διμῆτορας (διὰ τοῦ μητρός διὰ πατρὸς). Meleager, in a pretty epigram, asserts, on the contrary, that Bacchus, on the death of his mother, was immediately delivered to the care of the nymphs for ablation; and hence he deduces the necessity of tempering our wine with water. Euripides, in his *Bacchæ*, inclines to the vicarious maternity of Jupiter; and Dirce, the daughter of the river Acheron, is the nurse to whose protection he consigns the infant god after his puerile birth. Lucian (*Diab. Deor.*) mentions a tradition, that he was carried by Mercury, immediately after his nativity, to Nysa, an Arabian city on the confines of Egypt, and there educated by the nymphs: while Ovid (*Fast.* v.) and Apollodorus (ii.) on the contrary, commit him to the Hyades. Mesritus, Thebes, and Naxos, have each also claimed his tuition, and the names of the fair schoolmistresses in the last of these places have been diligently recorded—Phyllis, Coronis, and Clyda: though Apollon has given another list—Ino, Autonoe, and Agave.

Cicero, in his third book, *De Natura Deorum*, explains these conflicting opinions, by stating that there were five different personages known under the name of Bacchus. His nurses, the Bacchæ, if we may trust Euripides, fed him with sufficient care; milk, wine, and honey, sprang from the earth at their touch. The child thrived in proportion; and when the jealousy of his step-mother, Juno, had harassed him so much that he fell asleep under a tree by the road-side, he is said to have killed an amphispæna, which she sent to destroy him, by the stock of a vine which he happened to pick up. Still persecuted by the queen of heaven, he pursued his rambles. He first passed through Egypt, where he was hospitably received by Proteus;

thence hending to Phrygia, he was initiated in the Bacchic rites of Cybele, and hastened on through Thrace to India. On his passage he revenged himself upon Lycurgus, king of the Edoni, who had grievously insulted him by cutting down all the vines in his dominions. Bacchus deprived Lycurgus of his senses, and then placed his son Dryas in his way. Lycurgus, in his fury, mistook him for a vine, and hewed him down to the very stumps. A famine through Edonia was the consequence of the horrible deed; and to appease the god, Lycurgus was put to death by his own subjects, being torn by wild horses.

In Egypt a Theban lady, Alcithoe, had spurned his rites. Bacchus contented himself by changing her into a bat, and the spindle and yarn with which she worked into vines and ivy. (Ovid, *Metam.* iv.) As he advanced on his progress his train increased. Silenus rode beside him on a dappled ass; the Cobali, the Sytyrs, and the Bacchæ, trooped round his car. Lynxes, tigers, and panthers, arranged themselves under his harness; and pipes, cymbals, and shouts of revelry proclaimed the coming of the jolly god. He himself, with a leopard's or a fawn's skin thrown loosely over his shoulders, a crown of ivy round his brows, and a thyrsus, as a sceptre, in his hand, marshalled the throng, and achieved a bloodless conquest over the east. Not far from the Ganges he erected two columns, as the oriental *seplus ultra*. The tour of India occupied him for three years, and he next traversed Libya and Spain. During these travels he is said to have benefited every nation which he visited, by imparting some fresh improvement in civilisation: and his compassionate reception of Ariadne, whom he found abandoned on the shores of Naxos by the unfaithful Theseus, sufficiently entitled him to the gratitude of the fair.

The names of Bacchus were as numerous as the acts attributed to him. In Sicily, he was called Norichus; in Arachia, Oracal and Adoneus; in Sparta, Scythites and Milichius. Ansonius (ep. xxix.) has commemorated the principal titles of this god in a few lines, which may assist the memory:—

Orygiae ne Bacchum vocat,
Oivria Egyptum putat,
Mystæ Phœacem nominant,
Dionysion Iadæ existimant,
Romeana sacra Liberum,
Arabica gens Adonacum,
Lucasiam Pantheum.

Ovid, in the first fable of the fourth book of the *Metamorphoses*, has been yet more full in his nomenclature.

It is probable that the Bacchus of Greek and Roman mythology incorporated in his own person the legends of every similar god of whom traces were discoverable among other nations; and hence we obtain some clue to the numberless discordant particulars related of him. The same reason may explain the variety which occurs in his representations. The Roman poets universally speak of his eternal youth, and almost feminine beauty. His time of life, according to Ovid, is that *media ætas* (*Fast.* iii.) to which he has elsewhere assigned the epithet *utilla*. Tibullus (l. 4.) decks him and Apollo only with *eterna juvenia*, and even the cold formalist Seneca, has been innoxious in the description which paints him *indolens juvenia perpetuum comæ*. (*Hipp.* ii.) He is *pulcherrimus* with the first named poet (*Trist.* v. 3.) and the graver Virgil

BACCHUS attributes to him *caput honestum* (Georg. ii.) *Virgineus, mollis, formosus, mitis, purpureus*, are among his most frequent characteristics; and the myrrh-dropping ringlets and ivy-braided temples are to be found as his commonest attributes. Yet Macrobius (*Saturn.* i.) informs us that images were to be seen, in which he is sculptured both bald and aged. In the western mythology he was generally beardless; but the beard was the distinctive peculiarity of the Indian Bacchus. In all cases he is represented with horns: and some of the reasons assigned for this adjunct are not a little amusing. One scholiast says it is because we use horns in drinking, (Nicand. in *Alexipharm.*) Festus (iii.) because intoxication makes us fierce and inclined to beat our neighbours; and Clemens Alexandrinus, with much greater probability, because Bacchus claimed Jupiter Ammon as his father. (*Protrept.* 36.)

One of the objects of Alexander's ambition in the conquest of the east, if we may believe Quintus Curtius, (iii. 24.) was the imitation of Bacchus. From the same historian we learn, that his apotheosis with Father Liber, was the theme which the poets chose for their most adulatory panegyrics (viii. 18.) and that the petty kings of India, when he entered their territories, spoke of him as the third godlike visitor whom they had received; giving him one decided advantage over his predecessors, namely, that it was only tradition which recorded the marches of Bacchus and of Hercules, but that their senses informed them of the presence of the Macedonian conqueror. (*Id.* 32.) It was indeed his self exultation at treading in the footsteps of the son of Jove and Semele, which induced him to spare the unresisting citizens of Nysa from the horrors of massacre, (*Id.* xii. 7. *Arrian* v.) Antony, at a later time, partook in equal degree of this silly vanity. While preparing for his eastern expedition, he celebrated a triumph at Alexandria. Assuming the name of Bacchus, he mounted a gorgeous car, twined his brows with ivy, and covered them with a golden *mitra*, and binding the *cothurni* on his feet, and waving the *thyrsus* in his hand, he amused himself with dreams of future conquest and luxury. (Vell. Patere. ii. 32.)

Of the identity of Bacchus, or at least of one Bacchus, with Osiris, be the latter who he may, most authors seem convinced. Banier, in the second volume of his mythology, has given the reasons of his different appellations; and Nonnus, the poet of Panopolis, in Egypt, who flourished in the fifth century, has collected the adventures of the god in his strange and irregular *Diogenes*, which have been translated into Latin by Lubin, a professor at Rostock, and which contain all that one, whom Casaubon has honoured by the title of *Poeta eruditissimus*, could learn upon an almost inexhaustible subject. In these authorities, and in the third book of Diodorus Siculus, the reader will find his curiosity sated to the utmost.

Among the moderns some have thought Bacchus to be the same as Moses. Bochart determines that he is Nimrod, and transforms him into Bar-Chus, the son of Chus. Bryant assumes that he is Noah. Sir William Jones establishes a parallel between the Indian Rama and the Grecian Bacchus. The coincidences which he produces are remarkable. Each is remembered as a lawgiver and a conqueror, as an Improver of navigation and commerce; and each in his victories headed an army of satyrs. The Greeks said that their

Dionysius was born in *Meros*, a mountain of India, and *Meros* a city near Nysa, known by them as Dionysopolis, is much celebrated in the Sanscrit poetry. India may be the parent of the mythology of Bacchus; but by removing it to India, we only change its locality; and in the present state of oriental knowledge, we are almost as distant from the key to its origin as if we retained it among ourselves in Europe.

BACCHARACH, or BACARATH, a small town of the Prussian states, in the Grand Duchy of the Lower Rhine. It stands on the east bank of the Rhine, and is mentioned in the twelfth century under the name of *Bachrea*. The count palatine formerly resided in the castle of Stalecke, near this town. The customs collected in it used to be so productive, that it received the name of the *golden fall*. A spring, of an oily essence, rising in the middle of the river near it, affects both the smell and colour of the water. The small island of Heidesen is just below it and the town: and a monument is to be seen at low water between this island and the bank, adorned with sculptures and inscriptions. It is termed *Bacchi ara*, and is said to give the town its name. The neighbourhood is celebrated for its wines: there are large slate quarries in the surrounding country, and the town itself contains manufactures of powder and starch. The population scarcely exceeds 1300. The town has suffered much in several wars, particularly in that which is known by the name of the thirty years' war. It stands 23 miles S. from Coblenz. Long. 7° 40' E. lat. 50° 8' N.

BACHELOR, *y* Bachelier, A.S. *baccalarius*, Lye, *ba'chelorschap*, *y* but without citing any authority. Somner has not the word. Wachter suggests, that when applied to students in theology, it may be compounded of the Saxon *bac, liber, biblia, and larech*, doctor; and when applied to persons of a certain military rank, he approves of the etymology of Fauchet, viz. that *bacheliers* are so called, *quia baccheoliers*, because they were lower in dignity than the *militia honorati*; with, though beblind, whom they were allowed to sit. He rejects, as destitute of authority, the opinion of Caepelinus, that a chaplet of laurel berries was placed upon them, and that they were thence called *baccalarii*. The word has probably but one origin, which would account for its various applications. Kilian adopts the opinion of Ludovicus Vives, that that soldier is called *battalarius*, who has once been engaged in battle (*battalia*); and also, in literary warfare, he is called *battalarius*, who has publicly engaged in dispute upon any subject. See also *Du Cange* and *Ménage*.

Bachelor is now generally applied to any man before his marriage. Ben Jonson applies it to an unmarried woman

Yeh wo, je marie wel with je gidde part of my londe,
To je noblist bachelor, but fym herte out of Scie.
R. Gloucester, p. 30.

Jo he ymad hym a fuyr out of his bachelerie,
He com agayne in to his land out of Scie. *Id.* p. 76.

With him ther was his sone, a yonge squier,
A lover, and a lusty bachelor,
With loches crull as they were lorde in pence.
Chaucer. Prologue v. 30.

Phobus, that was flour of bachelerie,
As wel in freedom, as in chivalrie.
Id. The Moniepe's Tale.

BACHE-
LOR.

And if thou were of such lineage,
That thou to me were of parage,
And that thy father were a peer,
As he is now a bachelor.
So siller as I have a life,
Thou shouldst than be my wife.

Gower. *Con. Am. book 1.*

Faire maid send forth thine eye, this youthful parcel
Of noble bachelors, stand at my bowdow.
Ore when loth scornings power, and father's voice
I have to vie; thy frank election make,
Thou hast power to choose, and they none to forsake.
Shakespeare. All's Well that Ends Well. fol. 237.

Wee dost not truste your nede, hee would keepe you
A bachelor still, by keeping of your portion;
And keepe you not alone without a husband,
But in a sickness. *Ben. Jonson. The Magnetic Lady.*

So thro' the whole course of his bachelorship there was never
any one in the then memory of man (so I have been informed by
certain students of that college at my first coming thither) that
ever went beyond him (John Hale) for subtle disputations in
philosophy, for his eloquent declamations and orations; as also
for his exact knowledge in the Greek tongue.

Wood. *Athen. Oxon. li. 119.*

It would not, methinks, be asin if an old bachelor, who lives
in contempt of matrimony, were obliged to give a portion to an
old maid who is willing to enter into it. *Tatler, No. 261.*

It must disappoint every reader's expectation, that, when at
the usual time he [Swift] claimed the bachelorship of arts, he was
found by the examiners too conspicuously deficient for regular
admission, and obtained his degree at last by special favour; a term
used in that university to denote want of merit.

Johnson. *Life of Swift.*

The citations above will have explained the word
Bachelor to most of its uses. It may be added, that to the
writers of the middle ages it was sometimes
received as implying all degrees of rank between a
baron and a gentleman; sometimes, according to
Camden, it referred only to the rank between knight
and esquire. It was also applied to a young knight
in his first campaign, and to one who was successful
in his first tournament.

BACHELOS, in the livery companies of London, is a
member not yet admitted to the livery.

BACHELOR, in most universities, with the exception
of those in Italy, is the first degree taken by academic
students in the liberal sciences. In the university
of Cambridge, a *Bachelor of Arts* must reside the greater
part of twelve several terms, the first and last excepted.
The statutable exercises before admission, *ad respon-*
dendum questioni, (a form in which the father of the
college asks each student a question before his grad-
uation) are two acts and two opponencies. A *Bachelor*
of Divinity must be a Master of Arts of seven years
standing: his exercises are, one act, after the fourth
year, two opponencies, a *convocatio ad clerum*, and an
English sermon. The ten-year men, who are candi-

enter his name at some college, and perform a solemn
piece of music as an exercise prior to his degree.

In the university of Oxford, a *Bachelor of Arts* must
keep sixteen terms, and appear once as a respondent
in the schools. A *Bachelor of Divinity* must be Master
of Arts of seven years standing: his exercises are one
act, two opponencies, and a *convocatio ad clerum* after the
fifth year. A *Bachelor of Laws* must be a Master of
Arts of three years standing: his exercises are one
act and two opponencies. A *Bachelor of Medicine* must
be a Master of Arts of one year standing: his exer-

cises are one act and one opponency. A *Bachelor of*
Music must produce a competent testimonial that he
has applied himself to that science during seven years,
and must perform a piece of music of five parts
publicly in the music school.

BACHELOR'S FEAR, a name given to the Solanum
mammosum.

BACHIAN, or *BATCHIAN*, one of the Molucca
islands, situated in the eastern ocean, and only sepa-
rated by a narrow channel from the island of Gilolo.
It is about fifty miles long, and twenty in medial
breadth, but much narrower in the middle than
towards each end. The prince who governed this
island early formed an alliance with the Spaniards and
Portuguese, who were expelled by the Dutch in 1610.
It is fertile in sugar, fruits, and other productions of
these climates; and was considered as producing better
cloves than any island in the group, before the plants
were injured by neglect. It is described as an elevated
tract, in a great measure covered with forests, and
though capable of producing all the necessaries of
life, but little cultivated. It was on this island that
the Dutch fixed their principal settlement, before
Amboyna attained its pre-eminence in their estimation.
Bachian contains a burning mountain; beds of coral
adorn its shores; and gold has been enumerated
among its products. It is under the government of a
sultan, who is also the sovereign of Ohy, Ceram,
Goram, and another contiguous islet. The inhabi-
tants are chiefly Malay Mahomedans, who have
several mosques, and are considered as the most
eastern disciples of the Arabian prophet. The chief
town is Sabong. The latitude of the south-east
extremity of this island is about 0° 45' south; and
its longitude 126° 3' east.

BACK, *v.* } A. S. *bac*, *baer*; Ger. *back*; Swed.
BACK, *n.* } *bak*.
BACK, *adv.* } To *back* a horse, is to mount upon
Ba'ckee. } a horse's back; and also to move him
backwards.

To *back* a friend, &c. is to stand to his back, to sup-
port, uphold, assist, encourage him.

Back is much used in composition, without effecting
any change in the component parts.

Philip of Flandres fell & turned some ye bak,
& Theobald nought he delts, schame of þam was syn.
R. Brime, p. 153.

Backe hem nogt bete hem woe þe lyste to be justice,
And have power to gynghe hem. *Peter Plouman, p. 26.*

Hire yellow here was bridled in a treme,
Behind hire back, a yerde long I prove.
Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. 1032.

This mode is divided on the back-half with a line that cometh
diacendynge fro the ring downe to the nethermost border.
Id. The Conclusions of the Astrologer, fol. 262.

BACHE-
LOR.
—
BACK.

BACK.

Where brisade a man's backe
For though he prisse, he fast some lacke,
Whiche of his tale is the last,
That all the price shall accomt.

Goover. Can. Am. book li.

Not the bewtie of his body, not the great occasion of sinne, were able to pull him back into the voluptuous brode way, that leadeth to hell.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. G.

The bishop perceiving that the English capitaines were courageous and discontent with their ill shode, flatteringly desired them to terry awhile for the best, for a backe exercise, said he, is to be regarded.

Hall. King Henry VIII.

Richarde the Third, little of stature, ill featured of limmes, croke backed, his left shoulder much higher then his right, hard favoured of visage.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 37.

Then took she her strong lance, with Steele made keene,
Great, musie, action, the whole heate of men
(Though all heroes) conquest; if her ire
Their wrongs inflame, backt by so great a sire.

Chapman. Homer's Odysseus, fol. 5.

DURE. No might, nor greatness in mortality
Can converse scape: back-wounding calumnie
The whitest vertue strikes. What king so strong,
Can this the gall vs in the slanderous long?

Shakespeare. Measure for Measure, fol. 74. c. l.

The houses of that country have large backeyards, and pleasant orchards full of trees: being y^e chiefe delight of Fryces, and great lordes there.

Brede. Quint. Cur. book vii.

And in all this fierce assault made upon vs by the Spanish power, we sustained no hurt or damage at all more then this, that the sword and backe-stay of the Solomons, who gave the first and last shot, and killed the enemy shrewdly all the time of the battell, were cleane stricken off.

Hackluyt. Voy. 4to. Hon. E. of Camb.

To begin with Bena, (though a truer back-friend to the hierarchy than his cousin predecessor) yet this he can say for ours.

Hall. Episcopacy asserted, vol. iii. fol. 127.

What reason can afford a worthy place
For his exalted flesh? Heu'n's in too base,
He scarce would touch it in his swift ascent,
The orbes God backe (like Jordan) as he went.

Sir J. Denham, an Ascension Day.

He brought our Saviour to the western side
Of that high mountain, whence he might behold
Another plain, long but in breadth not wide,
Wash'd by the Southern sea, and on the north
To equal length back'd with a ridge of hills
That screen'd the fruits of the earth and seats of men
From cold Septentrion blasts.

Milton. Paradise Regained, book iv.

The Cornish justices, whereof Mr. Curlew shew'd was one, made suit to the privy-council for redress; and, through the never-failing forwardness and backing of Sir Walter Raleigh, says the same author, obtain'd a revocation thereof.

Hall. Life of Sir W. Raleigh.

The other Highlanders, who did not such military exertions, yet were good at robbing; and when they had got as much as they could carry home on their backs, they departed.

Burnet. Own Times.

Sin is never at a stay; if we do not retreat from it, we shall advance in it; and the farther on we go, the more we have to come back.

Burrow. Sermon xvi. v. 3.

For the convenience of such persons as are willing enough to be dead, but that they are afraid their friends and relations should know it, we have a back-door into Warwick-street, from whence they may be interred with all secrecy imaginable.

Tatler, No. 99.

Once we repose, beneath the patriot's cloak,
From the crack'd box the drooping guinea spoke,
And jingling down the back-story, told the crew,
"Old Calo is as great a rogue as you."

Pope. Moral Essays, essay iii.

See I not guet revenge, emanu'd'd slaughter,
And mad ambition, climping to thy soul,
Eager to match thee back to their domains,
Back to a vain and miserable world.

Mason. Caractacus.

For ghostly counsel; if it either fall
Below the raigne, or be not back'd
With show of love, at least with hopeful proof
Of some sincerity on th^e giver's part;
Drops from the lips a disengured thing.

Cooper. The Task, book ii.

Back, in brewing, a large flat tub in which the liquor is cooled. There is a particular branch of trade called back-making, for furnishing these vessels.

BACKBITE, } A word truly elegant, says Skinner,
Ba'CKBITE, } and worthy to be compared with
Ba'CKBITING, } any of Greek composition: it signifies to calumniate the absent, to detract or derogate from the reputation of the absent, from our back and bite, q. d. to bite the back of any one, (i. e.) when he averts his face, and presents his back; to defame, to slander, to revile, to taunt him.

In A. S. *backstol*, from *stol*, to slit, to tear in pieces, is a backbiter, a slanderer.

Than may he tell, so that his intent be not to backbite the person, but only to declare his confusion.

Chaucer. The Personer Tale, vol. ii. p. 382.

Many curious bits is stored,

Where that it may not be answered.

But yet full oft it is belov'd

And many a worthy loss is won
Through backbiting of false tongue.

Goover. Can. Am. book li.

This sinne of backbiting or detracting hath certain spires, as thus: some man privily his neighbour by a wicked estate, for he maketh always a wicked knotte at the laste ende: always he maketh a bit at the last ende, that is digne of more blame, than is worth all the praising. The second spire is, that if a man be good, or doth or sayth a thing to good estate, the backbiter will turne all that goodnesse up so doone to his shrewde estate.

Chaucer. The Personer Tale, vol. ii. p. 352.

yt am ich brocer of lugges bytyng, and blasse merwes ware
Among marchaus many tymen.

Piers Plouman, p. 92.

Among ye coumes in court he cometh but seide
For brawnyng and backbitynge, and beryng of false whitnesse.

Id. p. 243.

With alle the wykes þat he can. [he] waggeth þe roote
þow he bak byteth and brawelers, and þow he bold chydeth.

Id. p. 366.

My britheren sylt ye backeth eek oþire: he that backeth his brother, either that deneth his brother backeth the lawe, and deneth the lawe.

Wyclif. James, c. iv.

Backbit one another, brethre. He that backbiteth his brother, and he that judgeth his brother, backbiteth the lawe, and judgeth the law.

Idem, 1551. 7h.

He [M. Marcellus] knew full well that there were many Sicilians in the towres and villages round to the cille, backbiters and slanderers of him, whom for his owne part he was so far off from hindring, but that they might freely for all him, divulge and publish abroad in Rome, of those crimes which were denied and spoken against him by his adversaries.

Holland. Lucius, fol. 604.

And also that I may from henceforth, if it be possible, restraime others (who vie those venomous Germanise ruses to the upbidding of our nation, and from hence borrow their scoffe, and reproachful taunts to the debasing of vs Islanders) from that libertie of backbiting.

Hackluyt. Voy. 4to. The true state of Island.

And the apostle ranks back-biters with fornicators, and murderers, and haters of God; and with those of whom it is expressly said that they shall not inherit the kingdom of God.

Tillemont. Sermon xlii.

There is a town in Warwickshire of good note, and formerly pretty famous for much animosity and dissension, the chief families of which have now turned all their whisper, backbiting, envies, and private malice, into mirth and entertainment.

Spekter. No. 327.

BACKERGUNJE, a district in the eastern part of Bengal. See BENGAL.

BACK GAMMON.

BACK GAMMON A GAME played by two persons with a box and dice, upon a table divided into two parts, upon which there are twelve black and twelve white points. Dr. Henry, iv. 904, has cited from the *Glossarium ad leges Wallicae*, a voc *Tawilberdd*, an etymology from the Welch words, *bach*, little, and *commen*, battle, which, if admitted, corroborates the belief that the game is of Welsh invention.

The following particulars are extracted from Mr. Hoyle, the received oracle on these subjects:—

“Each adversary has fifteen men, black and white to distinguish them, which are disposed of thus: supposing you play into the right-hand table, two upon the ace-point in your adversary’s table, five upon the six-point in the opposite table, three upon the cinque-point in the hithermost table, and five on the six-point in your own table: the grand object is to bring the men round into your own table; all throws that contribute towards it, and prevent your adversary doing the like, are advantageous, and vice versa. The first best throw upon the dice is esteemed aces, as it stops the six-point in the outer table, and secures the cinque in your own, whereby your adversary’s two men upon your ace-point cannot get out with either quatre, cinque, or six. Wherefore this throw is an advantage frequently asked and given between players that are not equally skilful.

“There are thirty-six chances upon two dice.

2 Aces	4	5 and 4 twice..	18
2 Deuces	8	5 .. 3	16
2 Trois	12	5 .. 2	14
2 Fours	16	5 .. 1	12
2 Fives	20	4 .. 3	14
2 Sixes	24	4 .. 2	12
6 and 5 twice ..	22	4 .. 1	10
6 .. 4	20	3 .. 2	10
6 .. 3	18	3 .. 1	8
6 .. 2	16	2 .. 1	6
6 .. 1	14		

Divided by 36 { 294 } 8
 { 288 }
 6

294 divided by 36, shews that one throw with another you may expect 8 upon two dice.

“The chances upon two dice are as follow:

2 Sixes	1	5 and 4 twice ..	2
2 Fives	1	5 .. 3	2
2 Fours	1	5 .. 2	2
2 Trois	1	5 .. 1	2
2 Deuces	1	4 .. 3	2
2 Aces	1	4 .. 2	2
6 and 5 twice ..	2	4 .. 1	2
6 .. 4	2	3 .. 2	2
6 .. 3	2	3 .. 1	2
6 .. 2	2	2 .. 1	2
6 .. 1	2		

“To find out by this table what are the odds of being hit upon a certain, or flat die, look in the table where thus * marked.

*2 Aces	1	*3 and 1 twice ..	2
*6 and 1 twice ..	2	*4 .. 1	2
*5 .. 1	2	*2 .. 1	2

Total 11

Which deducted from 36

The remainder is 25

“By this it appears, that it is 25 to 11 against hitting an ace, upon a certain, or flat die. The like method may be taken with any other flat die, as with the ace.

“What are the odds of entering a man upon 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 points?

Answer.		Reduced.	
for. against.		for. against.	
To enter it {	upon 1 point is 11 to 25	{	4 to 9
	.. 2		5 .. 4
	.. 3		3 .. 1
	.. 4		8 .. 1
	.. 5		35 .. 1

“What are the odds of hitting, with any chance, in the reach of a single die?

Answer.		Reduced.	
for. against.		for. against.	
To hit {	upon 1 is 11 to 25	{	4 to 9
	.. 2		1 .. 2
	.. 3		2 .. 3
	.. 4		5 .. 7
	.. 5		8 .. 7

“What are the odds of hitting with double dice?

Answer.		Reduced.	
for. against.		for. against.	
To hit {	upon 7 is 6 to 30	{	1 to 5
	.. 8		1 .. 5
	.. 9		1 .. 6
	.. 10		1 .. 11
	.. 11		1 .. 17

“To explain further how to use the table of 36 chances, to find the odds of being hit upon any certain or flat die, this second example shews how to discover by that the odds of being hit upon a six.

2 Sixes	1	6 and 3 twice ..	2
2 Trois	1	6 .. 2	2
2 Deuces	1	6 .. 1	2
6 and 5 twice ..	2	5 .. 1	2
6 and 4 twice ..	2	4 .. 2	2

17

Which deducted from 36

Remainder is—19

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That is 19 to 17 against being hit upon a 6.

The odds of 2 love are about 5 to 2.

and of 2 to 1 is 2 .. 1.

and of 1 love is 3 .. 2.

" 1. If you play three up, your principal object in the first place, is, either to secure your own or your adversary's cinque-point; when that is effected, you may play a pushing game, and endeavour to gammon the adversary.

" 2. The next best point (after you have gained your cinque-point) is to make your bar-point, thereby preventing your adversary running with 2 sixes.

" 3. After you have proceeded thus far, prefer making the quatre-point in your own tables, rather than the quatre-point out of them.

" 4. Having gained these points, you have a fair chance to gammon the adversary, if he is very forward: for, suppose his tables are broke at home, it will be then your interest to open your bar-point to oblige him to come out of your tables with a six; and having your men spread, you not only may catch that man which your adversary brings out of your tables, but will also have a probability of taking up the man left in your tables (upon supposition that he had two men there.) And if he should have a blot at home, it will then be your interest not to make up your tables; because, if he should enter upon a blot, which you are to make for the purpose, you will have a probability of getting a third man; which, if accomplished, will give you at least 4 to 1 of the gammon; whereas, if you have only two of his men up, the odds are that you do not gammon him.

" 5. If you play for a hit only, one or two men taken up of your adversary's makes it surer than a greater number, provided your tables are made up.

" 6. *Directions how to carry your men home.*

" When you carry your men home, in order to lose no point, you are to carry the most distant man to your adversary's bar-point, that being the first stage you are to place it on; the next stage is 6 points farther, viz. in the place where your adversary's five men are first placed out of his tables; the next stage is upon the sixth point in your tables. This method is to be pursued till your men are brought home, except 2, when, by losing a point, you may often save your gammon, by putting it in the power of two fives or two fours to save it.

" 7. If you play to win a hit only, endeavour to gain either your own or your adversary's cinque-point; if that fails by you being hit, and he is forwarder than you, then you must throw more men into his tables, thus: put a man upon your cinque or bar-point, and if your adversary neglects to bit it, you may then gain a forward, instead of a back-game; but if he hits you, you must play for a back-game, and then the greater number of men which are taken up, makes your game the better, because you by that means preserve your game at home; and you must then always endeavour to gain both your adversary's ace and trois-points, or his ace and deuce-points, and take care to keep three men upon his ace-point, that if you chance to hit him from thence, that they may remain still secure to you.

" 8. At the beginning of a set do not play for a back-game, because by so doing you would play to a

great disadvantage, running the risk of a gammon to win a single bit.

" *Directions for playing at setting out, the 36 chances of the dice, either for a gammon, or single hit.*

" 1. Two aces, to be played on your cinque-point and bar point, for either gammon or hit.

" 2. Two sixes to be played on your adversary's bar-point, and on your own bar-point, for a gammon or hit.

" 3. * Two trois, two to be played on your cinque point, and the other two on your trois-point in your own tables, for a gammon only.

" 4. † Two deuces to be played on your quatre-point in your own tables, and two to be brought over from the five men placed in your adversary's tables, for a gammon only.

" 5. ‡ Two fives to be brought over from the five men placed in your adversary's tables, and to be put upon the cinque-point in your own tables, for a gammon only.

" 6. Two fives to be brought over from the five men placed in your adversary's tables, and to be put upon the trois-point in your own tables, for a gammon or hit.

" 7. Six ace, you are to take your har-point, for a gammon, or bit.

" 8. Six deuce, a man to be brought from the five placed in your adversary's tables, and to be placed on the cinque point in your own, for a gammon, or bit.

" 9. Six and three, a man to be brought from your adversary's ace point, as far as he will go, for a gammon, or hit.

" 10. Six and four, a man to be brought from your adversary's ace-point, as far as he will go, for a gammon, or hit.

" 11. Six and five, a man to be carried from your adversary's ace-point, as far as he can go, for a gammon or bit.

" 12. Cinque and quatre, a man to be carried from your adversary's ace-point, as far as he can go, for a gammon, or bit.

" 13. Cinque-trois, make the trois-point in your tables, for a gammon, or hit.

" 14. Cinque-deuce, play two men from the five placed in your adversary's tables, for a gammon, or bit.

" 15. * Cinque-ace, bring one man from the five placed in your adversary's tables for the cinque, and play one down on the cinque-point in your own tables for the ace, for a gammon only.

" 16. Quatre-trois, bring two men from the five placed in your adversary's tables, for a gammon, or hit.

" 17. Quatre-deuce, make the quatre-point in your own tables, for a gammon, or hit.

" 18. † Quatre-ace, play a man from the five placed in your adversary's tables for the quatre, and for the ace play a man down upon the cinque-point in your own tables, for a gammon only.

" 19. Trois-deuce, bring two men from the five placed in your adversary's tables, for a gammon only.

" 20. Trois-ace, make the cinque-point in your own tables, for a gammon, or hit.

" 21. * Deuce-ace, play one man from the five placed in your adversary's tables for the deuce; and

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BACK- for the ace, play a man down upon the cinque-point in your own tables, for a gammon only.

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Directions how to play the chances that are marked thus, () for a hit only.*

" 1. * Two trois, play two of them on the cinque-point in your own, and with the other two take the quatre-point in your adversary's tables.

" 2. † Two deuces, play two of them on the quatre-point in your own, and with the other two take the trois-point in your adversary's tables.

" By playing the two foregoing cases as directed, you avoid being shut up in your adversary's tables, and have the chance of throwing high doublets, to win the hit.

" 3. * Two fours, two of them are to take your adversary's cinque-point in his tables; and for the other two bring two men from the five placed in your adversary's tables.

" 4. * 1. Cinque-ace, play the cinque from the five men placed in your adversary's tables, and the ace from your adversary's ace-point.

" 5. 2. Quatre-ace, play the quatre from the five men placed in your adversary's tables, and the ace from those on your adversary's ace-point.

" 6. * 3. Deuce-ace, play the deuce from the five men placed in your adversary's tables, and the ace from your adversary's ace-point.

" N. B. The three last chances are to be played in this manner, because, by laying an ace down in your adversary's tables, you have a probability of throwing deuce-ace, trois-deuce, quatre-trois, or six-cinque, in two or three throws: in any of which cases you are to make a point, which gives you the better of the hit; and observe by the directions given in this chapter, that you are to play olee chances out of the thirty-six in a different manner, for a single hit, to what you would do when playing for a gammon.

" Some observations, hints, and cautions.

" 1. By the directions given to play for a gammon, you are voluntarily to make some blots; the odds being in your favour that they are not hit; but should that so happen, in such case, you will have three men in your adversary's tables; you must then endeavour to secure your adversary's cinque, quatre, or trois-point, to prevent a gammon, and must be very cautious how you suffer him to take up a fourth man.

" 2. Take care not to crowd your game, that is putting many men either upon your trois or deuce-point in your own tables; which is, in effect, losing those men by not having them in play. Besides, by crowding your game, you are often gammoned; as, when your adversary finds your game open, by being crowded in your own tables, he may then play as he thinks fit.

" 3. By referring to the calculations, you may know the odds of entering a single man upon any certain number of points, and play your game accordingly.

" 4. If you are obliged to leave a blot, by having recourse to the calculations for hitting it, you will find the chances for and against you.

" 5. You will also find the odds for and against being hit by double dice, and consequently can choose a method of play most to your advantage.

" 6. If it is necessary to make a run, in order to win a hit, and you would know who is forwardst, begin with reckoning how many points you must have to bring home to the six-point in your tables, the man that is at the greatest distance, and do the like by every other man abroad; when the numbers are summed up, add for those already on your own tables, (supposing the men that were abroad as on your six-point for bearing,) namely, six for every man on the six, and so on respectively for each; five, four, three, two, or one, for every man, according to the points on which they are situated. Do the like to your adversary's game, and then you will know which of you is forwardst, and likeliest to win the hit.

" Observations and directions for a learner to bear his men.

" 1. If your adversary is greatly before you, never play a man from your quatre, trois, or deuce-points, in order to bear that man from the point where you put it, because then nothing but high doublets can give you any chance for the hit; therefore, instead of playing an ace or a deuce from any of the aforesaid points, always play them from your highest point; by which means, throwing two fives, or two fours, will, upon having eased your six and cinque-points, be of great advantage: whereas, had your six-point remained loaded, you must perhaps be obliged to play at length those fives and fours.

" 2. Whenever you have taken up two of your adversary's men, and happen to have two, three, or more points made in your own tables, never fail spreading your men, either to take a new point in your tables, or to hit the man your adversary may happen to enter. As soon as he enters one, compare his game with yours; and if you find your game equal, or better, take the man if you can, because it is 25 to 11 against his hitting you; which being so much in your favour, you ought always to run that risk, when you have already two of his men up: except you play for a single hit only, and playing that throw otherwise gives you a better chance for the hit, then do not take up that man.

" 3. Never be deterred from taking up any one man of your adversary by the apprehension of being hit with double dice, because the fairest probability is 5 to 1 against him.

" 4. If you should happen to have five points in your tables, and to have taken up one of your adversary's men, and are obliged to leave a blot out of your tables, rather leave it upon doublets than any other, because doublets are 35 to 1 against his hitting you, and any other chance is but 17 to 1 against him.

" 5. Two of your adversary's men in your tables are better for a hit than any greater number, provided your game is forwardst; because having three or more men in your tables gives him more chances to hit you, than if he had only two men.

" 6. If you are to leave a blot upon entering a man on your adversary's tables, and have your choice where, always choose that point which is the most disadvantageous to him. To illustrate this, suppose it is his interest to hit or take you up so soon as you enter; in that case leave the blot upon his lowest point; that is to say, upon his deuce, rather than upon his trois, and so on, because all the men your

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adversary plays upon his trois or his deuce-points are in a great measure out of play, those men not having it in their power to make his cinque-point, and consequently his game will be crowded there and open elsewhere, whereby you will be able also much to annoy him.

" 7. Prevent your adversary from bearing his men to the greatest advantage, when you are running to save a gammon; suppose you should have two men upon his ace-point, and several others abroad; though you should lose one point or two in putting the men into your tables, yet it is your interest to lose a man upon the adversary's ace-point; which will prevent him bearing his men to his greatest advantage, and will also give you the chance of his making a blot, that you may hit. But if, upon a calculation, you find you have a throw, or a probability of saving your gammon, never wait for a blot, because the odds are greatly against hitting it.

" Cases showing how to calculate the odds.

" 1. Suppose your tables made up, and that you have taken up one of your adversary's men, who has so many abroad as require three throws to put them in his tables; it is then about an equal wager that you gammon him. Because, in all probability, you will bear two men before you open your tables, and when you bear the third man, you will be obliged to open your six or cinque-point; in that case it is likely that your adversary must take two throws before he enters his man in your tables, and two throws more before he puts that man into his own tables, and three throws more to put into his own tables the men which he has abroad, in all seven throws; and as you have twelve men to bear, these probably will take seven throws in bearing, because you may twice be obliged to make an ace, or a deuce, before you can bear all.

" N.B. No mention is made of doublets on either side, that event being equal to each party.

" The foregoing case shews it is in your power to calculate very nearly the odds of saving or winning a gammon upon most occasions.

" 2. Suppose you have three men upon your adversary's ace-point, and five points in your tables, and that the adversary has all his men in his tables, three upon each of his five highest points, what is the probability for a gammon?

Answer.	Points.
For his bearing three men from his 6 point, is	18
from his 5 point, ..	15
from his 4 point, ..	12
from his 3 point, ..	9
from his 2 point, ..	6
Total ..	60

To bring your three men from the adversary's ace-point to the six-point in your tables, being for each 18 points, make in all. 54

The remainder is. 6

" And as, besides the six points in your favour, there is a further consideration, that your adversary may make one or two blots in bearing, you have greatly the probability of saving your gammon.

" N.B. This is supposed upon an equality of throwing.

" 3. Suppose I leave two blots, either of which cannot be hit but by double dice: to hit the one, that cast must be eight, and for the other nine; by which means my adversary has only one die to hit either of them, what are the odds of hitting either of these blots?

Ans. The chances on two dice are in all 36			
The chances to hit 8 are...	{	6 and 2 twice.....	2
		5 and 3 twice.....	2
		2 deuces.....	1
		2 fours.....	1
The chances to hit 9 are...	{	6 and 3 twice.....	2
		5 and 4 twice.....	2
		4 and 5 twice.....	2
		3 and 6 twice.....	1

Total chances for hitting. 11
Remain chances for not hitting. 25
So that it is 25 to 11 that he will not hit either blot.

" 4. Suppose I leave two other blots than the former, which cannot be hit but by double dice, the one by eight, and the other by seven. What are the odds of my adversary hitting either of these blots?

Ans. The chances on two dice are in all 36			
The chances to hit 8 are....	{	6 and 2 twice.....	2
		5 and 3 twice.....	2
		two fours.....	1
		two deuces.....	1
The chances to hit 7 are....	{	6 and 1 twice.....	2
		5 and 2 twice.....	2
		4 and 3 twice.....	2

Total chances for hitting. 12
Remain chances for not hitting. 24
Therefore it is two to one that I am not hit.

" Take the like method with three, four or five blots upon double dice; or with blots made upon double and single dice at the same time; then only find out (by the table of 36 chances) how many there are to hit any of those, and add all together in one sum, which subtract from the number 36, the whole of the chances upon two dice, and so doing resolve any question required.

" 5. The following cases shew a mechanical way of solving questions of the like nature. What are the odds of throwing 7 twice, before 10 once?

" Ans. It is 5 to 4 that ten is thrown once before 7 is thrown twice, demonstrated as follows. Suppose the stake depending is nine pounds, my first throw entitles me to have one-third part of that money, because 7 has six chances for it, and 10 has but three, and therefore it is two to one.

For the first throw	£ s. d.
Having taken £3. the first throw, the remainder is £6. out of which a third part is to be taken for the second throw	3 0 0
	2 0 0

The total is	5 0 0
Remains	4 0 0
The whole stake is	9 0 0

" 6. Suppose 36 shillings is the whole stake depending, what is my share of that, having laid 18 shillings

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that I enter in two throws? By the calculation in the table of 36 chances, it is found that I have 11 chances out of the 36 for entering the first throw, for which therefore I am entitled to 11 out of the 36 shillings.

	s.	d.
The stake is	36	0
For the first throw	11	0
Remains	25	0
The remainder being 25 shillings, is to be divided into 36 equal parts, of which I am entitled to eleven of those parts, which make 7s. 7d. for the second throw	7	7½
Adding this to the other eleven shillings, makes my share of the stake to be	18	7½
Then my adversary's share will be	17	4½
Total of the stake	36	0

BACKSLIDE, } From back and slide. To slide, Ba'CASLIDRA, or slip, back; (sc.) from good and Ba'CASLIDRA, virtuous principles or practices; Ba'CASLIDRA, to return to evil: to forsake or abandon good for evil. The word does not appear to have been used in our versions of the Bible prior to that of King James. "Disobedient, rebellious, turning back," in the older versions, in King James', "backsliding." Joye uses the word backfaller.

Onias with many like backfallers from God fled into Egypt.
Joye. *Exposition of Daniel*, c. xi.

Corrupting Nero to all kinds of mischief, some things attempting wavering to him, and at last a traitor and backslider from him whereupon both the ill and well willers of Nero, upon diuers respects, cried out importunately to make him away.

Saule's Tristitia, Hist. book i.

Neither fear, neither danger, neither yet doubting, nor backsliding, can utterly destroy and quench the faith of God's elect, but that always there remaineth with them some root and spark of faith, howbeit in their anguish, they neither feel nor can discern the same.
John Knox. *The Admonition*, fol. 76.

I have tasted of the sweetness of the heavenly gift, and of the powers of the world to come, yet I have fallen back to my cruel temper, from the holy ways of God, and have again backslided and wallowed in my former pollutions, from which I seemed sometimes to be cleansed and refined.

Hopkins. *Sermon xvi.*

He is able to save the oldest sinners, those that have frequently relapsed into the same sins, and the greatest and most notorious backsliders, if they do but at last repent and return to him.
Id. Id.

Here meeting with a smooth, though slippery path, I hurried on, but with back-sliding haste, The treacherous slime my tottering sole turn'd.

West. *The triumphs of the Gout.*

BACK-HING, the capital of Tonguiou, or Tun-kin. See TUNKIN.

BACKU, a town on the Caspian Sea, in the province of Shirvan. See SHIRVAN.

BACON. Evidently the past participle of (A. S.) bacca, to bake, or to dry by heat. Tooke, ii. 71. Applied to swine's flesh dried by heat.

"Therefore it is very nearly 15 to 14 in favour of BACK-GAMMON entering a man upon any certain point in two throws.

"The Laws of Back-gammon.

"1. If you take a man or men from any point, that man or men must be played.

"2. You are not understood to have played any man, till placed upon a point, and quitted.

"3. If you play with 14 men only, there is no penalty attending it, because with a lesser number you play to a disadvantage, by not having the additional man to make up your tables.

"4. If you bear any number of men before you have entered a man taken up, and which consequently you was obliged to enter, such men, so borne, must be entered again in your adversary's tables, as well as the man taken up.

"5. If you have mistaken your throw, and played it, and if your adversary has thrown it, it is not in your or his choice to alter it, unless both parties agree.

The Bacon was not fit for him, I trow,

That soon men have in Essex at Dunmow.

Chaucer. *The Wife of Bathes Prologue* v. 5799.

Dry grapes be in his lit'tle south doth beane,

And thus of baces, which half eaten were.

J. Beaumont. *Horror*, book ii. est. vi.

"What frightens you thus, my good son?" says the priest:

"Yes murder'd, we sorry, and have been confest."

"O father! my sorrow will scarce save my bacon."

"For 'twas not that I murder'd, but that I was taken."

Prior. *The Thief and the Cordelier.*

BACON, FOSSIL. A remarkable fossil substance discovered on a rising ground belonging to Chapel farm, in the parish of Cuswys Monchard, near Tiverton, in Devonshire. The estate formerly belonged to a monastery of Augustine friars, which was built upon it. In sinking a pond, when the workmen had got to a depth of ten feet from the surface, they struck upon a spongy substance, which appeared to be a very thick cuticle of a brown colour: they soon found pieces of bone and fat of the same hue. With some little trouble, at length the entire body of a hog was extricated, reduced to the colour and substance of an Egyptian mummy: the flesh was six inches thick, and the hair upon it very long and elastic. On proceeding in the work, a considerable number of hogs, of various sizes, were found in different positions: in some places two or three together, in others singly: the bodies, when exposed to the air, still retained their consistency: the stratum continued for twelve feet, after which the pond, being sufficiently deep, was filled with water. The ground was never known to have been broken up before: the family which preceded the present possessor has a journal of all remarkable events which have occurred in the parish during three centuries; but there is no entry in it which can lead to a solution of the phenomenon. Mr. Polwhele, who obtained a specimen, mentions, in his *History of Devon*, that the bed in which the fossils lay was of stiff clay. He describes the piece in his possession to be very light, somewhat spongy, mottled like mottled soap,

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and evidently of a sebaceous nature. On a slight chemical analysis it was mostly soluble in spirits of wice white hot; but separated into white flakes on cooling. In this it resembles spermaceti. On being boiled in a fixed alkaline lixivium it was easily convertible into soap.

BACOPA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character. Calyx five-partite, the divisions unequal; corolla, hypocrateriform; stigma emarginate. Capsule of one cell.

This genus contains but one species, a fresh water plant of Cavenne. Aublet, *Plantes de la Guinée*, tab. 49.

BACTRIA, an Asiatic kingdom, of great note at a very remote period. It was also called Bactriana and Bactra, the name of its capital. Its northern and eastern boundary was the river Oxus; the Sogdi were on its northern, and other Scythian tribes, such as the Sace, on its eastern frontier; to the south, Mount Paropamisus separated it from the heads of the Indus; and it had Margiana on the west. It was a hilly, but fertile, country, well watered by streams running into the Oxus. Its climate was mild and favourable to vegetation, well peopled, and containing several large towns, particularly the capital, Bactra, which greatly surpassed the rest in strength and magnitude; it was considered as a very flourishing state. Strabo (xi.) and Pliny (vi. 15, 16.) have named this city Zariaspas. There seems to be no room for doubting that Bactra is the Balkh of the modern Asiatics. (See BALKH.) The advantageous position of this country, between the 35th and 38th parallels of north latitude, on the largest stream in Asia, next to the Indian rivers; its vicinity to India, of which the produce and manufactures were always in great request; and the practicability of its roads, which are not obstructed by any of those impediments that render the passage of Caucasus and Imaus so difficult; all contributed to augment the commerce of Bactria, which was, for many centuries, almost the only channel open to the trade between India and Europe. This also, if not the native country of Zoroaster, was that in which his doctrines were first disseminated; and its capital was the residence of the ancient Persian kings. Balkh is named in the sacred books of the Persians (the followers of Zoroaster) Bakhdi, and the Oxus Bakhler (i. e. the river from the rising sun.) (For the history of Bactria see the art. CYRUS, ALEXANDER, and NUCRIDIAN; Monneret's Geogr. iv. p. 457; Larcher's Herodot. viii.; Wahi's Asiat. i. 566; Kinnier's Persia, 187; Elphinstone's Kabul, 464.)

BACTRIS, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Monocotyledon*, order *Hexandria*. Generic character. General spathe of one valve; spadix branched. Male flower: calyx tripartite, corolla trifid. Female flower: stigma capitate; drupa fibroso-succulent.

This genus of the palm tribe contains two species, natives of Carthage. Jacquin, select. stirp. Amer. Hist. tab. 171.

BACKWARD, *n.* From back and ward. Ward is BACKWARD, *adj.* in the A. S. *Ward*, or *ward*, is BACKWARD, *adv.* the imperative of the verb *wardian*, or *wardian*, to look at, or BACKWARDLY, to direct the view. (Tooke, i. BACKWARDNESS. 406.) *Ward* may with propriety be joined to the name of any person, place, or thing, to or from which our view or sight may be directed. To

Shakespeare, "The dark backward or abyss of time;" is the point of time, back, or passed, to which our view may be directed: to be backward, is to be as those are, whose sight, views, thoughts, wishes, inclinations are directed back; (who cast a longing, lingering, look behind;) and who thus are Slow, dilatory, unwilling, reluctant; (*sc.*) to step or move forward.

R. title him ran, a stroke on him he felt,
He smote him in the helm, backward he bore him strophe.
R. *Drum*, p. 150.

And thou, Simois, that as an arrow cleve
Through Troy rears,
Return backwards to thy well.

Chaucer. *Troilus and Criseide*, fol. 184. c. ii.

Whence ever huddle said these things, who torpide backward
and sigh Jhevan stonydye, and wiate not that it was Jhevan.
Wiclif. *Jen*, c. xxi.

But how is it

That this fire in thy mind? What seest thou else
In the dark backward and abysm of time?
Thou rememberest ought ere thou wast here,
How thou canst sit here thus mist.

Shakespeare. *Troilus*, fol. 2.

Our Britalons' hearts dye dying, not our men.
To darkness fleets souls that five backward: stand!
Or we are Romans, and will give you that
Like beasts, which you then treatly, and may pass
But to look back in frown. Stand, stand!

Id. *Cyndeline*, fol. 392.

For in my conscience, I was the first man
That received grief from him.
And does he think so backwardly of me now,
That he requite it last!

Id. *Timon of Athens*, fol. 86.

Amongst all other encumbrances and delays in our way to heaven, there is no one that doth so clog and trammel, so discommodate and backward us, and in fact, so cast us behind in our race; as a contentedness in a false worship of God, an acquiescence and resting satisfied in outward performances.

Hawmond. *Sermon* xv.

On each hand the flames
Dre'n backward slope their pointing spires, and round
In billows, leave I th' midst a horrid vale.

Milton. *Paradise Lost*, book i.

Or by the girdles grasp'd, they practice with the big
The forward, backward, false, the near, the turn, the trip,
When strip into their shirts, each other they invade,
Within a spacious flag.

Dryden. *Polixenus*, Song i.

His page, who from his side might never move,
Remembrance, on him waits; in books reciting
The famous passions of that highest love.

His burning zeal to greater flames exciting:
Deep would he sigh, and seem compassion'd sore,
And oft with tears his backward heart deplore,
That loving all he could, he lov'd that love so more.

P. Fletcher. *The Purple Island*, c. ii.

Let me therefore beseech you once again to be serious in labouring after it, and to take pains with your backward hearts to bring them to it, have God always before you; eyes; let him remain continually in your thoughts.

Beveridge. *Sermon* cxlii.

He sent a messenger to the old king of Aramia, named Topiway, who came the next day before noon, on foot, from his house, and return'd the same evening, being twenty-eight miles backward and forwards, though himself was one hundred and ten years of age.

Old's Life of Sir W. Raleigh.

Where then lies the difficulty? what should be the cause of all this backwardness which we see in men to go plain, so necessary, and so beneficial a duty?

Tiddens. *Sermon* cxlii.

Men should press forward in fame's glorious chase;

Nobles look backward, and so lose the race.

Young's *Perns*. *Satire* i.

BACK-
WARD.

BACK-
WARD.
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BADAJOZ

The wisdom of the Roman republic in their veneration for custom, and *bona-fides* to introduce a new law, was perhaps the cause of their long continuance, and of the virtues of which they have set the word so many examples.

Goldsmith. Essay on Custom and Law.

BAD, } In the Goth. we find *bauths*, *surdus*,
B'OLY, } *boudai*, *sudi*; and Janus observes, that,
B'DNESS. } as whatever has lost its odour or its
savour is called *surdum* in Latin, so in the *Codez*
Argenteus, *boud* is, *insipidus*, *fatuus*. *Luke*, c. xiv. v. 34.
Gabai salt boud waithith; sic ut ecomerit, (infatuatur,
Heza.) And he suggests, that from this last acceptation
of the word, we may have taken our *bad*, *malus*,
inastilis. *Janus Goth. Gloss.* p. 85.

That which is *bad* then, is like salt which has lost
its savour; i. e. of no use, unfit for any useful pur-
pose; corrupted, spoilt. And more strongly

Hurtful, injurious, destructive, mischievous, vici-
ous, wicked.

So longe loon spede *baddelich*, jut hi might as wel klins.
H. Gloucester, p. 566.

Of sondry desires that they jangle and tete,
As lewd people demen casually
Of things, that ben made more subtilly,
Than they can in hir lewedenesse comprehend,
They demen gladly to the ladder cede.

Chaucer. The Squire's Tale, v. 16338.

Selden or with gret paine ben causes brought to a good ende,
whan they ben *bady* begones.

Id. The Tale of Melibee, v. ll. p. 104.

For ofte tyme that despise

The good fortune sei he had.

Gower. Con. Am. book 1.

Therefore (q*uod* also) if any might should give a true sentence on
such matters, the cause of the disease must then see well, *vide*
stande thereupon after what end it draweth, that is to sayne good
or *bad*, so ought it to have his fame by goodness, or *calumny* by
badness.

Chaucer. The Tale of Love, fol. 291. c. l.

I told ye then he should prevail and speed

On his *bad* errand; yea should he *seduct*

And flatter'd out of all, believing lies

Against his Maker.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book x.

When he [Sylva] was in his chiefest authority, he would com-
monly eat and drink with the most impudent jesters and scoffers,
all such *rak-e-bells*, and made professions of countenance mirth,
and would strive with the *boddest* of them to give the *finest* mock.

North's Plutarch, fol. 386.

Thereupon puff'd up with pride, as a conqueror of publick
servitude, he went to the capitol, and gave thanks to the gods;
letting loose the reins to all lusts and licentiousness of life, which
before *bady* restrained, yet the reverence towards his mother, such
as it was, did in some sort bridle.

Greneway. Tacitus, Annals, book xiv.

It will be a third good use of what has been discovered, if we
learn from thence, not to measure doctrines by persons, or persons
by doctrines; that is, not to make one a complete rule and stand-
ard, whereby to judge of the goodness or *badness* of the other.

Atterbury. Sermon ii. v. iv.

Every one must see and feel, that *bad* thoughts quickly ripen
into *bad* actions; and that if the latter only are forbidden, and the
former left free, all morality will soon be at an end.

Fordyce's Lectures, St. Math. vii.

The *badness* of the weather likewise, for several years past,
obliges me to think of making some abatements in my route, which
I cannot possibly settle unless I am present.

Melmoth's Pilgr. Letter xl. book x.

RADA, in Zoology, a name given to the rhinoceros
by the negroes on the coast of Angola.

BADAJOZ, a city in Spain, the capital of Estremadu-
ra. It stands on a plain on the river Guadiana. Long.
W. 6° 47'. lat. N. 38° 49'. 82 miles N. from Seville,

40 S. from Alcantara. It is approached from the Por-
tuguese side by a handsome bridge of 38 arches, and
nearly 1000 feet in length. The public buildings, with
the exception of the cathedral, merit little notice: the
only manufacture is hats. Population 14,300. The
Roman *Pax Augusta*, of which Badajoz is supposed to
be a corruption, stood on much higher ground.

As a barrier against Portugal, Badajoz has always
been regarded as an important fortress. It is a place
of considerable strength, little more than four miles
from the frontiers. The Goths captured it in the fifth
century; the Moors in the eighth, and Alphonso of
Castile reconquered it in 1230: the Portuguese unsuccess-
fully besieged it in 1660 and 1705. Lord Wel-
lington invested Badajoz on the 18th of March, 1812;
and practical breaches having been effected on the
evening of the 6th of April, it was assaulted on the same
night. General Picton established himself in the
castle; but after repeated attempts upon the town
itself, the British troops were obliged to return to
their original ground: the possession of the castle,
however, so far commanded the other works, that the
French commandant thought it advisable to surren-
der at daylight: 1200 men out of a garrison of 5000,
were killed or wounded during the siege. Of the
besiegers, British and Portuguese, upwards of 4000
were put *hors de combat*. But the possession of Bada-
jox, in conjunction with Ciudad Rodrigo was thought
to secure the defences of Portugal, and to be well
worth the price paid for their attainment.

BADAKHISHAN, the capital of a district in Turk-
istana. See TURKISTAN.

BADBY, a considerable village in Northampton-
shire. Population, in 1821, 547. Poor's rates, in 1803,
at 6s. 11½d. *æ* 442. 18s. 5d.; a rectory. Patrons, Dean
and Chapter of Christ Church, Oxford. On the sum-
mit of Arbury hill, (so called, from the British word
ard, high, and the Saxon *burgh*, or *bury*, fortification,) is
this parish, stand the remains of a large Roman
encampment. The *agger* is very steep; the *fossa* is
nearly perfect, very wide, and twenty feet deep: the
whole area inclosed is about ten acres. It is supposed
to have been one of the line of camps formed by Ostor-
ius on and near the Watling-street, from which a
cut seems to have led by this camp into Oxfordshire.

BADDERLOCKS, a name given in Scotland to
the *fucus vesiculosus*, or *estable sea-weed*. It is com-
monly about four feet long, and seven or eight inches
wide, but varies in length from three yards to a foot,
and in breadth, from a foot to two inches: the sub-
stance is thin, membranaceous, and pellucid; the
colour, green or olive. This *fucus* is eaten in the
north of Scotland both by men and cattle; it is in its
greatest perfection in the month of September. It is
figured in Lightfoot's *Flora Scotica*, vol. ii. tab. 28.
The species of *fucus* which is eaten by the common
people of Edinburgh is the *F. Palmatis*, *DILUS*, or
DILUS, which see.

BADDESLEY, a small village in Hampshire,
where, in the twelfth century, was founded a precep-
tory of Knights Templars. It became remarkable
about sixty years ago, from the following circum-
stance, which has been recorded by Mr. Gilpin:—

"A cottager, who lived near the centre of the vil-
lage, heard frequently a strange noise behind his house,
like that of a person in extreme agony. Soon after it
caught the attention of his wife, who was then

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confined to her bed. She was a timorous woman, and being greatly alarmed, her husband endeavoured to persuade her that the noise she heard was only the bellowing of the stags in the forest. By degrees, however, the neighbours on all sides heard it; and the circumstance began to be much talked of. It was by this time plainly discovered, that the groaning noise proceeded from an elm, which grew at the bottom of the garden. It was a young vigorous tree, and to all appearance perfectly sound. In a few weeks the flame of the groaning-tree was spread far and wide; and people from all parts flocked to hear it. Among others, it attracted the curiosity of the late Prince and Princess of Wales, who resided at that time, for the advantage of a sea-bath, at Pilewell, within a quarter of a mile of the groaning-tree.

"Though the country people assigned many superstitious causes for this strange phenomenon, the naturalists could assign no physical one, that was in any degree satisfactory. Some thought it was owing to the twisting and friction of the roots; others thought that it proceeded from water, which had collected in the body of the tree; or, perhaps, from pent air: but no cause that was alleged appeared equal to the effect. In the meantime the tree did not always groan; sometimes disappointing its visitants; yet no cause could be assigned for its temporary cessations, either from seasons or weather. If any difference was observed, it was thought to groan least when the weather was wet, and most when it was clear and frosty; but the sound at all times seemed to come from the roots.

"Thus the groaning-tree continued an object of astonishment, during the space of eighteen or twenty months, to all the country round; and for the information of distant parts, a pamphlet was drawn up, containing a particular account of all the circumstances relating to it. At length the owner of it, a gentleman of the name of Forbes, making too rash an experiment to discover the cause, bored a hole in its trunk. After this it never groaned. It was then rooted up, with a further view to make a discovery; but nothing appeared which led to any investigation of the cause. It was universally believed, however, that there was no trick in the affair; but that some natural cause really existed, though it was never understood."—*Remarks on Forest Scenery*, vol. i. p. 163, 164.

BADEN, formerly a margraviate of Germany, in the circle of Swabia. It extended along the east bank of the Rhine, and now forms an important part of the Grand Duchy of the same name. It was composed of Baden-Baden, and Baden-Durlach. The first of these, and part of the last, formed a compact territory, encompassed by Spire, Wirtemberg, the bishopric of Strasburg, and the Rhine. A part of Baden-Durlach was insulated towards the south. Both parts, with the country of Eberstein, contained together a surface of 1186 square miles, and a population of about 180,000 individuals. These occupied seventeen towns, fourteen boroughs, and about 500 villages and hamlets; and yielded a yearly revenue to the margrave of nearly £150,000. The physical nature of the country, its productions, and other circumstances worthy of notice, are included in the following account of the Grand Duchy, of which the margraviate now forms the basis.

BADEN, GRAND DUCHY OF, comprises the preceding

margraviate, with various other districts which the fortune of war, the intrigues of cabinets, and other circumstances have annexed to the patrimonial domains of the house of Baden. The united possessions now form a territory stretching along the right bank of the Rhine, which separates it from France, and a part of the kingdom of Bavaria, situated on the west of that river. These dominions stretch from Switzerland on the south, to Hesse Darmstadt on the north; and are bounded by Wirtemberg and Bavaria on the east, while they reach the lake of Constance on the south-east. The length of the Grand Duchy may be estimated at 150 miles, but its breadth seldom exceeds 40 miles, except at the south end, where it is more than double that width. The whole area is about 5800 English square miles; and the population has lately been stated at 1,009,000, which is about 173 persons to each square mile.

Like many of the other German states, Baden has undergone great variation, both in extent and title, since the commencement of the French revolution. The founder of the house of Baden was Herman, the second son of Berthold I. duke of Zähringen, who died before the close of the eleventh century. About the middle of the sixteenth century the margraviate was divided between the two branches of Baden and Durlach; but these were again united in 1771. Prior to the French revolution, the possessions of this prince were, the margraviate on the right bank of the Rhine, with some territories in Bohemia, and other districts of Germany, and several tracts in Luxemburg, Alsace, and other parts on the French side of the Rhine. But when the dominions on the left bank of this river were ceded to France by the treaty of Lunéville, concluded in February, 1801, the German princes were indemnified for their losses by the secularization of ecclesiastical domains, the reduction of the imperial cities, and other alterations, which were made in the constitution of Germany. Before this took place, the margrave of Baden had three votes in the council of princes; and one as count of Eberstein, in the chamber of counts. As an indemnity for the districts ceded to France, he received, in 1802, the bishopric of Constance, and those parts of Basle, Strassburg, and Spire, which laid on the right bank of that river, with several bailiwicks in the Lower Palatinate and Hesse, with the lordship of Lahr, and some secularized abbeys and imperial towns. He was, at the same time, raised to the rank of an elector, with three additional votes in the diet. His augmented possessions then amounted to about 2770 English square miles, and contained a population of nearly 410,000 individuals. When the coalition was formed against France in 1805, Bavaria, Wirtemberg, and Baden, were the allies of Buonaparte; and after the defeat of the confederate powers at Austerlitz had led to the peace of Presburg, which was followed by the formation of the Confederacy of the Rhine, those three states participated in the ceded possessions. Baden was created a Grand Duchy, and ceded the town and territory of Biberach to Wirtemberg; this town had been reduced from its imperial dignity, and assigned to Baden in 1802. For this, however, the grand duke received the territories of Billingen, and Breunlingen, the greater part of the Brisgau, the principality of Heitersheim, the county of Bodorf, the district of Ortenau, and the sovereignty of a great number of

BADEN.

BADEN. smaller mediæval states. The county of Nellenberg, and some other adjacent tracts, were soon after added; and by an interchange of territory, the detached districts near the lake of Constance, were rendered contiguous to the other dominions. These acquisitions raised the possessions of Baden to the extent and population already stated; all of which were guaranteed to the grand duke by the Congress at Vienna, in 1815.

When these dominions had received their final accessions, they were divided, in 1807, into three distinct parts, viz. a landgraviate, a margraviate, and a palatinate; or the provinces of the Upper, Middle, and Lower Rhine. But this division was superseded, in 1809, by one into nine circles, which, with their population, according to a late enumeration, as given in M. Hassel's *Statistics*, are

Circles.	Population.
1. The Lake (Seeckreis)	89,604
2. The Danube	77,735
3. The Weissen	116,954
4. The Treisam	135,867
5. The Kinsig	117,640
6. The Murg	85,112
7. The Pfalz and Enz	131,516
8. The Neckar	166,818
9. The Maine and Tauber ..	96,382
	<hr/> 1,001,630

These circles, except the first, evidently derived their names from the principal rivers by which the respective districts are watered; and the enumeration, therefore, presents at the same time, a list of the chief rivers in the Grand Duchy. The chief town in each of those circles, with the number of its inhabitants, are those annexed; the numbers in front show their correspondence with the circles, as enumerated above.

Chief Towns.	Population.
1. Constance	4,503
2. Villingen	5,316
3. Lorrach	1,906
4. Freyburg	10,108
5. Offenburg	2,888
6. Rastatt	4,804
7. Durlach	5,916
8. Mannheim	18,313
9. Wertheim	3,227

Carlsruhe is the capital of the whole Grand Duchy, and is situated in the circle of Pfalz and Enz, and contains a population of more than 10,000 people.

This Grand Duchy is greatly diversified by hill and dale, plain and mountain. Much of it is fertile, other parts are covered with wood; and the only tract which is incapable of cultivation is a part of the Black Forest in the Brisgau. It is intersected by the Neckar and the Maine, and washed on the west by the Rhine; but its size does not admit of any large river, which can be strictly said to belong to the dominions. That part of the country which borders on Switzerland is a mountainous region, and several chains intersect other districts. The climate is in general agreeable and salubrious; and though the air is sharp in some of the elevated districts, the temperature is sufficient in all the lower parts to mature the grape. Good

wine is therefore made in many places. Agriculture affords employment and subsistence to a great proportion of the inhabitants; and has, of late years, been much improved. Government has likewise paid great attention to the making of roads, the abolition of feudal vassalage, and the internal amelioration of the country. Its chief produce is different kinds of grain, with flax, hemp, wine, fruit, and timber, which are not only obtained in sufficient quantities for home consumption, but some of them exported, particularly by means of the Rhine, to Holland. The horses of Baden are reckoned superior to those of many other districts of Germany. Several of the mountains yield valuable minerals; among which are silver, iron, and cobalt. Baden is rather an agricultural than a manufacturing country, yet a variety of articles, both for use and ornament, are made in small quantities: those include woollens, cottons, silks, linens, shawls, leather, porcelain, and several metallic articles. The working of mines and forges also occupies a number of people, as well as cutting timber, and transporting it in rafts to Holland. Baden exports grain, wine, timber, and iron; and receives, in return, East and West India produce, with manufactured articles from England and France.

The government of the Grand Duchy is hereditary, and the executive part is under the direction of four ministers, who form a cabinet, called the ministerial conference. The French code of laws (*Code de Napoléon*) was adopted, and is still in use, with some slight modifications to adapt it to the peculiar circumstances of the people. The army consists of 10,000 men; and the annual revenue exceeds half a million. Complete toleration is allowed in religious matters: the reigning prince, and many of the people, are Lutherans; but the majority are Roman Catholics. M. Hassel states those, professing the different religions, at the following numbers: viz.—

Roman Catholics	620,000
Lutherans	306,000
Calvinists	61,000
Jews	15,060
Mennonites	1,290

Education has been more attended to in this duchy than in many other parts of Germany, and both literature and other kinds of useful knowledge, are, in consequence, more widely diffused. For the increase of these, a number of schools, libraries, and literary institutions, are laudably patronised by the grand duke, who has also lately agreed to a representative constitution, conformable to the stipulations entered into at the Congress of Vienna, when the German Confederacy was formed.

BADGE. } Skinner thinks from the Dutch, *Ba'delass*, } *baggie, gemma*; from the Lat. *baceo*; and thence also the Fr. *bagu*, a ring. In the A. S. we find "*beage, corona, sericum*, a crown, a garland; also, *armilla, monile*, a bracelet to wear on the arm or wrist; a jewell to hang about one's neck, a necklace;" perhaps, says Sommer, from the A. S. *baegan*, or *bygan*, to bend, to curve, to bow; whence also the Bar. Lat. *baceo* and *bauga*, *armilla*; and whence also, in Wachter's opinion, the Fr. *bagu*, a ring: which likewise is applied to the reward bestowed on, or prize gained by, him, that does best in any game or exercise. Cotgrave. Hence, then, to any

Mark, or note of distinction.

BADEN.
BADGE.

BADGE. Christ hath so left love & charity for ye badge of his christ people, that he counteth every man so largely to love other, that his love should extend & stretch unto his enemy.
BAEA. *Sir Thomas More's Works*, fol. 314.

If thou wylste take upon thee to be Christes discipyle, see that thou weare his badge, christes charitie.

U'fall. Prologue to Epk.

Their hands and faces were all badge'd with blood,
 So were their daggers, which wimp'd, we found
 Upon their pillows. *Blackhearts. Mocheth*, fol. 138.
 Look up, languishing soul! Lo where the faire
 Badge of thy faith calls back thy care,
 And bids thee ne'er forget
 Thy life is one long debt
 Of love to him, who on this painful tree
 Paid back the flesh he took for thee.

Crashaw. The Hymn of the Holy Cross.

Had I—a shop lyeen fallen but from hence,
 His doores close scald'd as in some pestilence.
 Whiles his light beeches their fearful fight can take,
 To get some badge-less love upon his necke?

Bishop Hall. Satire v. book iv.

The great badge of our religion, the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, is so shamefully laid aside, that a great part of the kingdom never receive it all, and very few as often as the law requires.

Beveridge. Sermon xxiv. v. l.

The fact is, that charity, or love to man in all its extent, being the most eminent of all the evangelical virtues, being that which Christ has made the very badge and discriminating mark of his religion, is here constituted by him the representative of all other virtues.

Porteus. Lectures, St. Mat. x.

BA'DGER, v. Junius offers no etymology. Skin-Ba'dger, *n.* } *ser* says, perhaps, from the Dutch back, a cheek, a jaw, *q. d. backer*, (i. e.) endowed with strong jaws: *et est some animal mordacissimum*.

To badger, is to hunt, pursue, pester, persecute; as the badger is hunted, &c.

These being the holiest things, were to be taken down and tramped up by the priests, some of them in blue silk, some in scarlet, some in purple cloth, all in badgers' skins, and the bars and carriages to be put to them by the priests, as is prescribed.

Spelman. On Tythes, fol. 84.

The fangs of a bear, and the tusks of a wild boar, do not bite worse, and make deeper gashes, than a porcupine's sometimes; so not the badger himself, who is said to be so treacherous of his bite, that he will not give over his hold till he feels his teeth meet, and the bones crack.

Huwell. Letters, book ii. letter ii.

In the case of hunting the fox or the badger, a man cannot justify breaking the soil, and digging him out of his earth: for though the law warrants the hunting of such noxious animals for the public good, yet it is held that such things must be done in an ordinary and usual manner.

Blackstone. Commentaries, v. iii. p. 213.

BADGER, in *Zoology*, see *MELAS*.

BADIAGA, in *Materia Medica*, a sponge, according to Linnaeus, although it differs from common sponges, being full of small hard grains, connected by friable herbaceous fibres. It grows under water. It is usually sold in Russia, and the powder made from it removes in a few hours all marks of lividity. It is described by Boubouin.

BADIBU, a Negro State, see *MANNING*.

BADIGEON, a composition of plaster and free-stone, ground and sifted together, used by statuary to repair my defects in the blocks upon which they are working. Also a composition of sawdust and glue, used by joiners for the same purpose in wood.

BAEA, in *Botany*, *o* genus of plants, class *Dianthia*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: corolla ringent, tube very short, upper lip flat, tridentate; lower lip flat, bilobate: capsule bilocular, quadrivalvular, contorted. Calyx quinquepartite, equal.

This genus is closely allied to *Calceolaria*. The only species described, inhabits rocks in the straits of Magellan. *Lamarck Encycl. i. p. 396. tab. 16.*

BAEDA, see *BANANA*.

BELAMA, in *Zoology*, the name given by the Arabs, according to Forskal, to a species of Clupea. **BAEOBOTRYS**, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: corolla tubulose, quinquefid. Calyx dooble, superior; exterior of two leaves; inferior campanulate quinque-dentate. Berry unilocular, many-seeded.

Willdenow describes two species; one, a native of Arabia, is figured by Mart. Vahl. *Symbols Botanice*, tab. 6.

BÆTICA, one of the three provinces into which Augustus divided Spain after it became subject to the Roman power: the other two were Lusitania and Tarraconensis. Bætica included the southern districts, and partly corresponded with the present Andalusia and Grenada. Its name was derived from the river Bætis, the chief stream by which it was watered, and which was afterwards called Tartessus, and is now the Guadalquivir, or Great River. It was bounded on the west by Lusitania; on the south by the Mediterranean and the gulf of Gades; while on the north and north-east the boundary was fluctuating and uncertain. The principal mountains which diversified the surface of this division of ancient Spain, were the Marianus, which form the present Sierra Morena; and the Orospeña, which constitute part of the Sierra Nevada. The chief rivers were the Arna and Bætis: the latter divided it into two parts, and in that watered by the former were situated the Terdotali, from whom it was sometimes called the kingdom of Terdotali; but was better known as Bæstia. On the opposite side of this river, and particularly on the coasts of the Mediterranean, were the Bastuli, Bastitani, and Contestani. Bætica was considered by ancient authors as the richest and best known province of Spain. It was celebrated for its wool, and Pliny estimates the produce of the country at a hundred fold. The Phœnicians were long established on these coasts; and the Carthaginians had also settlements on the same shores. Polybius speaks in high terms of the wealth of Bætica, and states the number of its cities at 175; eight of which were colonies, eight municipal, twenty-nine enjoyed the jus Latii, and six were free. This account, given by Polybius, appears to be confirmed by the names which the natives gave to the river Bætis. This they called Cirtum and Certis. The Ambrani also called it Cirtus, which Marian says was derived from the oriental term *kiriath*, a town. The literal signification of these appellations was, therefore, the river of towns, given it on account of the great number of cities it watered in its progress to the sea.

BAFFA, the ancient *PAPHOS*, a seaport on the west coast of the island of Cyprus, situated on a rocky eminence close to the sea. It has a small harbour, which is much choked with sand, and is avoided by mariners, except at certain seasons, because it has no shelter from the violence of the winds which prevail in these regions. The Turks have built a strong fort on the point of the rock for the defence of the town, which though once considered as a place of considerable importance, is now greatly reduced. The houses of the town are every where interspersed with gardens; and in its vicinity are found those fine specimens of

BAEA.
BAFFA.

BAFFA.
BAFFIN'S
BAY.

rock-crystal which are called Baffa diamonds. Amianthus of superior quality is also obtained in the neighbourhood: it is called cotton-stone by the natives, is perfectly white, and almost as flexible as silk. Baffa has long been governed by a Turkish agha; but it derives its principal interest from its manifest connection with times that are long since past. Numerous remains of antiquity are dispersed over its immediate vicinity. Among these, many fragments of highly polished dark marble columns have been found on the shore, and are supposed to have once formed part of the palace of Aphroditis. Further towards the east, other columns, of still greater dimensions, appear to mark the site of a temple; and the neighbouring cliffs are hollowed into numerous sepulchral grottoes. Some excavated dwellings are to be seen on the plain between the town and the interior of the island. A subterranean church has also been discovered, which was dedicated to the seven sleepers. Baffa has long been an episcopal see, and possessed several christian churches, only one of which now remains, though it has still a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Nicotia. Baffa having originated in the ancient and celebrated city of Paphos the inhabitants of Citium were also removed thither when that city was destroyed by Ptolemy Lagos. Latitude $34^{\circ} 48'$ north, and longitude $32^{\circ} 18'$ east.

BAFFIN'S BAY, a large gulf on the western confines of the Northern ocean, situated between seventy and eighty degrees of latitude. It is limited by Greenland on the east, and America on the west; and while it is bounded by Davis' straits on the south, it stretches to an unknown extent towards the pole; but it does not appear to have been navigated farther than seventy-eight degrees of latitude. It abounds with whales, walruses, and other animals common to the Arctic ocean. When the discovery of the passage to India by the Cape of Good Hope had more fully laid open the eastern regions of the Old World, adventurers soon became desirous of finding a shorter route to the treasures possessed by these countries. Africa precluded them from acquiring it towards the south-east; and the great southern promontory of America equally shut out hope from the south-west quarter. The north-east, round the limits of Asia, or the north-west, beyond the confines of America, therefore, remained as the only points to which even possibility was attached. In the former of these, several unsuccessful attempts were early made, and with them hope seems to have expired; but around the north-west, though all endeavours to accomplish the object were equally abortive, it still lingered, and its very existence constantly excited new efforts for realizing the desired passage. It was in one of these researches, in which the little bark *Discovery*, of fifty-five tons, was a fifth time engaged, under the command of Robert Bylot, and William Baffin, who was pilot, that this bay was discovered, in 1616. The account of the voyage was drawn up by Baffin, and his name was given to the inlet. The farthest point he professes to have reached, was in seventy-eight degrees of latitude; and this he named Smith's Sound, in honour of Sir Thomas Smith, one of the adventurers by whom the vessel was fitted out. This discovery was made on the 4th of July; after which they stood to the south-west, and on the 12th discovered another large sound, in latitude $74^{\circ} 30'$, which they called Sir James

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Lancaster's Sound. No farther discovery of importance was made in this direction till a very recent period; but as the fate of the last expedition which sailed from England is still pending, we must reserve any account of the recent results, either for the term North-west Passage, or some other convenient opportunity, when we hope the question will be for ever set at rest.

BAFFLE, *v.* } Of unsettled etymology.
BAFFLE, *n.* } Fr. *baffier*, from the *ft. baffare*, to
BAFFLED. } deceive, mock, or gull with fair words, &c.

Fr. *baffoner*, to *baffle*, abuse, revile, disgrace, handle husily in terms, give reproachful words to. Juallus thinks these French words have some affinity with the Dutch *baffen* or *baffen*, to bark, whence also *verbaffen* and *verblaffen*, to baffle, to put out of countenance. In addition to the above explanations,

To *baffle*, is to defeat by perplexing, confusing, deceiving; to render or make useless, and ineffectual.

And furthermore, the *erie* had the herald to say to his master, that if he for his part kept not his appointment, then he was content, that the Scotie should *ceffell* him, which is a great reproche among the Scotie, and is used when a man is openly peised, and then they make of him an image payzed reserved, with his helms upreared, with his name, wonderfyll, cypress and blowing out of hym with hermes, in the most dignified manner they can. In token that he is to be excused the compaignie of all good creatures. Hall. *King Henry VIII.*

If you get but once handsomely off, you are made ever after; for you will be free from all *baffles* and affronts.

Huwall. *Letters*, book ii. letter xiv.

We may here take notice of another stratagem and policy of the devil in this, both to obscure the miracle of our Saviour Christ, and to weaken men's faith in the Messiah, and *baffle* the notion of it. Cudworth. *Intel. System*, fol. 269.

First, he his beard did shake, and foolishly shent
Then from him reft his shield, and it e'ncer't,
And blotted out his armes with falshood blest,
And himselfe befoild, and his armes rubrest,
And broke his sword in twise, and all his armour spent.

Spenser. *Fairie Queene*, book v. c. iii.

Experience, that great *baffler* of speculation, assures us the thing is too possible, and brings, in all ages, matter of fact to confute our speculations. Goe. of the Tongue.

The passion of these memorable lovers was such, that it illuded the rigour of their fortune, and *baffled* the force of a blow, which neither felt, because each receiv'd it for the sake of the other. Tattler, No. 72.

But, though the felon on his back could dare
The dreadful leap, more rational, his steed
Declia'd the death, and wheeling swiftly round,
Or e'er his hoof had prest'd the crumbling verge,
Baffled his rider, nor'd against his will!

Cowper. *The Task*, book vi.

BAG, *v.* } Sax. *belge*; *belig*, (belly). Dutch,
BAG, *n.* } *bagh*; Ger. *bag*.
To *bag*, is to belly out; to swell; to bag game, &c. is to put into a bag.

To *bag*, in Chaucer, is to swell with pride, arrogance, self-coacait.

She goth wright, and yet she halt
That *baggheth* foule, and toketh faire.

Chaucer. *Dreame of*, fol. 241. c. iii.

His bookes and his bagges many on
He leyth before him on his counting bord.

Id. *The Shipman's Tale*, v. 1312.

I sawe essay in that painting
Had a wonderfull looking

For she so locked but woeie
Or overhewt, all baggingly.

Id. *Rom. Rose*, fol. 117. c. iv.
2 a

BAG.
— **BAGGAGE**

Which thing we should shortly do, if we would once torne our wallets that I told you of, and the *bagge* with other folks faulted cast at our backs, and cast the *bagge* that bereth our swa faultes, cast it once before vs at our head.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 233.

For that (as some hold) the females, or does of that kind, by licking of salt only, will conceive and be *bagged* without the company of males or bucks.

Malind. Plutarch, fol. 597.

How doth an unweelcome droppe *bagge* up the eyes, and mislake the face and body, with unpleasing and unkindly tumors?

Heall. The Pil of Pride, li. 408.

This Gillippus did rip the seams of every *bag* in the bottom where the money was, and took a good sum out of every of them; and afterwards sewed them up again, not thinking that there had been a border upon every *bag*, upon the which was declared, the number and kinds of gold and silver that were therein.

North. Plutarch, fol. 378.

Every one fancied himself threatened by the apparition as she [Poverty] stalked about the room, and began to lock their coffers, and to *bag* the room, with the utmost fear and trembling.

Twelfth, No. 123.

True to his charge, the close-pack'd head behind,
Yet careless what he brings, his own concern
Is to conduct it to the destiny it in;
And having dropp'd th' expected *bag*, pass on.

Cowper. The Task, book iv.

BAGAUDÆ, or BACAUDÆ. Celtic, *Bagau*, a tumultuous assembly. A faction of peasants in Gaul, who, reduced to a state of servitude by the nobles, experienced from the reign of Gallienus to that of Diocletian, the complicated tyranny of their masters, of the Roman soldiers, and of the officers of the revenue. In the reign of Claudius II. A. D. 269, they first revolted, and stormed the city of Autun, after seven months siege. Villages and open towns were every where abandoned to their ravages; and they shook off the yoke of slavery only to shew their incompetency for freedom, by a perpetration of the most cruel barbarities. When Diocletian had associated Maximian with himself in the imperial government, the first exploit of the last was the reduction of the Bagaudæ. Two of their ovoid during leaders, Elianus and Amantius, had the boldness to assume the title and the decorations of the Cæsars, and the excheats of the curious still contain medals which they coined. It has been said that they were Christians; but even Gibbon, (ii. 123.) though not without a sneer, rejects this fact. The victory of Maximian was easy, and his retaliation severe; and the unsuccessful effort of the Bagaudæ only riveted their chains more firmly.

BAGEMDER, a province of Abyssinia. See **HAREN**.

BAGGAGE, from the same root as *bag*. Swed. *bagge*; Dutch, *baggie*; Fr. *bagage*; It. *bagaglio*; Sp. *bagajes*. It is applied to

The furniture, utensils and other articles, *bagged*, or conveyed in *bags*, for the use of an army, a traveller, &c. Also to such articles in whatever manner conveyed: to any luggage, package: to the attendants upon such luggage, male or female. To women of a similar character to those who follow with the *baggage*; and less strictly, to any playful, wanton, or saucy female.

And to the barge we thought of home
They went, without was left our coat
Howe male, trane, no *baggage*.

Chaucer, Dream of, fol. 363. c. 1.

Howe lasciviously they revelle, and how stulticously they continue their *baggage* of duncie ceremonies, holistrous worshippings.

Edall. Aples. Prologue.

After this the hole came removed with *bagge* and *baggage*, and the same night in the evening kyng Henry with great pompe came to the towne of Leicester.

Hall. King Richard III.

Two regiments stood their ground, and were almost all killed in their ranks: the rest did run in a most shameful manner: so that both their artillery and *baggage* were lost, and with these a great many prisoners were taken, some thousands in all.

Shuerl. Own Times, l. 65.

The lord deputy would not listen to any treaty with the confederates of traitors and rebels; no, not so much as to their departure with *bag* and *baggage*, or free passage to any one particular person; nothing but an absolute surrender.

Old. Life of Sir W. Raleigh.

One of them, that was older and more sober than the rest, told him, that he had a widow in his line of life: upon which the knight cryed, Go, go, you are an idle *baggage*: and at the same time smiled upon me.

Spectator, No. 130.

You have long desired a visit from your grand-daughter, accompanied by me. For this purpose our *baggage* is actually making ready, and we are hastening to you with all the expedition the roads will permit.

Melmoth's Pilgr, book iv. letter 1.

Olivia and Sophia, too, promised to write, but seem to have forgotten me. Tell them they are two arrant little *baggages*, and that I am this moment in a most violent passion with them: yet still I know not how, though I want to bluster a little, my heart is compunctious only to softer emotions.

Goldsmith. Piers of Walsfield.

BAGHDAD, (BAGDAD, BALDAX, &c.) The chief city of a plashlik of the same name, and of Irak Arabi, or the Arabian Irak, on the eastern side of the Tigris, in lat. 33° 19' 40" N. and long. 44° 54' 45" E. It has succeeded to Babylon as the metropolis of that part of Asia; but is not, as has been erroneously supposed, on the same site. It stands on the same ground as Seleucia, (see art. BABYLON,) which was designed to supplant Babylon, and was itself supplanted by Ctesiphon and Al-madain. The present city was founded by the khalif Al-Mansur, in A. D. 148, (A. D. 765,) and is often called by the Arabian writers Dairu'l-Khilafah, the seat of the Khalifah; Dairu's-silm, the House of Salvation; or Burju'l-silbi, the Tower of the Saints. Different etymologies of the name have been given; but the most probable one is derived from the Persian Baghdad, i. e. Giveo to Bagh, the favourite deity of one of Andahavira's wives, who dedicated a temple to him on that spot, given to her by her husband in honour of the god. This, however, is very doubtful. It was anciently much more extensive than it is now, and was built on both sides of the Tigris. When Niebuhr saw it in 1766, a great part of it was entirely uninhabited; but it is still a populous for an Asiatic city, and some parts of it, particularly that near Serai, or plash's palace, are very richly built. It has, like all the towns in Asia, narrow, dirty streets, and large badans arches over. Its circumference has been estimated by the Orientals at 70,000 feet, (3 miles 4 nearly.) There are four principal gates, Imâm kapu-i, the Imâm's gate; Ak kapu, the White gate; Karamlik kapu, the Dark gate; and Jir kapu, Bridge gate. The first of these gates is now commonly called Bah Munzsem, the Exalted gate; it derives its modern, as well as its former name, from the tomb of Abb Hanfak, about a mile and a half distant. That great doctor is always called el kâzan, or mûnzsem, by the Sunnis, or orthodox, Mahometans: the second wurstani, or the middle, and the two others, retain their ancient names. A fifth was walled up by order of Murad (Amorath) IV.

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— **BAGHDAD.**

BAGHDAD.

who took Baghdad from the Persians in 1638; and it appears from an inscription, copied by Niebuhr, to have been built in A. H. 618, (A. D. 1221). The fortifications are completely out of repair, and would be contemptible to a European army; but were sufficient to stand repeated sieges from Nâdir Shâh. In the western angle of the town is the citadel called Ich kalâh: it contains the arsenal, powder-magazine, and barracks for the garrison. The Tigris at Baghdad is upwards of 600 feet wide; and on the west side of it there is a suburb, connected with the city by a miserable bridge of boats, upon which the Bâb Jisrî, (Bridge gate) opens. The great extent of this ancient city on the west, as well as on the east side of the river, appears from the ruins all round this suburb. That in fact was the first town built by the khalif Al-mansur.

Even in its present fallen state it is a place of great resort; being the residence of a pâshâ, a considerable mart, and a place of pilgrimage. It contains the tombs of many Mahometan saints; among others, those of the Imâms Abû Hanîfah and Hanbelî, founders of two of the orthodox sects; and of Mâsa Kâsim, one of the twelve Imâms, the successors of Ali, so much venerated by the Persians. To the literary traveller it offers many objects of greater interest: such as the tombs of Hârim-er-rahid, and his consort Zobeidâh, so often mentioned in the *Arabian Nights*; and the remains of some fine mosques and colleges, monuments of the most brilliant period of Arabian history. But even the wrecks of many palaces and public buildings, celebrated by eastern writers, have not entirely disappeared.

It is difficult to form any tolerable estimate of the population of an Asiatic town, particularly of one where there are always so many temporary inhabitants. Tavernier rated the number of souls here at 15,000, in the middle of the seventeenth century, and they probably do not amount to 50,000 at present; but it must not be forgotten, that one of the effects of oppression is to crowd the cities at the expense of the surrounding villages. This population consists of Arabs, Persians, Turks, Jews, Armenians, and other eastern Christians. They are represented as courteous to strangers, and of an independent spirit, much inclined to resist the arbitrary measures of the Porte. The truth seems to be, that the pâshâs sent from Constantinople are sensible of the advantage which their distance from the seat of government gives, and obey or disobey the orders of the sultan, as best suits their own convenience. The janissaries also, in which corps all the principal Mussulmen in the place are certainly enrolled, feel the power which that circumstance gives them, and have very little respect for any commands of which they do not approve; but genuine independence of spirit is not to be expected among the natives of Turkish cities. The wandering hordes of Kurds and Turkmans are the only subjects of the Porte who enjoy any thing like liberty, or shew a disposition to resist encroachments. The climate of Baghdad is liable to extremes of heat and cold; in summer, especially when the sham-yeel, or poisonous-wind, blows, the inhabitants are obliged to take refuge in the well ventilated cellars with which most of the houses are provided: and in winter the cold is sufficient to produce ice half an inch thick. This is considered as intolerable; and

the natives affirm that many are killed by exposure to it. The assertion, as Niebuhr remarks, (i. 394.) does not appear so incredible, when one considers how sparingly they are generally clad.

This pâshâlik or vice-royalty, of which Baghdad is the capital, is one of the largest in the Turkish empire. It contains eighteen sanjaks, or military divisions, and two districts of Kurdistan. According to the present distribution of the empire, it comprehends all its south-eastern angle; having Diyar-hoer and Mount Sineh on the north; Persia on the east; the Persian gulf on the south; and the Euphrates on the west. It therefore very nearly corresponds with the Mesopotamia of the ancients. Its area is about 178,100 square miles. The pâshâ (see BASHAW) is commander-in-chief of the troops stationed in his pâshâlik; and the next to him in command are the *aghas* of the janissaries and sipâhis. Their whole number amounts to 30,000; infantry and cavalry in nearly equal proportions. The cavalry are armed with a pistol, lance and sabre; except the Arabs, who carry only a lance. The infantry have a sabre and a musket. A corps of five hundred men, trained in the European manner, which was raised a few years ago, is still kept up; and there is a train of thirty field-pieces, which are tolerably well managed by the bombardiers; but these troops are as ill-paid and as ill-disciplined as most other Turkish soldiers; and would probably make no stand against an European force.

The revenue is derived from the customs, the capitulation-tax, occasional contributions of the towns and cities, and the tribute levied on the Arab tribes; but as the Kurds are entirely exempted from taxes, and the trade of Basrah is at a very low ebb, the amount of the receipts does not exceed 7,200,000 piastres, or £375,000; and the whole even of this sum is seldom collected.

The name of Baghdad often occurs in the history of the great conquerors of the East, (see HULAGHS, SOLIMAN, NAÏR SHAH, &c.) and its situation on the confines of two empires has exposed it to frequent sieges. Since its capture by Murad IV. in 1638, it has been a part of the Turkish empire: but in 1750, the principal inhabitants contrived to prevail upon the Porte to appoint the pâshâ whom they chose to name; and they have ever since maintained this species of virtual independence.

The commerce of Baghdad was once extensive and flourishing; but from various causes, particularly the imprudent oppression of its rulers, it has now greatly declined. Under the head of *BASORAH*, we shall particularize the principal objects of export and import into this province.

BAGHIGRETTY, (B'BAQIRAT'HI) the name of the two branches of the Ganges: (see GANGES), the one near its source, the other near its mouth. The first, the true Ganges, or Gangâ of the Hindus, flows from the Gangôtrî, in lat. 31° 6' N. and long. 79° E.; and, after describing a complete crescent, in a tortuous course of nearly 100 miles, joins the Alac-nandâ (which is the larger stream,) at Deb-prayag, about twenty miles to the west of Sah-nagar. It was traced as far as the village of Iat'idî (N. lat. 30° 40' 5") by the party sent to explore the sources of the Ganges in the spring of 1809; but the impediments and fatigue experienced in the least obstructed parts of the road, were such as rendered it impossible for them to pursue

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BAGHIGRETTY.

BAGHI-
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their inquiries farther, without the greatest risk; an intelligent native was therefore despatched with a compass, in the use of which he had been instructed, and from his distances and bearings, the remainder of the stream has been laid down in the latest maps of India. It issues from the eternal snows of Himalayan (Imaas) about half a mile above the Gangkwañ (or Ganggri), i. e. the descent of the Ganges, and not quite so much above the Gāṅgā mūc'h, or Cow's mouth. The latter place, so much venerated by Hindūs, is a rock, two or three paces wide and five long, in the bed of the river, and overhanging the stream, which is at that place extremely shallow. "This rock," says Captain Raper's munshi, "exhibits a similitude of the body and mouth of a cow;" but it is probable that imagination assisted not a little in enabling the worthy munshi to discover that similitude. At the Ganggri there is a large rock in the river, where king Bhāgirāth performed his devotions; and some holes in its bed, where the pilgrims bathe; none are more than three feet deep. Scarcely any trees but the bhājipātr are to be seen, and the whole country is covered with snow: the most resolute devotees are the only ones who reach these inhospitable regions. (*As. Res.* xi. 485, xii. 292-3.) The Bhāgirāth was scarcely heard of in Europe before the publication of the *Recherches Historiques et Géographiques sur l'Inde*, by M. Anquetil du Perron, in 1786. Its course was first announced in the addenda to Major Rennell's *Memoir*, in 1788; but it was not determined with any accuracy, till surveyed by Messrs. Raper, Hearsay, and Welsh, in 1808. The journal of their tour, which is highly interesting, was printed in the eleventh volume of the *Asiatic Researches*.

The same inspired sage, who, according to the Hindū legends, performed his devotions on the rock of the Ganggri, and thence gave his name to the sacred stream, obtained from Siva the privilege of leading a great part of it after him, and accordingly drew off the two western branches at about 230 miles from the sea, which after uniting near Nediā (Nuddea) flow in one channel, passing by Hāgūl and Calcutta into the Indian ocean. Of these two branches, the western is commonly called the Kāśim-bāzār; the eastern, the Jellinghy; and the united stream, the Hāgri river. They enter the sea by the Sagar island, famous for the victims of Hindū superstition, who are there daily consigned to the sharks and waves; and the whole stream is called Bhāgirāth, from the sage who is said in the legend to have conducted it to the ocean. (*Asiat. Musc.* i. 260.)

BAGIRMA, a country between Dā-Fūr and Borno. See Borno.

BAGLANA, or BAGLANAS, a province of the Maharrat territory, between the 20th and 21st degrees of north latitude. It is very mountainous, and full of hill-forts on almost inaccessible fastnesses; it is therefore easily defended, and seems never to have been completely subdued by the Moghuls: their first invasion took place in 1297, (A. N. 696.) under the sultan Alā'ud-din I. It did not remain long in subjection to them; but about 1500, acknowledged the sovereignty of the Nizāmshāhī dynasty reigning at Ahmednagar. It was rated at 1000 common cōes in length (190 miles), and 70 (133 miles) in breadth, by Abdūl Hamīd Lāhūrī, in the time of Shāh-jehāz; but its limits varied at different periods.

It became a part of the Moghul empire, under Aurangzeb, in the latter half of the seventeenth century. After Sevīgī, the great Maharrat chief, had raised the standard of revolt against the Moghuls, one of the first of their dependents who joined him, was the rajā of Baglānā; and this district formed a part of the Maharrat territory till the disjunction of their empire in 1815. In its most flourishing state, it was bounded on the east by Chandōra; on the west by the port of Surat; on the north, by Sultānpūr and Nādirā; on the south, by Nāsīc and Trīmā. Among its many strong-holds, Mulār, or Mulhār, and Sakār, or Sālhar, were both by nature and art, the most remarkable; being accessible only by a stair-case hewn out of the rock, and excellently provided with water from never-failing springs. The province was said to produce a revenue of 400,000 rupees, (450,000.) (*East India Gazetteer*; Dow's *Farrukh*; Catrou *Hist. du Mogol*; Bernoulli's *Hindostān*, i. 349.)

BAGNARA, a town in the kingdom of Naples, and the province of Calabria Ultra, with the title of duchy, and a population of five or six thousand inhabitants. It was one of those which were destroyed by the great earthquake of 1783; but it has been in a great measure restored, and carries on a good trade, the chief articles of which are wool, pitch, and Muscadell wine; the last of which, the territory included in the duchy produces in great perfection. The other products are similar to those of the remaining part of the province. Bagnara is situated about fourteen miles west of Oppido.

BAGPIPE, n. } From bag and pipe.
BAGPIPER.

A bagpipe well coude he blowe and soone,
And therewithall he brought us out of tounne.
Chaucer. *The Prologue*, p. 367.

—Now, by two-headed Jove
Nature hath from'd strange fellows in her time:
Some that with evermore purple throat their eyes,
And laugh like parrots at a bag-piper.

Shakespeare. *Merchant of Venice*, fol. 167.
I say to the that it is right well done, that pilgrims have with them both syngers, and also pipers, that when one of them that goeth barfous striketh his toe upon a stone, and bursteth hym sore, and maketh hym to blede, it is well done that he or his fellow syngers then a songe, or else take out of his booke a bag-pype for to drive away with soche myrthe the kerte of his fellow.

State Trials. *Trial of William Thorne*.

Doth he his dog doth chide,
Lays he well-tun'd bagpipe by,
And his sheep-hook casts aside;
"There," quoth he, "together lie."
Dryden. *The Shepherd's Sirene*.

Bartering his real wit for sons of gold,
He coot himself into the saint-like mould;
Grown'd, sigh'd, and pray'd, while godliness was gain,
The loudest bagpipe of the squeaking trade.

Dryden. *The Medal*.
BAGPIPE, a musical instrument supposed to have been known to the Greeks under the name *ἀγρίππας*, and to the Romans as *tibia utricularis*; the Italians call it *piva* and *cornamuse*; from which last word Chancer (*House of Fame*, iii. 128.) has adopted an anglicised word, *cornamuse*; and by the French it is named *masette* and *chalamuse*.

The modern bagpipe consists of a leathern bag inflated either by the mouth or by bellows. The Irish and Scotch pipe differ in this respect: the first is always blown by the bellows, the last by the mouth or bellows indiscriminately; annexed to this bag is a

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—
BAGPIPE.

BAGPIPE. flute, or chaunter, through the reed of which air is forced from the bag: three smaller pipes are called drones; two of them are in unison with D on the chaunter, the third an octave lower.

BAHAMIA ISLANDS.

The compass of this pipe is very limited, and the squealing most unmusical. Yet the Scotels are enshrined of it as a national instrument, and every Highland regiment is accompanied by its piper. The Highland Society annually distribute premiums to the best players, after a competition, which, to southern ears, is not a little distressing.

BAGILE, in Zoology, a subgenus of the genus *Silcra*, which see.

BAHAMIA, one of the principal islands belonging to the group of that name, and the one from which the general appellation of the whole range is derived. It is situated near the north-west extremity of the chain, and extends from the gulf stream almost to the island of Abaco. Its length exceeds sixty miles, but its breadth is not more than nine or ten miles. It is less than twenty leagues from the shore of East Florida, and lies between $26^{\circ} 40'$ and $27^{\circ} 5'$ of north latitude; and between $78^{\circ} 10'$ and $80^{\circ} 24'$ of west longitude. The physical characteristics of this island are the same as those of the group in general: the surface is flat, the soil fertile, and the climate serene; but notwithstanding these advantages, it is merely inhabited by a few persons, who subsist chiefly by supplying necessities to the crews of vessels that are driven on their coasts.

BAHAMA CHANNEL, the narrow sea between the coast of America and the Bahama Islands, for about 45 leagues in length, and 16 in breadth. It is sometimes called the Gulf of Florida: the current flows through this channel with great rapidity, and vessels are frequently driven upon the shores of the neighbouring islands, which renders the passage dangerous, except under favourable circumstances.

BAHAMA BANK, GREAT, is a sand-bank, extending nearly from the island of Cuba to the shores of the Bahama group. It commences about $22^{\circ} 30'$, and stretches to $28^{\circ} 15'$ of north latitude. A smaller bank of the same kind and name also occupies a considerable space on the north of the island of Bahama.

BAHAMIA ISLANDS, a name generally given by English geographers to that cluster of islands, reefs, rocks, and sand-banks, which may be considered as connected, by St. Domingo and Porto Rico, with the Caribbean chain. They stretch from south-east in north-west, through a space of about 700 miles, extending from the 21st to the 28th degree of north latitude, and from the 71st to the 81st of west longitude. The Spaniards call this group the *Lucayos*; but the English name is derived from the native appellation of the largest island, which lies near the north-west extremity of the range, and about twenty-five leagues from the shores of Florida. It was one of this group that was the first land seen by the astonished mariners of Europe, who accompanied Columbus in that celebrated voyage which disclosed the New World; and the feelings with which this sight inspired the commander, are expressed in the name of *San Salvador*, which he gave to the island. It was called *Guanahani* by the natives, was first seen on the 11th of October, 1492, and constitutes the earliest authenticated discovery of the western hemisphere. As the Caribbean Islands may be classed together from their physical nature, and similarity of productions, so

the Bahama Islands may be considered as forming a single chain. On both these accounts they may conveniently be arranged according to the larger islands, or rather groups, while the smaller are considered as exceeding 500; but many of them are mere sand-banks. Proceeding from the southern to the northern extremity of the chain, these groups may be thus enumerated:—

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. Turk's Islands, | 8. The Exumas, |
| 2. The Caeus, or Cal-
cos, | 9. San Salvador, |
| 3. The Henegus, | 10. Eleuthera, or Harbour
island, |
| 4. Mayaguana, | 11. Providence, |
| 5. Crooked Island Group, | 12. Andros, |
| 6. Long Island, | 13. Lucayo, or Abaco, |
| 7. Watlings, | 14. Bonahe, |

In addition to the islands included in these groups, two extensive sand-banks, called the Great and Little Bahama banks, occupy a wide space of sea, the boundaries of which are indicated by a vast number of keys and islets. The population of the whole cluster is stated at 16,600, more than half of whom are slaves. Notwithstanding the Bahamas are situated in a delightful climate, and yield the productions both of the temperate and the torrid zone; few ranges have attracted less attention. Their soil is scanty, and their navigation intricate: they are generally long flat slips, chiefly composed of calcareous rock, which is sometimes intermixed with shells.

When these islands were first discovered, they were filled with inhabitants, most of whom were in a few years transported by the Spaniards to work the mines of St. Domingo; and the Bahamas were thus almost depopulated. After this they became the haunts of pirates, buccaniers, and freebooters, till the termination of the American war, when they afforded an asylum to many distressed loyalists, who had taken part in the preceding struggle. The thermometer generally varies from 80° to 90° during summer, and from 60° to 65° in winter; but the southern isles experience the influence of the trade winds through the greater part of the year, which often renders the climate highly agreeable. The soil in general is light and sandy, but in a few places it is rich. The chief cultivated product is cotton, besides which they yield mahogany and some kinds of dye woods; with salt, turtle, and several species of fish. Cattle and sheep also thrive well, and great numbers of birds are met with, generally of the same kinds as those of the West India islands. New Providence being the seat of government, it absorbs nearly the whole trade of the group, which is chiefly with England, the West Indies, and North America. Nassau is the principal town, and the seat of government for all the islands.

The constitution of the Bahamas is founded upon that of the mother country, and resembles those of her other colonies in preserving the legislative, executive, and judicial powers distinct from each other: the governor is the representative of the crown, by which authority he is appointed; and in him the principal executive power is vested. He is also commander-in-chief of the military. He convenes and prorogues the national assembly, and he has likewise power to annul their proceedings, subject to a reference to the king. By his judicial character, he presides in the court of chancery and the courts of appeal. The council consists of twelve persons appointed by the king, and these form

BAHAMIA ISLANDS.

BAHAMA ISLANDS. — **BAHAR.** { the upper house of the legislature, and participate with the governor in his judicial authority. The house of assembly lately consisted of twenty-six members, who are elected by the respective districts, in a manner nearly similar to the election of the members of the House of Commons. The judicial department has similar functions, and is nearly under the same regulations as in England. Though these islands have

been possessed by Great Britain for nearly a century **BAHAMA ISLANDS.** and a half, comparatively little is known respecting them. For further particulars, see *Edwards's History of the West Indies*; and *McKinnon's Account of the Bahama Islands*; with the respective names above enumerated. { **BAHAR.**

BAHAMA **RSOWOOO**, the English name of the *Rhamnus celebica*.

B A H A R.

BAHAR, more properly *Bihār*, from the Sanscrit *Vihār*, a Budd'hish monastery; the second province of the British dominions in India; is bounded on the north by *Népāl*, on the east by *Bengāl*; on the south by a large and almost uncultivated territory, called *Góodwánah*, on the west by that country, *Allah-ábád*, and *Aúd'h* (*Oude*). Its extent may be computed at 26,000 square miles; and it is one of the most fertile, cultivated, and populous provinces of Hindústán. It is traversed and divided into two parts by the Ganges running in an easterly course for nearly 200 miles. 1. The northern division is seventy miles in length from the forests of *Népāl* and *Móréng* to the river; and on the west is separated from *Górách-púr*, in *Aúd'h*, by the *Gandac*, and a crooked line between it and the *Gagrah*; on the east, from *Púrniyah* in *Bengal* by the *Cósa* or *Cósi*. The whole of this area is an unbroken plain; it was divided by *Achar* into four *séráirs* or districts, *Champáren*, *Háji-púr*, *Tirbút* and *Sáren* with four *pergannahs* from *Mongér*. 2. The central division extends from the Ganges to the *Vind'hýchal*, or *Vind'hya* hills, southwards, about sixty miles; it is separated, on the west, from the province of *Allah-ábád* by the *Caramánah*, and from *Bengál*, on the east, by a branch of the *Vind'hyán* hills, extending to the *Tellíng* hart pass near the Ganges. It contains the divisions of *Bahár*, *Mongér* and *Rohtás*. The first occupies about one-half of the level area; the second a small part of the remainder, the rest of that division being mountainous; and the third, which lies between the *Sóna* and *Caramánah*, is entirely a hilly tract. The district of *Sháh-ábád*, along the south side of the Ganges, has been added since the time of *Achar*. This central division is the most fertile and populous part of the whole province, and yields nearly two-thirds of the whole annual produce. 3. The third and more southern division of this province which contains about 18,000 square miles, consists entirely of high rugged land, and is of inconsiderable value. It is bounded, on the west, by *Allah-ábád* and *Góodwánah*, on the south, by that country and *Orissá*; and on the east, by *Bengál*. On the north by the remainder of *Bahár*. It is subdivided into the three *Belásás*, or districts of *Palamah*, *Rámgar'h* and *Chópótá Nág-púr*; and the whole division is sometimes named from the latter place, on account of its supposed wealth in diamond mines.

The climate of *Bahár* is more temperate than that of *Bengál*. In the plains, a parching wind prevails in the day-time, during the hot season, but it is succeeded by cool breezes at night; and, during the cold season blighting frosts are sometimes experienced.

The agriculture and manufactures of this province have always been very considerable; opium is its staple commodity; saltpetre is procured in great quantities in the *séráirs* of *Háji-púr* and *Sáren*; cotton cloths in every district. Grain, sugar, indigo, betel-leaf, oils, essences, especially the otter (*átar*) of roses are also among its ordinary productions. The parching winds, mentioned above, have extended farther eastwards within the last thirty years, and seem to promote the formation of saltpetre, which might now be manufactured in *Bengál* as well as this province. The trade in saltpetre is unrestricted, but the collection of opium is exclusively in the hands of the Company; it is at present extended through several districts, but might probably be raised in the *séráir* of *Bahár* alone, which would tend to check the contraband trade; a measure certainly desirable with respect to so dangerous a narcotic.

The lands were much more subdivided in *Bahár* than in *Bengál*, and the proprietors of the soil much less considerable in rank and influence. In this province there are only three zemindaries of any magnitude; those of *Tirbút*, *Sháh-ábád*, and *Ticrit*. The permanent fixing of the revenue system, which was supposed to be fraught with so much mischief to the tenant, has not been found so injurious in practice as it appeared in theory, and the actual cultivators of the land are in a much better condition than they were before the adoption of that measure. It is worthy of remark that the inhabitants of the upper part of *Bahár* appear to be of a different race from the *Bengalese*, and are evidently their superiors in size and strength.

The reader may have observed that the name of this province is derived from a term which has a relation to the sect of Budd'hism,—a circumstance the more remarkable, as none of his followers are now to be found within it; but *Gayá*, the birth place of that legislator or reformer, is in *Bahár* Proper; and there is reason to believe that Budd'hism was the predominant faith before these provinces were conquered by the Mohammedans. The intolerance and cruelty of the *Bráhmans*, when they have power, will sufficiently account for the disappearance of their opponents. It appears from the geographical chapters of the *Puránas*, the only documents for the ancient geography of their country which the *Hindús* possess, that this province was formerly the seat of two independent sovereignties; *Mit'hilá* now *Tirbút*, or North *Bahár*; and *Mághad* ho, or South *Bahár*. Different dialects were anciently, and are still used in those countries: 1. The *Mit'hilá* or *Tirbútíya*, which has great affinity, both

BAHAR. in terms and the form of its characters, with its neighbour the Bengál; and the *Mághalá* which bears a still greater resemblance to that language.

About one-fourth of the population are Mohammedans; the remainder idolaters:—if we were to judge from the state of their religious foundations the faith of both is on the decline; but as the same deterioration appears in their secular buildings, it may be apprehended that it is rather owing to the want of large funds, than to slackness of religious zeal, that temples are no longer erected or decorated as they formerly were. The amount of the different branches of revenue in 1815 was 6,701,538 rupees, (nearly £837,944.)

Zilaka. This province is at present divided into the following districts:

1. **B'hágl-púr**, on the south-east side of Bahár, and comprehending a part of the Mogul province of Bengál. It is bounded on the north by Tírbút and Párimyah, on the east by the latter and Murshid-ábad; on the south, by Birb'húm and Rámgar'h; and on the west by that district and Bahár. It extends 133 miles one way and 80 the other, making a total of about 8225 square miles. It was anciently called the *sérár* of Mongér (*Ayeen Akberry*, ii. 25. 197), and extends across the Ganges, a circumstance attended with much inconvenience. Its limits, also, are far from accurately determined. The hills are imperfectly cultivated; as it is thought prudent to withhold encouragement from the mountaineers; and the inhabitants of the plains will not mix or associate with them. Besides several streams running into the Ganges in the wet season, there are many stagnant pools or *j'hils*, one of which is between seven and eight miles long, and three or four broad. The winds blow almost invariably from the east or the west, the former from June to February; the latter during the remainder of the year. The boats are occasionally very oppressive, and the cold season milder than in Páruja further north. The soil is rich in many places, but in others so intermingled with rock as to be unfit for agriculture, and there are 3100 square miles occupied by forests and thickets. Iron ore, but unfit for our manufactures, is found in the central tracts; and near Mongér, at the *Sikh-cúnd*, at Bhorek and B'himbard there are hot springs; in the latter the thermometer rises to 144° Fahrenheit. Rice is the best crop, wheat the next, then barley and maize; potatoes also are in general use about Mongér and B'hágl-púr. The cotton is not sufficient for the home consumption; and about 7000 manse of indigo was the annual rate of produce in 1810. The revenue is small on account of the number of lands which are rent free, and the frauds practised by the zemindárs to escape the payment of their assessments. In 1814 the whole amount of the land-tax and excise was 430,485 rupees, (£52,780). In 1810 the population was estimated at 460,000 Mohammedans, and 1,299,000 Hindús. The general character of the population is respectable; and the good treatment of their slaves is a strong testimony in favour both of the master and the servant. The mountains are inhabited by a wild uncivilized race, kept in subjection, and restrained from outrages on the inhabitants of the plains, by a strong military force, and pensions to the chiefs. Many of these mountaineers still retain a superstition of their own, but the greater number have adopted the faith of the Bráhmans and are under the guidance

of priests of a low caste, who teach them to worship Durgá, and pray before a hil tree. They cultivate some part of the plains occasionally, and carry on an insignificant trade in necessities. Like most savages they are much addicted to drunkenness.

Some of the original tribes in this district seem never to have been subject either to the Hindús or Mohammedans; and were a continual source of annoyance to the British government, till the extraordinary concessions made to them in 1781. It is now thought that a larger force would have reduced them without compelling the government to grant these concessions, which are a heavy tax on the Company, (about £1650. per ann.) paid to a population from which they derive no revenue whatever.

This district contains the following remarkable places:

B'hágl-púr, the capital of this district, situated in *Boglipoor*. Lat. 25° 13' N. long. 86° 58' E. 110 miles N.W. of Murshid-ábad. It is a mean-looking town, in a beautiful country, contains 5000 houses, and about 30,000 inhabitants, chiefly Mohammedans. There are fifty Christians, principally Portuguese and Roman Catholics who have a church, served by a priest sent out by the *College de Propaganda Fide*, at Rome.

Chámpánagar, in lat. 25° 14' N. long. 65° 55' E. *Chámpánagar*, three miles west of B'hágl-púr; contains together gar. with Lac'higanj (or Lacshmi-ganj) about 1500 houses and 9000 inhabitants; a Mohammedan saint, nine cubits high, is buried here, and his tomb is a place of pilgrimage.

G'hidd'hór is remarkable for the ruins of a castle, *G'hidd'hór*, said to have been built by Sháh Sháh the Afghán (A.D. 1544), its massive walls are still remaining. Lat. 24° 52' N. long. 86° 10' S.W. of Mongér.

Mongér (*Mudga*, or *Macti-giri*) in lat. 25° 43' N. *Monghri*. long. 86° 36' on the south bank of the Ganges. Its fort, which is large and surrounded by a deep ditch, has been a place of note from remote antiquity. It was occupied by a Mogul garrison, strengthened by Sháh Sháh's brother of Aareng-zé's, and repaired by Kásim All when he wished to throw off his dependence on the English; but it was taken, after a siege of nine days. Being no longer a frontier town, it is now neglected; and used only as an invalid station; a military lunatic asylum, and a depot for army clothing. For the latter purpose it is peculiarly convenient, as the neighbourhood is a favourite resort of tailors. The town is formed by the assemblage of sixteen distinct hamlets; and there are only two regular streets near the eastern and southern gates of the fort. The population may be estimated at 30,000 souls. The shrine of Pír Sháh Kosein Lohmál is much venerated both by Mussulmen and Hindús. The tailors, gardeners, carpenters and smiths of Mongér are industrious, and are considered as good workmen.

Four or five miles from Mongér, in a plain near the *Sekta*-Ganges, is the hot-spring called *Sikh-cúnd*, or the pool of Sikh, the wife of Ráma, the Indian Bacchus. A brick cistern about eighteen feet square, receives the water. The heat varies from 92° to 132° Fahrenheit. Air-bubbles are constantly emitted, but the nature of the gas does not appear to have been ascertained.

Múti j'herna (the pearl-dropping stream) is a remarkable cascade in this district, about eight miles from the inland from the Ganges. The water descending in two falls, together measuring 105 feet perpendicular, is

BAHAR.

BAHAR. received into a basin below : which has been conjectured, whether on sufficient grounds does not appear, to be the crater of an extinct volcano. A view of this cascade is given in Hodges's *Travels in India*.

Colgong. Colh-gāng (spelt gāhā and pronounced gāng) a small town in lat. $25^{\circ} 14' N.$ long. $87^{\circ} 15' E.$ on a peaked hill, 10 common cōs S. E. of B'hāgal-pūr.

Tellighurry. Teliyāgar hī, (or Tiliyā-gar hī) a small town twenty-three miles N. W. of Rājā-mahal, lat. $25^{\circ} 15' N.$ long. $87^{\circ} 37' E.$ The Vindhya hills here come down close to the river, and form the boundary between the provinces of Bengāl and Bahār, according to the Mogul division. It has an old castle built by Sultān Shujāā, in the seventeenth century.

2. Bahār. 2. Bahār, a large and central district, bounded by the Ganges on the north; by Rāmgar'h and B'hāgalpūr on the south, by the latter on the east; and by Shāhābād on the west; 50 by 120 miles in extent, and containing about 5358 square miles. Its southern boundaries are ill-defined, and have been altered within a few years. The level land is highly cultivated, but interspersed with rugged, barren and naked hills; often entirely isolated. Three remarkable clusters are the Berāber pāhār, on the west side of the Phalgā; the Rājā-grīha, or Rāj-mahal hills on its east side, and a long narrow ridge adjacent to Shāikh pūrāh; but their greatest elevation probably does not exceed 700 feet. Towards the southern boundary of this district, the hills rise to nearly twice that height, and form a part of the Vindhya chain, continued, with little or no interruption, for a great extent; possibly to cape Comorin. The hills nowhere approach close to the river, and the country is generally flat, though higher than the level of the stream.

The Ganges is generally a mile wide in this district, which is also watered by the Sōna, Pūnpun, Murāha, Dard'hā, P'hālgā, (or Fulgā) Sacri and Pūnehan. Bahār has no lakes and few marshes; but is artificially inundated, during the rainy season, on account of the rice. The wind is almost always easterly or westerly, the former continuing almost invariably from October to January; the latter from January to March. The rainy season is much the same as in the district of B'hāgalpūr. The winter, though not severe, is sufficient to render fires desirable; and the natives have them in their sleeping apartments. The heat in spring and summer, is excessive; and is in some places increased by reflection from the sands accumulated in the beds of the rivers, particularly the Sōna and Phalgā. Excellent wheat, barley and rice are grown in this district; especially the latter, of which the *hamati*, or finest quality, is always in great request at Calcutta. Cotton is not raised in sufficient quantity for the inland consumption; and they grow little tobacco or indigo. Their cattle excel those of Bengāl. Rents are high; but the natives are generally in good circumstances. The *ashraf* (i. e. *sheikhs* or nobles) have a right to demand ground for building upon, free of rent; but the British inhabitants are compelled to pay exorbitant prices for the ground upon which they build. The *ashraf* are men of high castes Mohammedan or Hindū, such as Soyaida, Pat'hāns, Moghols, Brāhmans, Chātrés, Rājputs, Cāyast'hār (Cāi'ha) and Vaisyas (Baia). In

801, one-third of the cultivated lands were exempted from any assessment; yet the assessed lands were in a better state of cultivation. The whole revenue amounted in 1814 to 1,748,006 rupees (£218,500).

The villages are much crowded and yet there are many considerable towns; so great is the population of this district. It amounted in 1811 to 2,755,160 souls. Their general character is superior to that of their neighbours. There are six great Hindū shrines visited by pilgrims, and two belonging to the Jains, in the division of Nūwāda. There are 274,000 Mohammedans, of whom 15,000 may be Shāhās, or followers of Ali. The Brāhmans have 80,000 families, mostly employed in agriculture and arms; the Sic'hs, followers of Nānā, several; the Jains, here called Śrāvacs, about 350.

When first occupied by the British, the greater part of this district was in a wild state, and the southern half a prey to internal anarchy. It has now an overflowing population, and yet the business of the criminal courts is continually diminishing, a most gratifying evidence of the moral benefits arising from subjection to the British government.

The table-land of Amara-cuntaca, in the province of Rivers ^{Soot} and Ner- ^{buckha}. Gōndwānah, contains the sources of the great rivers the Sōna and Nerbadī, or Nar-māda. From the eastern side the Sōna issues, and flowing through the mountainous territory of Pindārāh, proceeds in a northerly direction, through Sohājpur and Bog'hēl-c'hānd, and, then turning more to the east, makes its way to the Ganges. Its channel is almost equal in width to that of the latter; but it is only navigable in the rainy season; it has remarkably handsome pebbles and fine fish. It is called Sōn-bedh at its source.

The P'hālgā is formed by the union of two immense torrents, above Gayā; it is 500 yards wide near that city; is tremendously swift in the rainy season, and is held in the highest veneration by the Hindus.

The principal towns in this district are: Patnā, (in Sanscrit Padmaratī, the lotus-bearing) Patnā, capital of the province of Bahār, in lat. $25^{\circ} 37' N.$ $85^{\circ} 15' E.$ on the south side of the Ganges, which is five miles wide in the rainy season. Including its suburbs, an area of twenty square miles may be allowed for its extent; within the walls it is a mile and a half from east to west, and three-fourths of a mile from north to south, and this part is very closely built; the suburbs are scattered and straggling. All the streets except one are extremely narrow; hence the quantity of dust in summer, and mud in winter, is inconceivably great. It has a court of appeal and circuit, a judge and magistrate, collector, commercial-resident and opium agent; and is garrisoned by a provincial battalion; but has very few European houses and settlers. The fortifications, being useless, are in ruins; the public buildings, except the court of appeal, are paltry. The Roman Catholic church is respectable. The handsomest mosque, of which there are several, is now let as a warehouse. The number of souls amounts to 319,000; of whom nearly one-third are Musselmans, the remainder Hindūs. The district peculiarly attached to this city contains 403 square miles, and, in 1811, 609,370 inhabitants, Mohammedan and idolatrous in the proportions assigned above. The Sic'hs have a celebrated temple, and the Armenians a church. Much trade is carried on between Patnā, Népāl, Calcutta, Benares, &c. Some commercial houses have agents at Bombay and Madras. Such is the confidence of the natives in government securities, that in 1811 Calcutta bank notes were universally received either as currency or at a trifling discount. The police of the city was reported in 1813, as being

BAHAR. very inefficient. Patna is 400 miles from Calcutta, by Murshid-Abad.

Gaya. Gaya, in lat. 24° 49' N. long. 85° E. the capital of the district of Bahar, consists of two parts: 1. Gaya Proper, the residence of the Brāhmins; 2. Sāhib-ganj, (Gentleman's town) the abode of the remaining inhabitants: both are on the banks of the Fulgā. The new town, Sāhib-ganj, has wide streets planted with avenues; the old, or Gaya Proper, has narrow, crooked lanes, but handsome buildings. The reflected heat and clouds of dust in summer, are almost insufferable. The permanent population may be estimated at 38,400. This place is held in extreme veneration, as the scene of one of Vishnu's victories over an unmanageable asur or giant; and by the Buddhists it is celebrated as the birth-place of their great legislator; it is therefore visited by pilgrims without number; who are taxed by the British government, according to the number of holy places they visit: 144 rupees. (£1.12s.) is the utmost sum they have to pay. The priests have a somewhat higher demand on the piety of the votaries; and some Greek Mahattah chiefs have been known to expend 50,000 rupees, (nearly £10,000): but the government has benevolently interferred to prevent compulsory payments. The number of pilgrims is gradually increasing, and, in 1811, it exceeded 31,000: in 1815, the gross amount of the tax on them was ₹29,505 rupees; but the net receipts only 182,576; as 11,000 were deducted for the native hospital at Calcutta, and 96,000 for the zemindār of Gaya, Rājā Mitr-jit's Sing'h. The number of these holy visitants and their attendants, sometimes exceeds 200,000; their expenses, twenty lacs of rupees, (£225,000.) Numerous crimes arise from such an influx of strangers; for unhappily the devotion of the Hindūs has rarely any moral tendency.

The ruins of Budd'h-gaya, and the number of images scattered round them for fifteen or twenty miles, are astonishing; they appear all to have belonged to some great temple, or its vicinity; and make it probable, that this was once the centre of Budd'hism, and the residence of a powerful monarch professing that faith.

Dinapore. Dinā-pūr, in lat. 25° 37' N. long. 85° 5' E. on the south side of the Ganges, ten miles west of Patna, is one of the principal stations of the European troops. It has magnificent barracks, good roads, and elegant villas, and is in short a paradise compared with Patna. Its population amounted to upwards of 19,416, in 1811. Potatoes are much cultivated here, and are consumed by natives as well as Europeans.

3. Tirhoot. 3. Tīrbūt (from Tīrb'budī) is in the north-western angle of the province, and is bounded on the north by the Saptari woods of Népāl; on the east by Pāriyāh to Bengāl; on the south by the Ganges; and on the west by the district of Sāren. Its area was at least 5000 square miles in 1784; but it has since been altered. It is well watered, but higher, more dry, and more benighted than the southern districts. The elevation of its level is not sufficient to diminish the heat, which in summer is intense. It is in general well cultivated throughout, and produces sugar, indigo, saltpeetre, opium, tobacco, pawa (betel-leaf,) turmeric, ginger, and rice. The northern forests abound in timber, which is of no use, for want of water-carriage. The Gand'achi, its boundary, B'hāgmati and Gāgari are the principal rivers. In 1814, the

Rivers Ganges, &c.

revenue amounted to 1,274,717 rupees. (£159,339.) As the soil and climate appeared favourable for improving the breed of horses, this district was selected by government for that purpose, and many of the first quality are reared in the zillah, or division of Hājī-pūr. It was anciently a part of the province or kingdom of Mit'hil, which comprehended most part of three districts, (Tīrbūt, Pāriyāh, and Sāren,) and some of the Nepalese territory; and was bounded by the Gandac, Cōsa, and Ganges, together with the mountains of Népāl on the north. It was not finally subdued by the Moguls till the beginning of the fourteenth century; and it became a part of the British empire in 1765. Its population was estimated at 2,000,000, in 1801, one-fifth Mohammedans, the remainder idolaters. The police, in 1814, appeared to be very efficient, and crimes were not on the increase.

The Gand'achi, or Sāgrāmī, river, is supposed to rise near the towering peak of D'hā-giri, in the Himalāya chain, in lat. 29° 30' N. and long. 85° 45' E. nearly. The summit of this mountain appears, from Mr. Culebrooke's calculations, to be nearly 37,000 feet above the level of the sea. (*As. Res.* xii. 376.) It is called Sāgrāmī in Népāl, from the schistose stones, (sāgrāms) containing remains of the cornu ammonis, found in its bed, and thence dispersed throughout India, where they are objects of adoration. The spiral lines are supposed to be traces of Vishnu, and some of these stones sell for 2000 rupees. (£225.) This river is supposed by Major Rennell to be the Condoctates of Arrian. The Hindūs are forbidden to swim in it.

The principal towns in Tīrbūt are Hājī-pūr, with a Halppeer. district of the same name, containing 9783 square miles. It is the place whence most of the saltpeetre intended for the Company's investment is procured. The town is situated at the confluence of the Gand'achi and Ganges, nearly opposite to Patna, in lat. 25° 41' N. and long. 85° 21' E. A very considerable horse fair is held here in the month of November: 6000 horses were brought in 1807, and two sold for 4000 rupees, (£450.) each. The breed appeared much improved in 1816.

Near Sing'hā, on the east of the Gand'achi, lat. 25° 58' N. long. 85° 15' E. there are some curious ruins. Dūch'bangh, in lat. 26° 9' N. long. 86° 30' E. was a considerable place in the time of Achar.

4. Sāren (the Asylum) comprehends Bettā, or Champārān, formerly a separate district; and is bounded on the north by Macwan-pūr and Gārac'h-pūr; on the west by the Dēwa or G'hāgra river; on the south by the Ganges; and on the east by Tīrbūt. Its area contained 5106 square miles in 1784. It is highly fertile and cultivated, having scarcely any waste land. Bettā suffered much by the famine of 1770, having lost nearly half of its inhabitants; but it is now recovering. Large timber for ship-building is found in Bettā, and carried down the Gand'achi and Ganges to Calcutta. In the Sāren division, opium, tobacco, wheat, barley, flax, peas, linseed, and cotton, are produced. The breed of cattle is excellent; the rent-free lands are the worst cultivated, and the improvement since the decennial settlement by Lord Cornwallis is perceptible. There are only two Mohammedan zemindārs; and the revenue, in 1814, was rated at 1,933,385 rupees, (£138,756.) Good roads and bridges are much wanted. There are scholas for

BAHAR.

Gandak.

Singha.

Duchungah

4. Saren.

BAHAR. reading, writing, and accounts, in all the large villages. The population in 1801 amounted to 1,200,000; one in ten being Mohammedans.

Terrain. The country at the foot of the northern hills is called Teryán, or Turyán, literally signifying, "a country of huts;" but applied by the Nepalese to the lower lands, where the rivers become navigable. The base of the mountains is covered with wood, and the country intervening between it and the cultivated districts, is usually covered with rank grass, and intersected by many small streams, navigable in the rainy season. The forests are inhabited by elephants, rhinoceroses, tigers, bears, wild-boars, jackals, foxes, hares, and hog-deer. The Palis (*Erythrina monasperma*), and simal (*Bombax heptaphyllum*) are found on the Nepalese confines. The confined air, stagnant water, and putrid vegetable matter, abounding in this district, render it excessively unhealthy in the wet season.

Chuprah. Chuprah, the capital of the Sárán district, in lat. 25° 46' N. long. 84° 46' E. extends nearly a mile along the northern bank of the Ganges. In 1817, it contained 43,700 inhabitants. The Ch'arwa tribe, known at Calcutta by the name of Patch beavers, are settled in the neighbourhood of this town; but they originally came from Chótá Nág-púr, at the southern extremity of the province.

S. Shalabad. 5. Sháh-ábad (the royal residence) is bounded on the north by the Ganges; on the east and south by the Són; and on the west by Chunar, in the province of Allah-ábad. This district has been once augmented since 1784, when it contained only 1869 square miles: it is extremely fertile and populous. The revenue in 1814 amounted to 1,177,462 rupees, (£132,465). The population may be estimated at 2,000,000; one in twenty being Mohammedans. Opium, tobacco, cotton, indigo, sugar, and hemp, are its most valuable productions.

Towns. Arrah, in lat. 25° 35', and long. 84° 40' S. its capital, is extensive and populous.

Boxar. Baguar, or Baxsar, on the south-east side of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 35' N. long. 83° 57' E. is a police-station, at which all travellers are obliged to exhibit their passports: it is also near the place of the celebrated engagement in 1764, when Sir Hector Muoro, with 856 Europeans, and 6915 Sipáiks, defeated the combined armies of Shujá'ü daulah and Kásim Ali Khán, estimated at 40,000 men.

Sameran. Samran, Searáing Sahararn, or Saharáing, in lat. 24° 59' N. long. 83° 59' E. is a town remarkable on account of the splendid mausoleum of Shír Khán, the Afghán, built in the midst of a great tank or reservoir, about a mile in circumference.

Rhotas. Rhotás, the capital of the most westerly pargannah in this district; bounded by the Carmonáish which joins the Ganges at Baxsar. In 1784, it contained 5690 square miles, more than half of which consisted of hills covered with wood. The fortress (Rhotás-garh) is on the level summit of a mountain, in lat. 24° 35' N. and long. 83° 50' E. It was deemed impregnable till taken by Shír Sháh the Afghán, from the Rájá Chintáman, in 1542. It came into our possession when Kásim Ali evacuated the province in 1764.

6. Rám-g'har, (the house of Ráma,) a hilly and mountainous district in the southern quarter of this province; bounded on the north by Bahár Proper; on the west by Balaunja, Serjója and Jeshpúr; by that district, Gang-púr and Slog-b'hám on the north; and by Baidn hwaán and B'hál-púr on the east. Besides its own peculiar territory, it now comprehends Palamb, Pachét, and Chótá Nág-púr; and great part of it belonged to the ancient province of Góndwáms. Its extent in 1784, was 21,732 square miles, of which more than two-thirds were nearly waste. Iron is found in the hills. The condition of the natives is improved, but they are too little civilized to allow of any rapid improvement. The Máhwáp tree (*Bassia longifolia*) is one of its remarkable productions: it grows abundantly among the rocks, and furnishes a farinaceous pulp, which serves as a substitute for bread, and a nutritious infusion used as tea. The principal streams in this district are the Damódar and Barakar, and its largest towns Chitra, Rámgar'h, and Macund-ganj. The population has been loosely estimated at half a million, not more than one-thirtieth being Mohammedans. The woods, wild-beasts, and savage inhabitants of this district, render it a disagreeable and perilous residence. Ignorance, superstition, and the ungovernable passions of lawless chiefs, have rendered murder and outrage very frequent occurrences in these mountains.

Among the remarkable places in this district, are Samel-si'harn, or Párwá-ná'h, a pass in the hills bordering on Bahár and Bengál, held in great veneration, and much visited by the Jains. The twenty-third of their deified saints or gurus, Párwá, died here.

Rámgar'h, on the Damódar, now a second-rate Rangur town, in lat. 23° 38' N. long. 85° 43' E.

Palamb, or Palambá, a hilly and woody territory Palamb, on the Maharráth frontier; the residence of a rājá commanding a considerable territory; but thinly inhabited.

Pachét, a zemindári containing 9779 square miles; but unhealthy, and occupied by an uncivilized population. The town is in lat. 23° 36' N. and long. 86° 50' E.

Ch'hótá Nág-púr, a large zemindári at the southern extremity of this province, bordered on three sides by poor Góndwáms, and never completely subdued by the Mohammedans. It is high, woody, and unhealthy; contains much iron ore, not worked, because that metal can be procured at a smaller expense from Europe. Many of its tribes have never embraced the religion of the Bráhmans, and are therefore considered by them as impure. The principal ones are the Chatsauri, Colri, and D'hanger, who speak a peculiar language, differing from the Hindi. The rājá of this territory would never submit to the police regulations established in the rest of the province, till he was compelled to do so by an armed force in 1819.

Berwá, in lat. 23° 30' N. and long. 84° 46' E. is close Burwa. Nazrú Rágh, the head-quarters of the corps stationed in Rámgar'h.

(Hamilton's *Hindustan*, i. 239-241; *Asiatic Researches*; Bernoulli's *Hindustan*, i. ind. ii.; Rennell's *Memoir*, *Ayzen Akberg*, ii. &c.)

BAHAR.
6. Ram-
ghur.

Parsonsoch

Pachet.

Chota Nagp

Burwa.

BAHIA.

BAHIA, or **BAHIA TODOS SANTOS**, one of the twenty-two provinces into which the Portuguese territories of Brazil are divided. It stretches along the shore of the Atlantic from about eleven to fifteen degrees of south latitude. It is bounded on the north by the great river St. Francisco, and on the south by the province of Minas Geraes; and it now includes the Ilheus, which was formerly a separate province, and separated from the southern part of Bahia by the river Das Contas. A range of mountains runs through the centre of this province from north to south, nearly parallel to the coast, and between the Francisco and the sea. The western part constitutes a vast vale, through the middle of which this great river flows, while its tributary streams descend from the eastern and western slopes into its channel. Numerous streams also flow from the central ridge towards the shore, and pour their contents into the Atlantic ocean. The soil of the part of the province between the mountains and the sea, is esteemed some of the best in Brazil for the growth of sugar, to which a considerable part of the cultivated districts is therefore dedicated. Tobacco and cotton are also among its principal products; while coffee is also grown in considerable quantities, but the quality is inferior to that produced in the province of Rio Janeiro. The climate is always warm, but the heat is tempered by the sea breezes, which blow steadily from the east in these regions, and come loaded with all the freshness they acquire in crossing the wide Atlantic; so that the temperature is constantly much lower than on the opposite coast of Africa. On the west side of the central range, the soil is in general more sandy, though many tracts on the banks of the rivers afford rich pasturage; but cultivation has there made little progress, and where vegetation abounds, the whole is often a vast forest. Most of the native products are the same as those of other parts of the tropical regions, and will be more particularly enumerated in describing the kingdom of BRAZIL.

BAHIA, sometimes called *St. Salvador*, the capital of the preceding province, and the second city in the Brazilian dominions. It stands near the entrance of a bay of the same name, and about ten degrees north of Rio Janeiro. It is still an archiepiscopal city, and was for more than two centuries the residence of the governor-general of Brazil, till the metropolitan honour was transferred to Rio Janeiro in 1763. Its favourable position for commerce, its excellent harbour, and other circumstances, render it the principal emporium of a vast district; and will doubtless cause it to keep pace with the improvement to which the Brazil may ultimately be destined. Large quantities of British merchandise are annually sent to Bahia, and the produce of the country is taken in return. Bahia stands on a point of land between the bay and the ocean, and, including its suburbs, is about four miles long. It consists of the upper and lower towns; the former situated upon a pleasant eminence, and the latter at its western base. The lower town consists principally of a single street, parallel to the beach, and is the chief seat of its commerce, for which there are several large warehouses, as well as a dock-yard and a marine arsenal. The site of the upper town is very uneven, and the streets steep, by which the use of carriages is precluded, and that of sedans rendered very prevalent. Most of the houses have

lattice windows and balconies, which accord well with the nature of the climate. Several of the churches, chapels, and convents of Bahia, are splendid structures; and the ecclesiastical buildings in general seemed to have occupied the principal attention both of the government and the people. They are therefore among the first and most conspicuous objects that meet the eye of a stranger on his approach to the Brazilian city. The archbishop's palace, the mint, the governor's residence, with several hospitals, are also contained in the list of its public buildings. The grand church, which belonged to the jesuits, is by far the most superb structure in this city. It is entirely composed of European marble, imported for the purpose, at a vast expense. The inside is also richly decorated. The rails of the altar are composed of brass, and all the wood-work is inlaid with tortoise-shell, and covered with paintings, gilding, and a profusion of other ornaments. The commerce of Bahia consists principally in linen, and other kinds of cloth, with hats, silk and thread stockings, grain, rice, flour, biscuit, wine, oil, slaves, butter, cheese, bacon, and household furniture; for which gold, sugar, tobacco, skins, hides, Brazil wood, balsam, and several kinds of drugs, are exported. The city is defended by several forts, and the whole population, including the suburbs, was lately estimated by Mr. Henderson at 100,000, about 30,000 of whom are whites, and the rest mulattoes and negroes. The latitude of Bahia is 12° 59' S. and its longitude about 37° 23' W. from the first meridian of Great Britain.

BAHARA, or **BARAA**, and sometimes **Rir**, a name applied by the Arabian geographers to the Delta of Egypt, and the contiguous districts east and west of it. The appellation signifies in their language, "the Maritime Province." The principal towns of this district are Alexandria, Rosetta, Damietta, Menouf, and Mansoura; the others are of inferior importance.

BAHREIN, or **AR'OU'Z BAHREIN**, (the Land of the Bahrein, two Seas,) the name of a province of Arabia, between Main land Oman and Basrah; it is also called Hajaz and Lahah, (El-Ahsh.) Hajji Khalifah says, it derives its name from a lake, (hoheirah) near Lahah, on the Persian gulf; but no such lake appears in his map: perhaps the bay called Khaur Abdi liah by Niebuhr is meant. This country is bounded by the Arabian desert on the north; by Nejed on the west; by the sea on the east; and by Oman on the south. It appears to be in a flourishing condition; and is governed by the Arabs of the tribe of Beal Khlid. The principal towns are those on the coast; 1. Lahah, or Hajaz, the residence of the sheikh, or head of the tribe. 2. Katif, a sea-port, about twenty miles from the islands of Al Bahrein. It is unhealthy, and inhabited by people employed in the pearl-fishery. 3. Coveit, or Korein, (Green) sixty or seventy miles from Zobeirah, (Old Basrah) and near the bay mentioned above. It is populous, and maintained, like other places on this coast, by the pearl-fishery. These places were for a time in the possession of the Portuguese.

The islands of Bahrein, celebrated on account of the pearls found on their coasts, are these: 1. Awah, or Bahrein Proper, a fertile island, lying three miles from the coast; Mcdash, its capital, at the north-east end of the island, has a strong castle, eight or nine hundred houses, and a port, with anchorage for

BAHIA.

BAHREIN

BAHREIN ships of 200 tons burden; the markets are well-stocked. Its inhabitants follow the sect of Ali, called Shīahs, and the Persians go thither in order to study Arabic. 2. *Arād*, a low sandy islet at the southern extremity of *Avnā*; it is divided by an isthmus into two parts, one of which is called *Sunāhhi* (Samoki) and its village is named *Maharag*. This is represented by two islands in most of our maps. 3. *Gutter Sahari*, called *Meritan Rock* by the English; it is a low, flat, sandy islet, distinguished by the tomb of a Musselman saint.

**Perlh-
fishery.**

The pearl oyster beds lie between 25° and 26° 40' N. lat. from fourteen to twenty feet below the surface of the water. The shells are from two to ten inches in diameter; and the pearls which are of an irregular form, are generally found separate from the body of the oyster; the round ones are inclosed in its flesh. They are harder, but less brilliant, than those of Ceylon (*Silān*). The fishery is continued only for two months; and is very strictly regulated. These islands were called *Tyrus Major* and *Minor*, and *Aracada*, by the ancients. They have often changed their masters, and were possessed by the *Wahhābīs* before that sect was subdued by the present pāshā of Egypt. (*Niebuhr. Besch. von Arabien*. iv. v. p. 308. 339. *Erich's Encyclop.*)

BAHR-EL-ABYAD, the White River, or Sea. See **NILE**.

BAHR-EL-AZREK, the Blue River, or Sea. See **NILE**.

BAHR-SUDAN, the River, or Sea of the Negroes. See **NIGER**.

BAIBUT, a town in the pāshālik of *Erz-rūm*. See **ERZ-RUM**.

BAIE, in *Ancient Geography*, a village in Campania, so called from *Baia*, a comrade of *Ulysses*, which was a favourite summer retreat of the wealthy Romans. It is now called *Baia*. Lat. 41° 6' N. long. 14° 45' E. two miles west from *Pozzuoli*; eleven west from *Naples*. In the vicinity of *Baia*, and within a short compass of four miles, once stood the villas of *Pompey*, *Varro*, and *Lucullus*; *Augustus* frequented its coasts; and the favour of the sovereign so thronged them with the villas of the courtly and the luxurious, that, if we may believe the poet, the sea was deprived of its natural territory by the invasion of the architect. In the succeeding reigns, *Baia* and its retreats were defiled by obscenity and stained with blood. Still till the days of *Theodoric* it retained much of its celebrity. Its beauties attracted the rich, and the varieties of its medicinal baths made it equally the resort of those who sought for health and pleasure. The ravages of war, of pestilence, and of earthquakes, during the middle ages, gradually levelled its palaces, and depopulated its shores. The sea resumed its ancient possessions. The baths became stagnant pools; and *Baia* once the most delicious region which the sun visited in his course, is now a poisonous and unwholesome desert.

The semicircular bay is still lined with ruins, some of which advance a considerable way under the waves. The baths of *Nero*, as they are called, consist of several galleries worked through the solid rock, and terminating in a fountain of boiling water, difficult of approach from the powerful vapour of its steam. Several apartments for the accommodation of bathers are near the fountain. A building on the shore, octagonal

in its exterior, and circular within, is styled the temple of *Venus*. Behind it are the *Cameræ di Fœvere*, the obscene baso relievos existing in which, still testify the bad taste and moral degradation of the Roman voluptuaries. Hypæthral temples of *Mercury* and *Diana* stand near it; and a Gothic castle built by the viceroy of *Charles V.* crowns the summit of a rocky precipice.

BAIEU, in *Zoology*, the native name of the *Cervus merionus*, according to *Bancroft*.

BAIKAL, a large lake, or internal sea, in the southern part of the government of *Irkutsk*, between the parallels of 52° 39' and 55° 41' N. lat. It is 550 versts (318½ German miles) in length. Its least breadth is 30 versts 17; German miles) and its greatest, 80 versts (46½ German miles.) It is called *Sweet-of-moré* by the Russians, and *Dalai Nor* by the *Burattian* Tatars. The northern end is the broadest and the only part which contains islands; the largest of which, *Olkhon*, is occasionally occupied by wandering tribes of *Burats*. The shores and islands of this lake consist of granite rocks, running from east to south-west, and called the *Yablonian* and *Tunkinsk* chains of hills. They are well wooded, and form, by their frequent projections into the lake, bays and promontories, but leave little good anchorage near its shores. The high road from *Irkutsk* to *Kierkita*, passes along its southern shores; near *Turkinsk*, on its eastern side, there are warm mineral springs, analyzed by *Dr. Rehmman*, in 1808; and copper ore has been found on its western side. Its depth, where greatest, is from 80 to 490 fathoms, but in some places it is unfathomable, and is so variable, that it has been conjectured with probability to have arisen from a deep rent in the mountains occasioned by an earthquake, and filled by the streams which it receives. This is the more probable as earthquakes are still occasionally felt in the neighbourhood; and the violent agitation of the waters in the calmest weather seems to indicate some subterraneous convulsion. The water is sea-green, fresh, and peculiarly transparent, but is covered in the month of July with a yellowish scum, which gives it an unpleasant smell and taste. From the end of October to January thick cold fogs which extend as far as *Irkutsk*, nearly thirty-seven miles, hang over the lake. It begins to freeze in that month; its ice is singularly pliant and liable to be continually split by the action of boisterous winds. These rents are sometimes more than a mile long, and several feet in breadth. The lake is not navigable again till the middle of May; the fishery then begins; and the southern shore is divided into districts, and farmed out for the advantage of the Crown. Like all waters hemmed in among mountains, it is liable to very violent and sudden squalls, particularly in autumn; but it has rather a long swell, than frequent and tall waves, and its navigation is seldom interrupted, except by the north-west or mountain wind. The scenery round the lake is in the highest degree picturesque and romantic. One pile of broken crags rising over another, with cliffs of a stupendous height overhanging almost unfathomable depths of water; and on the broken pinacles of these rocks, here and there, large masses of stone perched, as if by design, on places where it seems impossible for them to have been thrown by accident. The rivers which flow into this lake are the *Upper Angara* on the northern side, in 55° 51' N. lat.; the *Barguzin*, on the eastern, in N. lat. 54°. At its mouth the

BAIE.
BAIKAL

BAIKAL, cape, called the Holy Promontory, forms a peninsula and bay bearing the same name. The Tunka and Selenga, of which the latter rises in about lat. 52° N. and discharges itself by three mouths into the Baikal, and the Buguldeika, is the west. The only outlet from this vast basin is the Lower, or Greater, Angara, which, quitting the lake, in lat. 50° 54' N. and long. 105° E. rushes with great impetuosity towards the Yenisei, which it joins near Ost. Tungurskoye in N. lat. 58°. The channel through which this stream bursts from the lake, is more than a mile broad, and interspersed with huge fragments of rock. The scene presented by this mass of water forcing its way through every obstacle, with an irresistible fury, and roaring with a deafening noise heard at the distance of many miles, is truly sublime, and is not the least striking among the many magnificent objects which astonish and delight the spectator in every part of this extraordinary place. Where nature has accumulated so many of her wonders, superstition could not fail to work upon the minds of the weak and ignorant, and the lake is as much an object of veneration to the Russian peasants, who always respectfully call it the Holy Sea, as to the Tunguzes who pay adoration to the peaks of one of its promontories.

The climate of the surrounding country is extremely severe. Even in the midst of summer frosty nights are common, and, as early as August, falls of snow on the neighbouring mountains, announce the approach of winter. The vegetable productions of this country, therefore, can only be such as can support severe cold. The *Pinus cembra*, *Empetrum nigrum*, and *Pyrola uniflora*, the two latter natives of our own northern mountains, were observed by Pallas near the lake; the silky knotgrass (*Polygonum sericeum*) is a beautiful plant peculiar to these shores, as is the *Triticum titorale*, a wild grain so like coarse barley that the peasants call it "diknya koch," 'wild barley.' Beneath the waters of the lake, there grows a peculiar species of sponge, called by the Russians morskaya sibba, or sea-sponge, and *Spongia Baicalensis*, by Pallas. It is used for giving the first polish to metals. Among the animals peculiar to these waters, one of the largest is the common seal (*Phoca vitulina*) seldom found in fresh water, or at a distance from the ocean, (*Buffon*, xxiv. 74.) They are generally taken in April, when basking on the ice, and the sale of their skins is a source of considerable profit. The *Collyponium Baicalense*, a sort of blubber, is so rank and oily that even ravens will not touch its carcass; yet its oil is highly esteemed and purchased with avidity by the Chinese, (*Sonnin*, *Poussons*, xi. 186.) Of other fish, such as carp, tench, sturgeon, devil's lamprey (*Salmo asperimus*), lenki (*Salmo salvelinus*) there is an abundance; but the most important one is the omul, or migratory salmon. It resembles the herring, and has very white and tender flesh. They are generally taken in October, and dried by the frost, instead of being salted. They can thus be conveyed fresh to almost any distance. They are supposed to have migrated originally from the Frozen ocean.

BAIKAL MOUNTAINS, see YARLONIAN, TUNKINSKI, and SAVANIAN MOUNTAINS.

BAIKALITE, in *Mineralogy*, a name given to one variety of pyroxene found near the lake Baikal in Siberia. See PYROXENE.

BAJAD, in *Zoology*, a species of *Silurus*, so called by the Arabs, according to Forskal.

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Fr. bailer, to deliver; baef, baillie, Dutch; (so its legal application) because a defendant, &c. is delivered or bailed to his sureties, upon their giving security for his appearance.

Bailiff, a person to whom authority, care, guardianship, or jurisdiction, is delivered; bail or baillie, the extent or compass of such jurisdiction.

To be bailed of je taun baillie he wende.

Just be je maker and je some to je kyng sende.

R. Gloucester, p. 129.

Now wendes duke Henry unto Normandie, Seynise has plenty of alle his chevarie, & Seven lewes here, ingloin in his baillie.

R. Brune, p. 127.

Shirenes, baillie he ches, bat office couþe guye.

Id. p. 281.

Now brother, good this Sampson, I you pray,

Teche me, while that we ride by the way,

(Sith that ye be a baillie on me.)

Som subtilize. Chaucer. The Fowles Tale, v. 7002.

There was a duke, and he was hote

Muodur, whiche had in his baillie

To lode the chaisir

Of Rome.

Gower. Conf. Am. book i.

And the baillif seide withynne himself, what schol I do,

for my lord taketh away fro me the baillie, desir may I not; I schame to begge.

Wiclif. Luke, ch. xvi.

Every deacon to fynde murdre for his good shewing, and al the other if they would be bailed to fynde surties for their truth and allegiance or els to be kept in prison, for the portes were so kept that they could not flye.

Hall. King Henry VIII.

And shortly after, by great labour and myte made, all the forsayd persons, which should be in the keeping of y^e baillie of the castell of Wyndesore were delivred, and came to London.

Felton. Ann. 1265.

Also the keeper of Newgate was sent to the Marshalsea, for giving liberty to Doctor Powell and Doctor Aberli his prisoner: to go under baillie.

Stow. Ann. 1540. Henry VIII.

The next morning betwix, theris departed from Tournay, and came to saynt Amande, on the ayde towards Mortuay; and in cōtynē they made assaunt, ferra and cruell, and was at the first the baillie, and came to the gate towards Mortuay.

Frasneut. Crongole v. l. c. 60.

Howbeit, sometime vitylers would adventure themselves for wynnyn, when the boote was askepe to put themselves within the baillie of Andwarpe, and so had into the towne. Id. v. l. c. 354.

BANER. Why, foolish boy, dost thou know him?

CUD. No matter if I do or not. He's katelido, I am sure, by law. But if the dog's word will not be taken, mine shall.

BANER. Thou baill for a dog.

Ford. The Witch of Edmonton, act i. scene 1.

Archibus, when he had been a long space out of his country, at his retourne finde his possessions and goods destroyed and wasted, said to his baillie, I woude surely punish the, if I should not be angry.

Sir T. Rylat Governor.

Whereas the time and space of life is very short that is given unto man, so short as it is, yet sleep, as Aristotle saith, like unto a false baillie or publicane, taketh the half thereof for itself.

Holland. The Plutarch, fol. 812.

After which ende thus made, consist of the towne were restored agayne to their baillie and rule, and to them was admytted all their former offycs and rule of y^e towne, excepte the offyce of baillie.

Felton. Ann. 1377, R. 2.

Though he [Lord Dauby] offered a very long and learned argument for their baillie him, the judges of the King's Bench, erre Sanders himself, were afraid to meddle in it. But Jeffries was bolder, so he bailed him.

Bishop Burnet's Own Times, book iii.

The sheriff being answerable for the misdeeds of these baillies, they are therefore usually bound in an obligation with surties for the due execution of their office, and thence are called bound-baillie; which the common people have corrupted into a much more homely appellation.

Blackstone. Commentaries, l. 345.

BAIL.

As the king's *bailiff*, it is his business to preserve the rights of the king within his *bailiwick*; for no his county is frequently called in the writs; a word introduced by the princes in the Norman law, in imitation of the French, whose territory is divided into *bailiwicks*, as that of England into counties.

Blackstone. Commentaries, i. 344.

Bailment, from the French *bailleur*, to deliver, is a delivery of goods in trust, upon a contract expressed or implied, that the trust shall be faithfully executed on the part of the bailor.

Id. ii. 451.

In England the person imprisoned has a right to make himself be brought before one of the twelve judges; and if that judge, after considering the case, find that the offence is *bailable*, the person is admitted to *bail*; and the law declares that excessive *bail* shall not be required.

Beattie. Moral Science, p. 4. c. li. v. li.

BAIL, a term of Law, whereby is denoted the setting at liberty a person arrested or imprisoned, on an undertaking made for him by sureties, to appear on a certain day, to answer to the suit. The word is derived, as has been shewn above, from the French *bailleur*, to deliver, because the defendant is delivered into the friendly custody of these sureties; and it is now used also to denote the sureties themselves. *Bail* is taken in civil and in criminal suits. In those civil processes, however, in which an actual arrest and imprisonment is not now allowed, such as suits for the recovery of sums of less amount than fifteen pounds, or of damages, the precise amount of which cannot be shewn before the jury shall have estimated them (as in actions of trespass, or for any injuries, either personal or pecuniary, but to an unascertained amount) no arrest can be made, and, consequently, no *bail* need be demanded. But inasmuch as all civil actions, was formerly a process issued against a defendant, who had objected to comply with certain anterior summonses, and who was thereby liable to imprisonment, in order to secure his appearance in court on the day whereon the sheriff was to make his return of the writ, as having, by his previous contempt of legal authority, shewn himself not to be trusted at large; it was a consequence, that he could not avoid imprisonment, but by giving *bail*. And, as by the tenour of the writ, and by fiction of law, a defendant in all cases is now held to be in the same circumstances, it is necessary that he should put in common *bail*: which is a mere formal entering of the names of two fictitious persons, John Doe and Richard Roe, as his sureties.

But, in actions for a sum certain, if the plaintiff make *affidavit* that that sum is fifteen pounds, or upwards, the defendant must give what, technically, is distinction from the fictitious *bail* of which we have just spoke, is called *special bail*: that is, in order to avoid imprisonment, he must find two real and responsible persons to be sureties for him. As soon as an arrest has been effected, these sureties give a bond to the sheriff, for the defendant's appearance on the day of the return of the writ, and this is called *bail to the sheriff*, or *bail below*. On that day, or within four or, in some cases, six or eight days after, they enter into recognizances, that if judgment be given against the defendant, he shall pay the damages and costs, or surrender his person. This is called giving *bail above*, or *bail to the action*. If the plaintiff objects to the sufficiency of the *bail*, they must *justify*, as it is termed; that is, they must swear (if in London or Middlesex, before a judge, or, if in the country, before commis-

sioners appointed for that purpose,) that they have the requisite qualifications:—which are, the being housekeepers, and worth, each of them, the full sum for which they become *bail*, after payment of all their debts. This is called *perfecting bail*. Blackstone (book iii. c. 19.) has assimilated this to the *stipulatio*, or *solatidatio* of the Roman law, which were pledges mutually given by the parties in a suit, to abide its result; but, as he has himself observed, there is this advantageous difference in the case of *our bail*, that, in the event of a defendant's failure in payment of damages, they are still discharged by surrendering his person; for which purpose they are entitled to apprehend him by a warrant on his default of payment.

When a defendant has failed to put in *bail above*, and the sheriff is unable to produce his body, that officer is answerable to the plaintiff for the sum for which the *bail below* was given; and he has his own remedy against the *bail*, by action upon their bond. But, as a simpler plan, the sheriff usually assigns the bond to the plaintiff, and he proceeds upon it. It is, however, optional with the plaintiff to accept or refuse the assignment.

In criminal cases, *bail* is to be taken by the magistrate before whom the charge has been preferred and established. By the ancient common law, every offence was bailable. Murder was, as might be imagined, the first exception made by the legislature. Treason was excepted by a statute of Edward the First; and various felonies have been declared not bailable, by subsequent, and some by very recent acts of the legislature. It would not be consistent with our plan to enumerate all the cases, in which the wisdom or timidity of the legislature has taken away this valuable right: we shall, in treating of the several crimes, under their proper heads, specify of each, whether it is bailable or not. For a brief general view of the question, we refer our readers to Blackstone, book iv. c. 92. The court of King's Bench, or any one judge of it, in time of vacation, has power to bail for any crime.

Excessive bail is provided against by the statute of the 1st of William and Mary: but a magistrate who has taken *insufficient bail*, is punishable by fine, if the offender escape. What *bail* is sufficient or excessive, is a question for the discretion of the court, upon all the circumstances of the case.

BAILIFF, a word of French origin, and denoting, under the old government of that country, an officer administering justice in each of the eight provincial parliaments. Whether, when it was first imported into our tongue, it was an appellation of the sheriff, whose office most nearly resembles that of the French *bailiff*, is not quite clear. The chief ground for supposing so, is, perhaps, the circumstance of the county being described, in formal processes addressed to that officer, as his *bailiwick*. We incline, however, to think, that the *bailiff* was never more than an officer holding an inferior court in each hundred. The most important remnant of the ancient *bailiff's* powers, is now to be found in some liberties, or franchises; where the sheriff of the county in which they lie, has no authority to execute a writ directed to him, unless he be therein especially commanded, by a clause, called *a non omittas*, not to omit the execution of it on account of any liberty. In the absence of such a clause, he can only issue his warrant to the *bailiff*, who is then required to execute the writ.

BAIL.

BAILIFF.

BAILIFF. *Bailiff*, of manors are officers of the lords, whose duty it is, under the stewards, to levy all fines and moneys.

Sheriff's bailiffs are officers employed to execute all writs and precepts directed to the sheriff: they give a bond to him, duly to discharge their office; and hence are called *bond-bailiffs*; a name, to use the words of Jacob, borrowed by Blackstone in a passage already cited, "which the common people have corrupted to a more humely appellation."

BAILWICK, BAILTWICK, or BAVLWICK, bailire, the jurisdiction of a *bailiff*, not over the county, but generally that liberty which is exempted from the sheriff of the county, over which the lord of the liberty appoints a bailiff with such powers within his precinct, as the under sheriff exercises under the sheriff of the county. Stat. 27th Eliz. cap. 12. Wood's *Jur.* 206.

BAILMENT, a term of English law derived from the French verb *bailier*, to deliver; and defined to be,—a delivery of goods to trust, on a contract expressed or implied, that the trust shall be duly executed, and the goods re-delivered, as soon as the time or use for which they were bailed, shall have elapsed or be performed.

Sir William Jones, whose singularly learned and elegant work, upon the *Law of Bailments*, has been chiefly followed in this article, distinguishes, in opposition to the civilians and lord chief justice Holt, only five species of this contract.

I. *Depositum*, or deposit, which is a bailment of goods to be kept for the bailor without reward.

II. *Mandatum*, or commissio; a bailment of goods to be carried from place to place, or to have some act performed about them, without reward.

III. *Commodatum*, or loan for use; a bailment of a thing for a certain time, to be used by the borrower without paying for it.

IV. *Pignori acceptum*, or pawn; a bailment of goods by a debtor to a creditor, in pledge as a security for the debt.

V. *Locatum*, or letting to hire; of which there are three subdivisions distinct enough to demand enumeration.

1. *Locatio rei*, or bailment of a thing, to be used by the hirer for a reward.

2. *Locatio operis faciendi*, or letting out of work and labour to be done, or care and attention to be bestowed, by the bailee, on the goods bailed for a reward.

3. *Locatio operis mercium vehendarum*, or letting of care and pains in carrying the things bailed from place to place for a reward.

A slight confusion in the terms of the two latter of these subdivisions of the *locatum* may make it difficult to see their agreement, without the definition of bailment: the fact is, it is not the bailor, but the bailee, in both cases, who is the locator.

There are yet three further species of what are called innominate bailments: which differ from some of the above, in the particular of the compensation not being pecuniary, but some specific act or thing to be done or given. They are thus designated by the civilians:—

1. *Do ut des*.

2. *Fecio ut facias*.

3. *Do ut facias*; and conversely, *Fecio ut des*.

As these, however, are in every other respect similar to the five first mentioned, and subject the parties

to the contract to precisely the same obligations, Sir W. Jones has very properly left them to be reduced, as their circumstances might require, under their respective heads, in the primary classification.

It is interesting to observe how almost identical have been the decisions of the human reason in all ages and in all countries upon those matters, which come home to all men's business and bosoms. The form of polity, the administration of justice, the aspect of criminal codes, and the system of real property, have varied, and will vary, under the influence of incidental causes; whilst the main principles of the law of bailment or contract are to be found equally in the books of Moses, the *Digest* of Justinian, and the *Reports of the Courts of Westminster Hall*. The few following rules, by which may be determined the degree of responsibility for neglect incurred by every bailee, are drawn from the mingled sources of the laws of Rome and England, and will be found to be consonant to the common feelings of mankind, and the purest dictates of natural reason.

1. If the benefit resulting from the contract be equal to both parties, the obligation is equal, and the bailee is such case is responsible for ordinary neglect, and no more.

2. If the *bailor only* be benefited by the contract, the bailee is bound simply to good faith, and is answerable only for gross neglect, which is tantamount to fraud.

3. If, on the other hand, the *bailee alone* receive advantage from the bailment, he is obliged to be more than ordinarily careful, and is responsible even for slight neglect.

To these three leading principles must be added two auxiliary rules:—

1. No bailee is chargeable for loss or damage by inevitable accident, or by irresistible force, except by special agreement.

2. Robbery is considered as irresistible force, but loss by stealing is presumptive evidence of ordinary neglect.

It is beyond the scope of this article to illustrate the foregoing principles by examples; but there are two or three exceptions grounded upon the peculiar nature of the contract and the great maxims of public utility, which must be taken notice of.

1. If a bailee refuse to return the things bailed upon a lawful demand, he becomes answerable for even the slightest neglect.

2. If a guest be robbed by the servants or inmates of an inn, the innkeeper is responsible.

3. If goods bailed to a common carrier be lost by any means, except by the act of God, or of the king's enemies, the carrier is bound to indemnify the owner.

Cases may happen in which the two last exceptions may press hardly upon an innocent individual; yet there can be no doubt but that they are fraught with the profoundest wisdom, and to be justified by the strongest of all arguments—the public good. For there is no other way of ensuring property against the uncommon, yet necessary opportunities, which innkeepers and carriers must possess, except by attaching a double portion of blame upon the bailees in case of its loss; and thus, by making them more than ordinarily responsible, to endeavour to make them more than ordinarily careful.

The great authorities upon this title of the law to

BAILMENT.

RAIL-
MENT.
BAIRN.

be consulted by the student, are the following:—*The Two Laws of Ulpian*, called *Contractus*, d. l. 17. 23; and *Sicut certo*, d. xiii. 6. 5. 2; Pothier's *Treatise on Contracts*, Coges v. Bernard, 2 Lord Raym. 909; and last and best, Sir William Jones's admirable *Essay on the Law of Bailments*.

BAILYBOROUGH, a small market town in Ireland, in the county of Cavan; 14 miles S.E. from Cavan, 43 N.W. from Dublin. On the top of a hill near this town is a pool celebrated for its antiscorbatic virtues; and the mud of which is considered equally efficacious if rubbed on the affected parts: the temperature of the water varies nothing in summer or winter.

BAIN, v. } *Fr. baigner; It. bagnare; Sp. bañarse.*
BAIN, n. } All from the Latin *balneum*, (*bañum*,
Baño, } *bañum*, *bañi*, *Meunage*.) *Balneo*, per-
haps *Bapō* v. *bañō* v. *bañi* v. *quod pellat ex*
animi dolorem ac tristitiam. *Vna. Elym.*

To wet, to wash, to bathe.

And when soft leaves do *bain* my breast,
Where loes his pleasant traineth hath sown,
Her beauty bath the fruites oppress,
Ere that the buds were sprung and blowne.

Surrey. Songs and Sonnets.

And Priam eke in vaine hie did ruse
To armes, whom Priamus with despite hath done
To cruel death, and *bain'd* him in the *bain*,
Of his sonne's blood before the altar shiner.

Mar. for Mag. fol. 268.

When I awaking all language
due *bain* my breast with streames,
And make my smokie sighes to ayes,
thy spownde waile to take,
Thus with a surge of teares bedewde,
(Obed) I thee forsake. *Turcivale. Epitaphs, &c.*

They lefte no gentylmen's house vnbreut or cast downe to the
erth; and thanne they came agayne to Marlie, the erle's house,
and beate downe all that they had left stayng before; and they
they feilde the crowle wherein the erle was kept in his youth,
and brake it all to peeces, and a fayre beyow, wherin he was wont
to be hayed; also they beate downe the chappell, and bere away
the bell. *Friswaert. Cronyckes, v. l. c. 404.*

Taking no pleasure nor delight in the world afterwards,
more than the hen-keeper's poor ass, which carrying billets and
sagons of drie brush and sticks to kindle fire, and to heat the
stoups, is evermore full of smook, soot, ashes, and sinners;
but hath no benefit at all of the *bain*, and is never *bathed*, washed,
warmed, rubbed, scoured, and made cleane.

Holland's Plutarch, fol. 174.

BAIRAM, or BIRAM, the greater and the less.
The two great Mohammedan festivals: the first called,
in Arabic, *Idulfeir*, (i. e. the breaking of the fast) immediately
succeeds the month of Ramadan, and is celebrated for a week with every demonstration of joy;
the second called *Idul-kurbko*, or *al-ada*, (the feast of the
sacrifice,) begins on the tenth of Dhul hijjah, (the
11th month in the year,) when the victims are slain
by the pilgrims at Mecca. It is kept for three days;
but the first, on which every householder kills a sheep
or a goat, is the only one much observed. At Isfahan
the sacrifice of a camel, which is still more meritorious,
is always made. The first is by divines called the
greater of the two; but the people commonly reverse
this order, and call that feast the greater, which they
enjoy most. (See Sale's *Koran*, *Prefat.* Disc. 120, 150.
Morgan's *Mahometism* explained, l. 188.)

BAIRN or BARNE, see BARN.

Scho poud an apple reid and white

To intice the roge thing in :

Scho poud an apple white and reid

And that the weik *bairn* did win.

The Jew's Daughter in Percy, l. 29.

And quhat wul seilve to now *bairn* and now wife,
And quhat wul seilve to now *bairn* and now wife, Edward,
Edward?

Quhat se ging over the sea, O?
The warlike room, let thame be throw life, mither, mither.
Edward. l. 61.

BAIT, v. } A. S. *bizan*, to bait or bite.
BAIT, n. } *Bit* or *bait*, whether used (like *morao*,
morcos, or *morsel*), for a small piece, part, or portion
of anything; or for that part of a bridle, which is put
into a horse's mouth; or for that nasty refreshment
which man or beast takes upon a journey; or for that
temptation which is offered by treachery to fish or
fool; is but one word differently spelled, and is the
past participle of the verb, to *bait*. Tooke, ii. 132.

Yeres and dayes feet this creature

Thurghout the see of Greece, unto the straits

Of Maron, as it was here crept in:

On many a wryle now may the *bait*.

Chaucer. The Man of Lawes Tale, v. 4887.

Whiche thing when the crafty temptour perceived, thinking
him to be nothing but a man, (although in deede a notable and
a wonderful man,) he catcht his hook, begirt with y^e enticement
of rayne glory, for therwith chiefly hee is taken, whiche sense
endeavour to the hystre perfection. *Udall. Matthew, c. iv.*

For many men be not early by his prosperous success decieved,
supposing it to be divine and perpetual, (but also because that he
be bounde to him by giftes and benefites) thri be it here fynkes
take with a sweet begitt. *Sey. The Exposition of Daniel.*

And for a truth begitt hee is self counsell,

I thought that men would throw rewards on me;

But as a fish wld bite without a *bait*,

So none unweet, men's needs will hear or see.

Guarigue. A Remembrance in Chas. ii. 458

Alway, oft hast thou said, but sped not straight,

With hook and net thou hast the world round;

Of times the place thou changest, oft the *bait*;

And, catching nothing, still and still dost wait.

Learn by thy trade to cure thee: time hath found.

In despite, pure, a salve for every wound.

The fish, long playing with the baited hook,

At last is caught: thus many a synner is took.

P. Fletcher. Picaresque Eclogues, 5.

So they taryed at Dover tyll their horses were unshipped, and
than they rode to Canterbury; and wheresoever they layed or
lay, their houses were pavel: at last they came to Eatham, and
there they founde Kyng Henry and part of his counsaile.

Friswaert's Cronyck, v. li. c. 246.

Within the gloomy hole of this pale night,

The serpent woo'd him with his charmes to lea,

There he might *bait* the day, and rest the night:

But under that maze had a fearful grin,

Was ready to entangle him in sin.

G. Fletcher. Christ's Triumph on Earth.

For the faine goeth, that Hercules upon a time, after hee had
atake Geryon, drove that way exceeding faire oxen, and neere the
river Tibris, where hee had swum over with his druce afore him,
laid him downe in a faire greene myrtle, as well to refresh him-
self, being wearie of his way, as also to rest, and laid his cattle
in so plentifull grasse and scrage. *Holland's Livres, fol. 7.*

For though I be

Too narrow to thicke him, as he is he,

(Our souls' best *bait* and mid-period,

In her long journey of considering Goe),

Yet (no dishonour) I can reach him close,

As he embrac'd the fires of love, with us.

Duane. An Elirgy.

For, tempted with imaginary baies,

Fed with immortal hopes and empty praise;

His faine pursues, that fair and treacherous *bait*,

Grows wise when he's undone, repents when 'tis too late.

Talbot's Epitaphiall Ode.

For this misfortune careless Jane,

Assure yourself, was heedly rated:

And madam, getting up again,

With her own hand the mouse-trap baited.

Prior. A Reasonable Affliction.

BAIT.
—
BAKE.

The edict was scarcely published, when all the troops in the kingdom were baited with cheese; numbers were taken and destroyed, but still the much wished for mouse was not among the number.

Goldsmith. Criticism of the World.

Also! expect it not. We found no bait
To tempt us in thy country. Dolog good,
Disinterested good, is not our trade.

Cooper. The Task, book i.

In life a hundred years, or e'er so few,
The reputation all, and nobbling are;
A false, where thousands meet, but none can stay,
An inn where travellers bait, then pass away.
Fowler. The Mysteries of Old Age.

BAIT, v. } *Baiten, incitare canes vel falcones ve-*
BAIT, s. } *J. nandi causa. Verel. in Ind. Baita, incitare*
falcones aut canes venaticos in predam. Wachter. Per-
haps of the same origin with the former. To bite at.
In Chaucer, Ploversman's Tale, v. 87. (says Junius) the
stake to which bears, bulls, &c. are fastened to be
attacked by dogs is called, bote. "As hoistous as is bere
at bote." Hence (he adds) is "baiting: now written baite.

He shall be baited as a bear.

Chaucer. Pl. T. v. 388.

Trydall said that there is nothing heard in the church among us,
but hootyng, bawoyng, and crying out, like bawoyng of the lost
or bawoyng of beads.

If the quere bee lowe; then they crye oute. If they cryge anye
thyng; yet they bawoy and bait.

Id. fol. 415. c. i.

Faction quarels and enmities there were exceeding many, that
tormented them; and he plagued others with as many; and hard
it is to say or set downe, whether hee were urged and pressed upon
by the nobilitie, or himselfe corraed and baited them more.

Holland's Livins, fol. 1050.

Inlurion Hermit, most vngestell mold,
Hase you consyld, have you with these contris'd
To knite me, with this foule detraction?

Shakespeare. Midsummer Night's Dream, fol. 154.

CLER. Are those thy beares? We'll have thy beares to death,
And manacle the beards in their chains,
If thou dar'st bring them to thy bawoyng place.

Id. Henry IV. part ii. fol. 144. c. ii.

Often times also he represented the Ciceronian games in the Va-
lencian, and other whiles after every five courses hee brought in the
bawoyng of wild beastes.

Holland's Suetonius, fol. 164.

BAKE, } A. S. *bacan*; Dutch *bakken*; Ger.
BAKKE, } *bäcken*. To dry by heat.

Withouthen bak wete never was his honn,
Of fish and flesh.

Chaucer. Prologue, v. 346.

Lake of Egypt the king, don Pharaon,

His baker and his baker also,

Whether they ne felten no effect in dreames.

Chaucer. The Nonnes Preestes Tale, v. 15141.

She said her husband was so wayward that he would never be
pleased. For if his bread was so he was downe, then he is
angry. Mary, no mercurie & her gomey. Mary and wete ye what
gomey good she. And if I bake it all to harte colpe, yet it be not
content neither.

St. Tus. More's Works, fol. 208.

For the sunnall affirmed it (and Daniel sawe before his fete to be
made and bak but of brittle bakery) his bodye therfore now reletch
and staggery

Joye. The Expulsion of Daniel.

I hold that curiosities, bakings of meats, and superfluous provi-
sions upon this day are to be avoided, as being an unnecessary
breaking of the rest of this day, and unbecoming the solemnity
of it.

The same day in the afternoon, were two men hang'd on a
gibbet in Pauls Church yard by martial law, the one John Eg-
gley, servant to the Duke of Suffolk, and late Sheriff of Leicester,
the other a baker, one of the white coats sent out of the clitie
against Wynt.

Stow. Ann. 1554. Qu. Mary.

For the carage whereof, hee took up even the passengers
waggon that usually were laden, yee, the very jades which served
mills and barke-houses.

Holland's Suetonius, fol. 141.

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But pass—the *Æsculapian crew*,
Who eat and quaff the best,
They seldom mix to bake and brew,
Or lin to break their fast.

Prior. The Wandering Pilgrim.

Nur seldom waits,
Dependent on the baker's practical rail,
To hear his crackling paniers at the door,
Angry and sad, and his last crust consumed.

Cooper. The Task, book i.

BAKING, the art of making bread. Bread is com-
posed of flour, yeast, water and salt. A peck of flour
requires a handful of salt, a pint of yeast, and three
quarts of water. The oven ought to be heated more
than an hour before the loaf is placed in it; and three
hours' baking are required.

There are two companies of Bakers in London: the
White Bakers were incorporated in Edward 3d's reign; the
Brown Bakers not till 19th James I. By a statute
of the 22d Henry VIII, cap. 13. they are established
as superior to common trades: "No man for using
the mysteries or sciences of baking, brewing, survey-
ing or writing, shall be interpreted a handicraft." The
two kinds of bread known by the names of white or
whentian and household, must be distinguished by the
letter W. or H. stamped upon each of them respec-
tively; and a peck loaf of either kind must weigh
seventeen lbs. six ounces avoirdupois.

The process of biscuit-baking for the victualling de-
partment, as carried on at Deptford, requires a number
of hands. The dough made of flour and water only, is
kneaded by a machine. It is then sliced by a large
knife, and handed to the moulder, who forms two biscuits
at a time; next to the marker who stamps them; then
to the splitter, who separates them; afterwards to the
chucker, who throws them to the peel, an operation of
extraordinary nicety; and lastly the disposer, who ar-
ranges them in the oven. Seventy are so placed in a
minute. There are twelve ovens, and each will daily
furnish biscuit for 3040 men.

The price of bread in London used to be regulated
by the average price of wheat, and it was fixed weekly
by the Lord Mayor. The assize is now abolished; and
by a recent act of parliament, 3d George IV, the
peck loaf and its subdivisions are forbidden, and bread
is permitted to be sold by weight only.

The Romans were very skilful in the art of baking.
Pliny reckons that bread should be 3d heavier than the
meal used for baking it. According to experiments
mentioned by Köhlen in the appendix to his *Rechen-
meister*, a hundred pounds of meal in Germany produce
a hundred and fifty pounds of dough, and this dough
produces 153 lbs. 11 oz. of good bread. The bread of
modern Italy, if baked by the natives, is the worst in
Europe. In Rome and Venice it is baked by Germans.
In the former city the German Bakers form a com-
pany, and are a very rich body.

BAKEWELL, or BATH QUELLS, so called from its
bath well, an ancient market town in Derbyshire, called
Badeconnyngton, in the Saxon chronicle, built by Edward
the elder in the year 924. It is the largest parish in
the county, extending more than 30 miles from north
to south. The manufacture of cotton employs much of
the population of the town, which in 1821 amounted
to 1782. The whole parish contains more than 9000.
The poor's rates, in 1803, were £539. Os. 10d. Bake-
well is a vicarage, in the gift of the Dean and Chapter
of Lichfield.

BALA **BALÆNA.** BALA, a market town of Merionethshire, in North Wales; and a borough by prescription, though it sends no members to parliament. It is distant 202 miles N.W. from London, and 36 from Welshpool. Population in 1821, 1163. Manufactures, knitting woolen gloves, stockings, and the caps called Welsh wigs. The assizes for the county are held alternately in this town and in Dolgelly. There are vestiges of three Roman camps in the neighbourhood, and adjacent to the town is a large artificial mound, called *Tommen y Bala*, supposed to be of Roman origin.

Llyn Tegid, Pembre mere or Bala lake, lies a few miles to the south of the town. It is the largest sheet of water in Wales, being four miles in length, and about three quarters of a mile in breadth. The scenery around it is rich. The depth of the water is forty feet, but it sometimes rises nine feet above its usual level, overflowing the vale of Eiderion. It abounds in fish, and the tradition of the country fables that the river Dee, like the Rhone at Geneva, passes through without mixing its waters with those of the lake.

BALÆNA.—WHALE FISHERY.

BALÆNA (φάληνα, a Whale, according to J. Johnston, from φάλλω to cast up, because the animal throws up water) Ray, Lin. Cuv. Illig. *Whale* Pen. In Zoology, a genus of animals belonging to the family *Cetacea ordinaria*, order *Cetacea*, class *Mammalia*.

Generic character. Lasted of teeth, pendulous horny laminae, triangular and fibrous at their edges: distinct frontal spiracles: anterior extremities pinated, posterior none; tail horizontal, with or without the dorsal fin: two inguinal teats.

This remarkable genus, is common with the others forming the order *Cetacea*, was formerly considered as belonging to the grand class, Fishes; which we find divided by Ray into "*Pisces pulmones respirantes*," or Fishes respiring with lungs, and "*Pisces branchii respirantes*," or Fishes respiring with gills; among the former of which he placed the Whale tribe, and his arrangement has been followed by Pennant. But Linnæus observing that their structure and economy were very different from fishes, which they only resembled in inhabiting the water, ranked them among his first class, *Mammalia*, to which they are closely allied in all their essential characters, such as having a double heart and lungs, and being viviparous, neither of which is the case with fishes.

The head of this genus is remarkable for its great size, being a third and sometimes half of the whole body: the upper jaw is furnished with plates of a horny structure, which arranged transversely in several rows, and encompassing the outer skirts of the jaw, occupy the place of the teeth in other animals; they are thin and of a triangular shape, having their edges armed with long thread-like processes, which hang down loose in the mouth; this structure is well known by the name of *Whalebone*, and is much used in commerce: the upper jaw when the mouth is shut is received within the lower, which is destitute of these horny processes, and only supports a thick fleshy tongue; by this contrivance the food of the animal, which consists of small fish, molluscs, and crustacea, being received into the mouth with a large quantity of water, cannot escape, as it becomes entangled in the thready processes of the whalebone when the jaws are closed, through which however the water easily finds its way out.

The spiracles or blowholes are curious parts in the economy of these animals; here it will be sufficient to mention, that the water having passed into a bag situated at the external orifice of the nostrils, is driven by a strong muscular effort through a straight passage at the top of the head, which is sometimes divided by a membrane making the blowhole double.

The anterior or pectoral fins answer to the anterior extremities of the other *Mammalia*, and contain the same series of bones: some species possess a kind of dorsal fin, composed of a fatty or gristly substance, whilst others have none; this has given rise to Lacépède's division of Whales into two genera, *Balæna*, or those without the dorsal fin, and *Balaenoptera*, or those having a dorsal fin.

Beneath the skin is found the blubber or fat enveloping the whole body of the animal; it is of a yellowish white, yellow, or red colour; in some old animals it is of a salmon colour, whilst in the young it is always of a yellowish white: from this substance whale oil is procured; and as it is a very interesting subject both in a commercial point of view, and to the general reader, an account of the fishery will be given after the different species of the animal have been noticed.

These animals are viviparous, bringing forth one at a time, which they suckle and protect with great affection.

For a farther description of their structure and classification, see *COMPARATIVE ANATOMY AND ZOOLOGY*.

The following are the species,

B. mysticetus, Lin. Cuv. *la Balæne franche*, Læf. *Mysticetus*, Aristotle. *Great Mysticete*, Shaw. *Common Whale*, Pen. The love of the marvellous has never been carried to greater excess in the description of any animal, than in that of the enormous length of the common Greenland Whale; one naturalist after another has made use of the same old story about the size of the animal being diminished in consequence of the fisheries which have been carried on for such a length of time; so that instead of the Whale being 150 or 200 feet long, as they were "in olden time," they are not now taken above 60 or 70 feet in length. Mr. Scoresby observes very justly, that "there is every probability of such an error having been committed two or three centuries back, from which period some of our dimensions have been derived, when we know that Whales were usually viewed with superstitious dread, and their magnitude and powers in consequence highly exaggerated."

That our forefathers preferred these wonderful narrations to the account of those who were likely to be the most competent judges of the subject is very evident; for if we take the trouble to refer to Marten's *Voyage to Spitzbergen*, published at Hamburg in 1675, we shall find that he states "our biggest Whale was 53 feet long, and his tail three fathom and a half broad," which perfectly agrees with Mr. Scoresby's assertion, that "of 392 individuals, in the capture of which I have been personally concerned, no one, I believe,

BALÆNA. exceeded 60 feet in length, and the largest I ever measured, was 58 feet from one extremity to the other, being one of the longest to appearance which I ever saw. From fifty to sixty feet therefore is to be considered the average length of the Greenland Whale; and that this always was the case is farther proved by the quantity of oil then obtained from the animal not being greater than it is now. The greatest circumference of the body of this species is thirty or forty feet, and that a little behind the fins, from whence it tapers towards the head, and backwards cylindrically to within ten feet of the tail, where it becomes somewhat quadrangular, the greatest ridge being upwards, and running nearly across the middle of the tail; "to a word," says Marten, "the whole fish is shaped like a shoemaker's last, if you look upon it from beneath. The head is somewhat triangular, the under part formed by the jaw-bones being flat, and measuring from sixteen to twenty feet in length, and from ten to twelve feet in breadth; the lips are about the same length, and five or six feet high, having the appearance of the letter U when looked at in front."—"When the mouth is open, it presents a cavity as large as a room," Mr. Scoresby says, "and capable of containing a merchant ship's jolly-boat." Instead of teeth, as has been before mentioned, the mouth is provided with numerous rows of "fins," or whalebone; and each series, or "side of bone," as the whalers call it, is composed of more than 300 laminae, which are generally ten or eleven feet long, and occasionally fifteen feet; these are broadest at the gum, and are there about ten or twelve inches in breadth: in some Whales a curious hollow on one side, and a ridge on the other, occurs in many of the central blades of whalebone, at regular intervals of six or seven inches. Mr. Scoresby puts it as a question, "whether this irregularity, like the rings in the horns of the ox, which they resemble, may not afford an intimation of the age of the Whale?" the animal is said to be six, when the whalebone is six feet long, or upwards. The eyes are not larger than those of an ox, situated behind the angles of the mouth, on the sides of the head. The external opening of the ear is but small, and has no auricle, so that some naturalists have believed that the Whale has no external ear; but Mr. Hunter's examination has proved the contrary. The blow-holes, or spiracles, are placed about six feet from the front edge of the jaw, on the highest part of the head, consisting of two longitudinal apertures, six or eight inches in length, which are the nostrils; when the animal breathes, a moist vapour is thrown up, mixed with mucus, but no water is ejected unless the respiration he made under water: they make a great noise in blowing or breathing, which may be heard at a considerable distance, and they blow loudest when frightened; they respire about four or five times in a minute, and throw up the vapour many yards, which at a distance looks like smoke. The fins, of which there are only two, (there being no dorsal fin), are the anterior or pectoral; these are from seven to nine feet long, and four to five broad, being capable of motion in any direction; but they are prevented from being raised above the horizontal position by the tension of the skin and flesh below; the account therefore of Whales supporting their young on their back by means of their fins, must be fabulous. The tail occupies a single surface of 80 or 100 square feet, it is only five or six feet long, but from eighteen

to twenty-four or twenty-six feet in breadth, and is **BALÆNA.** placed horizontally; its motions are rapid and universal, and by it the animal is principally moved along, in the same way that a boat is sculled by a single oar.

The skin of the Whale is slightly plated on the body, but smooth on the fin and tail. As to the colour of the animal, the back, most of the upper and part of the lower jaw, the fins and tail, are black; the fore part of the under jaw, the lips and the belly, white; the eyelids grey: the younger Whales are of a bluish black, or bluish grey, the older ones more black and grey.

When feeding, the Whale swims along with considerable velocity below the surface of the water, having its jaws widely opened; of course the water enters its enormous mouth, and with it numerous molluscs and water-insects; as the jaws are shut, the water drains out through the hairs of the whalebone, in which the food becomes entangled.

Whales are believed to go with young about ten months, and the time of delivery is presumed to be in February or March; they very rarely have more than one cub at a time. The maternal affection of the Whale, though a dull animal, is very interesting; the cub, being unaware of danger, is easily harpooned; but the mother's attachment is such, that it frequently brings her within reach of the fishers, and she not uncommonly falls a victim to her parental fondness. A very striking instance of this is given by Mr. Scoresby; he says, "In June, 1811, one of my harpooners struck a sucker, with the hope that it would lead to the capture of the mother. Presently she arose close by the 'fast boat,' and seizing the young one, dragged about a hundred fathoms of line out of the boat with remarkable force and velocity. Again she arose to the surface; darted furiously to and fro; frequently stopped short, or suddenly changed her direction, and gave every possible intimation of extreme agony. For a length of time she continued thus to act, though closely pursued by the boats; and inspired with courage and resolution by her concern for her offspring, seemed regardless of the danger which surrounded her. At length, one of the boats approached so near, that a harpoon was hove at her. It hit, but did not attach itself. A second harpoon was struck; this also failed to penetrate; but a third was more effectual, and held. Still she did not attempt to escape, but allowed other boats to approach; so that in a few minutes three more harpoons were fastened; and in the course of an hour afterwards she was killed."

The Whale is remarkably timid, setting off with the greatest agitation on the least alarm: its bitterest enemies are the Shark and Sword-fish, and it avoids those seas where Sharks abound: the Narwhal was formerly believed to be inimical to the Whale, but this is now proved not to be the case.

This animal is most commonly met with in the frægo seas of Greenland and Davis' straits, and along the northern coasts of Asia and America; in the German ocean it is never found; but on the African and South American coast it is met with in vast numbers at stated times, where it is attacked by the South Sea whalers.

It is this species which affords the principal supply of oil and whalebone; a Greenland Whale, of sixty feet in length, will yield about thirty tons of blubber

BALÆNA, the head, whalebone, fins, and tail, will weigh eight or ten more, and the carcass about thirty or thirty-two tons. The flesh affords food to the Indians and Esquimaux, who also employ the bones in making harpoons, the sinews form thread for them; the sinews of the tail, which are not very oily, are manufactured into glue in Holland.

Lacépède, and after him Cuvier, has made another species, which they call *Balæna Nordcapæ*; this Linnaeus considered merely as a variety of the preceding; and Mr. Scoresby says of Lacépède's figures of the two animals, that the one representing the *B. Mysticetus*, has not its counterpart in nature; whilst the *B. Nordcapæ* is a fair representation of the *Mysticetus*.

B. Physalus, Lin. Cuv.; *Balenoptera Gibber*, Lacép.; *Razor-bark* of the whalers: *Fin-fish*, Martens; *Fin Whale*, Pen. This is the largest animal of the Whale genus, being about a hundred feet in length, but considerably less in circumference than the Greenland Whale; the body is compressed on the sides, and angular on the back: it has an immovable rayless fin on the back; it swims quickly, and is a doubtless animal: the whalebone it affords does not exceed four feet in length, and the quantity of oil it gives is but small. The Whale fishers are annoyed when they meet with many of these Razor-backs, as from experience they know that the Greenland Whale avoids the seas which they frequent.

B. Hoops, Lin. Cuv.; *Balenoptera Jubartes*, Lacép.; *Finer* of the whalers; *Pike-headed Whale*, Pen. Is about forty-six feet in length, and twenty in circumference; its dorsal fin about two and a half feet high; the skin of the throat and chest is plaited in deep longitudinal folds, capable of great dilatation: the use of these is not known.

B. Rostrata, Lin.; *Balenoptera Acutorostrata*, Lacép. *Sharp-nosed Whale*, Scoresby. Its length is only seventeen feet and a half, its circumference twenty feet; and from the snout to the pectoral fin five and a half: its colour is black: the largest whalebone from it is not more than six inches.

These three last species, with the *Balenoptera Rorqual* of Lacépède, or *Balæna Musculus* of Linnaeus, which is very probably a variety of the *Physalus*, form Lacépède's new genus *Balenoptera*, from having a dorsal fin; but this does not seem a sufficient reason for separating them from the *Balæna*, as their structure is in other respects similar.

Of the Whale Fishery.

Among the numerous and varied means employed by human ingenuity in subjecting to "the use and service of man" the diversified productions of nature, none, perhaps, can be found more interesting to the inquiring mind, either as a matter of mere curiosity, or as a subject of great national importance, than the Whale trade; some idea of which may be gained from Anderson's *Commercial Dictionary*, who says, "that in 1795 the consumption of fish oil as a substitute for tallow, amounted in London to £300,000," and that this demand continued annually. Besides the employment of a large class of men, it presents to a maritime state the great advantage of a ready supply of the hardest seamen in the hour of danger; and to this must be ascribed the fostering care with which

parliament has always watched over the fisheries, and **BALÆNA** the consequent superiority which this country has possessed for so many years in naval affairs. It is intended to give here a brief description of the origin and progress of the Whale fishery, and of the mode in which it is now carried on, with an account of the method in which the oil and whalebone are obtained. Here, it should be observed, that the principal source of information is derived from *An Account of the Arctic Regions, with a History and Description of the Northern Whale Fishery*, by W. Scoresby, jun. F.R.S.E. in two volumes, published at Edinburgh, 1800, which contains the knowledge of a man long employed in the trade, and presents the best description of the mode in which it is carried on, that has yet come before the public: it is well worth perusal, and to it the reader must be referred for more particular information.

History of the Rise and Progress of the Whale Fishery.

Most authors have assigned to the Biscayans the honour of having been the first engaged in the Whale fishery; but this is a matter of doubt. The earliest authentic account we have of a voyage for this express purpose, is that of Othhere, a native of Haldgoland, who sailed round the coast of Norway in the year 890, and communicated to Alfred the Great the result of his enterprise, by whom it has been added to his translation of Orosius, which has since been rendered into English by the Hon. D. Barrington, and may be found in his *Miscellanies*. In the ninth century, we find, on the authority of Langebek, that the Whale fishery was carried on in the northern countries of Europe. A title of Whales was granted to the convent of the Holy Trinity at Caen in the eleventh century, by William the Conqueror, on all those taken near, or brought to Dvye. And it appears from a manuscript of the thirteenth century, quoted by D'Aussay, in his essay, *La vie privée des Français*, that the flesh, and particularly the tongue of this animal, were sold in the markets of Bayonne, Cibonne, and Biariz. They were probably fresh, and taken off the Norman coast, as Edward III. of England had £6 sterling on every Whale taken into Bézir; and this duty had become so profitable, that in 1338 it was granted as a reward to Peter de Puyanne, for his services as admiral of the English fleet. In the sixteenth century, the Biscayans were considered the best fishers; but Mr. Scoresby thinks that the Whales they took were probably the *B. Rostrata*, and not the *Mysticetus*; these animals at particular times resorted to the Bay of Biscay, where they were taken by the fishers, who, as they became more scarce, pursued them to the north, till they ultimately arrived at Iceland and Greenland: here they were joined by the Icelanders, and towards the end of the sixteenth century the two nations sent out together fifty or sixty sail.

The English do not appear to have engaged very early in this trade, for the first account we have of any of their attempts, was in 1594, when several ships were sent out to Cape Breton, at the mouth of the gulf of St. Lawrence, and returned with seven or eight hundred lamins of *fat*, or whalebone, taken from the wreck of two Biscayan vessels, which had been lost there a few years before; and this is the first account of the importation of whalebone. In 1598, the

BALÆNA. merchants of Hull embarked in this trade, and their perseverance in it has made their town of considerable importance, as they now send to the fishery three times as many ships as any other port in Great Britain. In 1610, two ships were sent to Spitzbergen in pursuit of Whales, by the "company for the discovery of unknown countries," (afterwards named the Muscovy, or Russia Company,) at the instance of Captain Jonas Poole; but both ships were lost, though their crews, and part of the cargo, were saved. This station, Spitzbergen, was soon invaded by the whalers of other nations, and frequent disputes were the consequences; notwithstanding the English Russia Company had obtained a royal charter in 1613, and were supported by a ship of war, the *Tigris*, of twenty-one guns, to enforce their prerogative and monopoly, frequent reprisals occurred, but without any advantage to the English.

In 1614, some Dutch merchants obtained a charter from the states-general, granting them for three years the right of all fisheries and other emoluments between Nova Zembla and Davis' straits, excluding all other ships of that realm from interference, on pain of confiscation. For the purpose of protecting their whalers, four ships of war, carrying thirty guns each, and with the whalers making eighteen sail, were sent out: the English, not being so strong, dared not prevent the Dutch from fishing, but both parties made a poor season.

In 1617, fourteen ships were sent out by the Russia Company, which killed 150 Whales, and obtained 1500 or 1900 tons of oil, with which they arrived safe at home. In the following year King James granted a patent to a number of English, Scotch, and Zealand adventurers; but this being supposed prejudicial to the Russia and East India Companies, was revoked; the consequence of which was, that the enraged Zealanders attacked the English in the harbour at Foreland, killed a number of their men, destroyed their stores, and compelled them to return home empty.

The English at this time declared that they had the exclusive right to the fishery, to which the Dutch and Danes laid an equal claim, at last, however, they agreed to a division of the bays and harbours. The English, who had dexterously managed to obtain the privilege of choosing first, took as their station the southern bays, consisting of Bell sound, Preservation harbour in Ice sound, and Horisoo bay, all situate south of the Foreland: the Dutch, going further north, chose the island of Amsterdam, with a bay on either side, and Hollander's bay; whilst the Danes established themselves at Dane's bay and island, between the English and the Dutch. The Hamburgers resorted to a bay north of the Foreland, near the Seven Icebergs; but the Spaniards and French, who were the first discoverers, coming late in the year, after the division had been made, were compelled to put up with stations on the north of Spitzbergen. After this arrangement, the fisheries went on to the satisfaction of all parties.

About 1630, it was thought that great advantage might be derived by persons wintering in Spitzbergen; and considerable premiums were offered by the English to any volunteers for that purpose; but no one was hardly enough to hazard a trial; and even some criminals, who were pardoned on that condition, when they saw the nature of the climate, solicited to return

home, and suffer death in preference. Part of a ship's **BALÆNA.** crew, however, which was accidentally left, survived the winter, after suffering very severe hardships; and this induced the Dutch to try the experiment again: two volunteer parties, of seven each, were left in August 1633, one on Amsterdam island, the other on San Mayen's island, provided with every needful article; the former party all survived, but the latter was destroyed by the scurvy; as was another left at the same place in the following year.

In 1649 the Dutch charter expired, and the fishery was thrown open to all adventurers, which in a few years increased so much as to employ between two and three hundred sail; and between the years 1660 and 1670, the Dutch and Hamburg ships so employed amounted to four or five hundred, whilst the English did not send a single ship.

The British government saw this falling off to the fishery with regret; and in 1672 an act of parliament was passed, dispensing with the navigation laws, and allowing British-built ships, with a master and half the crew English, to carry Hollanders or other expert fishers as the remainder; the duties on oil and whalebone so imported were withdrawn, whilst that brought in foreign ships had a duty imposed of £9. per ton on the oil, and £18. per ton on the whalebone. But even this had not the desired effect; and in 1693 Sir William Scaven, with forty-one other persons, were incorporated for fourteen years, as *The Company of Merchants trading to Greenland*, with a capital of £40,000, which by the year 1703 was increased to £80,000; but from accidents and mismanagement the whole of this sum was lost. Things having gone on thus unfortunately, not even a free trade, with all the advantages possessed by a chartered company, could induce any British subject to engage in the fishery for a long while.

At the suggestion of Henry Elking, a man experienced in the trade, the Whale fishery was proposed, in 1731, by Sir John Eyles, the sub-governor of the South Sea Company, to that society; and, after much opposition, it was adopted by them in 1734. Government at the same time held out every inducement; and in 1735 the Company sent out twelve ships, which returned with twenty-five and a half Whales; in 1730, twenty-two sail were sent out, but came home with only twelve fish; after persevering eight years, during which time immense sums of money were lost, and the fishery had been very unproductive, they finally gave it up, at the end of the season of 1739.

About this time (1738), government offered a bounty of twenty shillings per ton on the burden of all British whalers, but only two ships availed themselves of it. In 1740, an additional bounty of ten shillings was added; but this being thought insufficient, in 1749 the bounty was increased to forty shillings per ton. This had the desired effect; and in 1753 the fleets of England and Scotland amounted to forty sail, increasing annually, so that in 1755 there were eighty-two sail employed in the fishery. In 1771, the bounty was ordered to be continued for five years at forty shillings; for the next five years, it was to be reduced to thirty shillings; and the third term of five years to twenty shillings. The consumption of whalebone in ladies' stays was at this time very great; so that notwithstanding the increasing importation, this article still remained at a high price.

BALÆNA. The reduction of the bounty to thirty shillings, was found to be a very serious evil, the number of ships having decreased to thirty-nine sail, in 1781; it was therefore raised again that year to forty shillings; and in 1786 the ships had increased to 185 sail. This year an act was passed, which may be considered as the fundamental act of the present fisheries; the bounty was again reduced to thirty shillings for the five ensuing years; and no ship after 1791, however large, was to receive bounty for more than 300 tons. Among other things it was therein enacted, that the owner and master make oath of the nature and object of the voyage; and that it be "on no other design or view of profit, than the capture of Whales and other creatures inhabiting the Greenland seas. Each ship must sail, unless delayed by necessity, before the 10th of April, must remain within the Greenland seas till the 10th of August, and the master and owner must make oath of their attention to the provisions of the law; the ship then becomes entitled to the bounty."

In 1793 the bounty was reduced to twenty-five shillings from December 25, 1792 to December 25, 1795, and from which time, till 1798, it was to be continued at only twenty shillings per ton, at which it now remains.

Till 1797 the produce of the North Whale Fishery was imported "free of all customs, subsidies, or other duty;" but an impost of 1*l*. 1*s*. 1*d*. was then laid on train-oil or blubber, &c. and three per cent. on all other produce of the fisheries; by the Consolidation Act of the 49th of Geo. III. the duty was reduced from three farthings per gallon, 1*s*. 9*d*. per ton, to one farthing, and an additional 1*s*. 9*d*. in the time of war.

In 1818 the obnoxious clause in the oath, "on no other design or view of profit" was repealed, for the purpose of "encouraging any attempt to discover a north-west passage."

Of the Fitting out of Whale Ships.

Of this, Mr. Scoresby says, "a ship intended for the Greenland or Davis' straits trade, should, I conceive, be of three or four hundred tons admeasurement, very substantially built, doubled and fortified; should have six or seven feet perpendicular space between the decks; should be furnished with a description of sails which are easily worked; and should possess the property of fast-sailing." The crew consists of forty or fifty men, comprising boat-steerers, harpooners, line-managers, carpenters, coopers, &c. these, besides their pay, receive a gratuity according to their rank, on every Whale taken. The chief harpooner is called the speckioneer, a corruption of the Dutch word *speck-snyder*; formerly he had the whole management of the fishery, but this is now entrusted to the captain.

Every ship ought to be provided with a *crow's nest*, or hurricane house, that invented by Mr. Scoresby, senior, is composed of wooden staves, four feet and a half in length, nailed round a hoop two feet and a half wide, covered with canvas, open above, and entered by a trap below; the top is provided with a screen to shelter the person looking out; and it is furnished with a flag, speaking trumpet, telescope and rifle gun; it is fixed at the top gallant mast head, from whence is the best look out, and here the captain, or some other officer, watches for Whales and directs the course of the boats.

The boats are generally canoe-built, that is, sharp **BALÆNA**, at both ends, and large enough to contain six or seven men with the necessary tackle; they are steered by an oar, as the boat more readily answers it, than a rudder, and can be propelled by sculling when there is not room to row.

The principal instruments required are, a harpoon with its mik or rest, and line; a spear, axe, tail knife, snatch block, boat hooks, grapnels, snow shovel, &c. The harpoon is about three feet long, and bearded, with two inverted barbles cut in the withers; this is made of soft iron, to prevent its being broken by any sudden twist, and is attached loosely to a handle six or seven feet long, which escapes from it when the Whale is struck; the lines are about 120 fathoms long, and each boat is provided with three of these, which are fastened to each other by a loop or eye as required, making a rope of 4320 feet in length, and two inches and a half in thickness; the lance is an iron spear about six feet long, and very sharp at the point, having a fir handle of six feet length added to it.

The harpoon gun is also occasionally used, but on account of the difficulty and address required, and the loss of the fish which it frequently occasions, it is not often employed; it was invented in 1731, but was laid aside till 1771, when the Society of Arts received an improved one, for the use of which they offered premiums. The present harpoon gun consists of a swivel about two feet long, and an inch and seven-eighths bore, and acting with a double lock to prevent the chance of missing fire; the harpoon thrown from it has a round knob fitting the bore of the gun.

Of the Mode of capturing Whales.

When a Whale is seen by the watch in the *crow's nest*, he gives notice to those on deck, who immediately lower the boats and hasten to the place. If the animal lie basking upon the surface incautiously, the boat is rowed upon it, and before it touches, the harpooner strikes it; the animal immediately dashes off and runs out with the line; directly the Whale disappears a flag is set up in the first boat, and the rest of the boats put out to its assistance, shouting "a fall!" It remains under water about thirty minutes, and when it rises is struck again and plied with the spears; this is continued till by repeated attacks, and attempts to escape, the animal becomes exhausted, and indicates its approaching death by throwing up bloody mucus and air, from its blowholes, tingling the sea to a considerable extent with its blood. When dead it turns on its side or back, and this is announced by the delighted boats striking their flags and giving three cheers. The Whale is then secured to the boats, and by them towed toward the ship, where it is made fast on the larboard side. The head of the Whale is placed to the stern of the ship, and the tail forcibly drawn towards the fore-chains, the right side fin is fastened to the gunwale, and the animal is then ready for the process of

FLEXING, which is carried on in the following manner: the men having their feet armed with spurs, descend on the Whale and cut up the fat with blubber spades and knives, into pieces of half a ton, which being raised on deck are divided into smaller pieces, a foot square, and thrust down a hole in the main hatch, where two men called *knags*, pack it in proper places called the *flens-gut*, in which it remains. They

BALÆNA first commence with the under jaw and belly, and having taken off the fin, turn the whale on its side, and the fat is again removed together with the left fin. The lips are then taken away, and the whalebone removed and hoisted on deck, where it is split into "junks" having ten or twelve blades of whalebone in each. They continue turning the animal, which in technical language is called "kenting," till all the blubber has been removed, the tackle is then taken away and the carcass sinks.

When sufficient Whales have been taken to fill the *flou-gut*, they proceed with the "making off," as it is called, or flouishing, this consists in cutting up the blubber and putting it into casks; for this purpose a long trough, called the "speck trough," is placed on deck, having a hole in it, to which is attached a canvas tube called a "lull," about a foot in diameter, and long enough to reach to the hold, which is closed by a pair of nippers (two sticks with a hinge at one end); along the trough blocks made of Whales' tails are placed, on which the blubber is cut up into pieces about four inches square, and pushed into the lull, from whence it is passed into the tubs in which it is to be conveyed home. When the cask is full, the lull is pressed close with the nippers, and the progress of the blubber impeded till another tub is brought. And such is the enmeshment of the process till it arrives in England, where it is boiled and fitted for use.

Of the Mode of preparing the Whale Oil and Whalebone.

By coming into a warmer climate the blubber which was originally solid fat becomes resolved into oil; the casks being raised to the *starting back* are emptied of their contents, from which the blubber passes into the copper boiler which generally contains

from six to ten tons, where it is boiled, which takes place in about two hours, and the fire is then by degrees withdrawn; during this time it is necessary to keep the blubber constantly stirred to prevent the fens sticking to the bottom or sides of the vessel; it is allowed to stand about seven hours, when it is run off into coolers, which are generally made of wood, but sometimes of brick or stone, and lined with lead, containing from twelve to twenty tons, and some persons put a quantity of water in before the oil is let off, for the purpose of preventing the backs from warping and to take up any impurities in the oil; the refuse which remains in the copper is thrown into the "fenk back," from which a portion of brown oil rising is skimmed off. The oil being thus cooled is fit for market and put into casks, which completes the process.

It was formerly usual to boil the blubber in Spitzbergen, when the Whales resorted to the bays, and the cargoes could be easily brought on shore; but as the ships are now obliged to stand out to sea in pursuit of their object, it is found more expeditious to pack the blubber in casks, and bring it home to be boiled.

The whalebone being removed from the gum is soaked in water till the dirt is softened and can be scrubbed off with sand and water; another person then scrapes the root, where the gum was attached, till it becomes smooth; a third cuts off the thready processes, and a fourth washes it again and takes out what may remain of the gum; it is then dried by the air, and is fit for use.

Linneæ Systema Naturæ curd Gmelin; Pennant's *British Zoology*; Cuvier *Rigine Animal*; Shaw's *General Zoology*; Scoresby's *Account of the Arctic Regions, with a History and Description of the Northern Whale Fishery*; Marten's *Voyage to Spitzbergen*.

BALAGHAT, (the Upper Passes); the upper range of that remarkable chain of mountains which runs parallel with the coast through the whole peninsula of India from the Maharrattah states to Cape Comorin. See *G'nat*.

BALAMBANGAN, a small island near the northern extremity of Borneo, about fourteen miles long, and from three to six broad; yielding most of the productions of the climate. It was ceded by the king of Sooloo to the English East India Company; and a settlement formed upon it in 1773. The prize, how-

ever, soon became too tempting for Sooloo's cupidity; the settlers were surprised, and the property of the company, to a considerable amount, was seized about two years afterwards, while the people with difficulty escaped from their enemies. A new establishment was formed in 1803, but the expense was found to exceed the advantage, and it has since been abandoned. The width of the strait which separates this island from Borneo is about five leagues. Latitude between 7° and 8° N. and longitude about 115° E.

BALANCE.

BALANCE, *v.* } *Fr. balance; Ital. balancia; Sp. balance; Dutch, balance; from bis*
BALANCE, *n.* } *balance; and lanx. Lanx libra is the plate,*
BALANCE, } *platter or basin in which the things*
BALANCING, } *to be weighed, or divided and distributed according to*
 their weight, were placed; perhaps from *lanciare*,
 to divide or distribute, or separate into portions.
V. Vossius. Lanca et lanx.

To divide by weight into equal proportions; to

bring to an equipoise; to keep in equipoise; to have equal weight, force, power, influence.

To try or prove the proportions; to hesitate, to waver or totter on the beam of the scales, when the weights are equal.

To distribute and arrange accounts, so as to ascertain, state, and settle the difference of the proportions or amounts.

BALANCE

Among hem alla hil were syker all, wjoute balance,
Of an hundred pounde lores. *R. Gloucester, p. 200.*

Ten pounde mark and mo, jst now er in balance,
And I betrayed of alle, bi God, jst alle asy anace,
I saile bring him to stalle, but he mak me acquitance.
R. Bruner, p. 156.

Ye wolden not forgo his acquaintance
For moche good, I dare lay in balance
All that I have in my possession.
Chaucer. The Chaucer Tronnes Prologue, v. 16061.

After Virgo to reken in soon
Lives all in the number of scales,
Whiche hath figure and resemblance
Unto a man, whiche a balance
Beareth in his hande, as for to weye.
Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 147. c. iv.

And to a black hors, and he that sat on him hadde a balance in
his hand. *Wiclif. Apocalips. ch. vi.*
And I beheld, and lo a blacke hors; and he that sat on him,
had a payre of balances in his hande. *Bible, 1551.*

He said, that he would all the earth up-take,
And all the sea divided each from ryther;
So would be of the fire one balance make,
And one of the ayre, without or wind or weather;
Then would be balance heaven and hell together,
And all that did within them all containe.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book v. c. ii.

The Gauls at the first privily began to deal falsly with them;
but afterwards they openly started the balance, and would not let
them weigh no more, whereto the Romans began to be angry with
them. Then Brennus in scorn and mockery to despight them
more, pluckt off his sword, girdle and all, and put it into the
balance where the gold was weighed.

Nort's Plutarch, fol. 124.

Ho [Mr. Rushworth] asks, Who is so blind, as not to see that
these things are to be found in Scripture by a sensible, common,
and discreet reading of it; though perhaps by a rigorous and
exact balancing of every particular word and syllable, any of these
things would vanish away we know not how?

Tullius. Role of Faith, part ii. sec. 3.

Regard the world with cautious eye,
Nor raise your expectation high.
See that the balance's scales be such,
You neither fear nor hope too much.

Cotton. Vision iv.

Him Science taught by mystic love to trace
The planets whirling in eternal race;
To mark the ship, in floating balance held,
By earth attracted, and by seas repell'd.

Falconer. The Shipwreck, canto i.

As sure as God is just, and the gospel is true, so surely will the
judgments of the last day be inflicted on all impenitent offenders,
not profusely and indiscriminately, but in weight and
measure precisely balancing their several demerits.

Fortson. Sermon xv.

BALANCE, in *Mechanics*, is an instrument employed
for ascertaining the weights of bodies. In its more
general form it is too well known to require any par-
ticular description, although some general rules for
its construction may not be uninteresting. The theory
of its action is the same as that of the lever, the prin-
ciple of which has been already illustrated in Sect. xvi.
of our *Treatise on MECHANICS*. We have therefore in
the present article only to explicate the different forms
under which this instrument has been sometimes
constructed, either for the purposes of convenience or
accuracy.

Of the common balance. To obtain an accurate
construction of this instrument the following par-
ticulars must be attended to:

1. The axis of motion of the balance should be

above the centre of gravity of the beam, and these
two points, when the beam is unloaded, ought to be in
the same vertical.

2. The perpendicular distances of the points of ap-
plication of the weights, to be estimated from the right
line which joins the centre of gravity and motion
should be equal, that is, the arms of the balance should
be of equal length.

3. The points of application from which the weights
are suspended should be in the same right line, and
perpendicular to the line joining the centres of gravity
and motion.

4. The friction on the axis ought to be reduced as
much as is consistent with the purposes for which
the balance is designed, in order to render any small
difference of weight in the two scales the more
perceptible.

5. The sensibility and stability of a balance depend
upon the length of the arms, the weight of the beam,
&c. and the distance between the centre of motion
or point of suspension, and the centre of gravity.
If a represent the length of the arms of the balance,
and b the distance between the point of suspension
and the centre of gravity, P the load in either scale,
and W the weight of the beam, the sensibility of the
balance will be as

$$\frac{a}{b(2P+W)};$$

it therefore increases with the length of the arm, and
is also greater as b is less; and as the weight P is
less.

But the stability which is expressed by the deno-
minator of the above fraction is greater as b is greater,
or as P is greater. The diminution of b therefore,
while it increases the sensibility lessens the stability.
The lengthening of a will however increase the former
of these qualities without diminishing the latter. A
very accurate balance of this kind is shown in Plate 10,
MISCELLANIES, fig. 1.

By attending to the above conditions great accuracy
and precision may be attained, yet where the utmost
nicety is requisite other precautions are taken, and the
instrument is then called an Assay Balance.

Assay balance is a denomination commonly applied to
any very nicely constructed balance, by which minute
bodies may be weighed, and the difference of weight
between any two bodies very accurately determined.
This term therefore does not imply a balance of any par-
ticular construction, but merely one of great sensibility.
That which we have given in plate 9, is one made by
Footin, of Paris; and is so delicate, that when charged
with a weight of a thousand grammes to each scale,
it will turn with the addition of one gramme in either.
LL' is the beam of the balance, made of finely tem-
pered steel, and of sufficient dimensions to prevent
any sensible deflection in it, with the greatest weights
it is proposed to charge it with; the arms are of
course of equal length and figure, and the whole is
nicely balanced on a knife-edge suspension at C, the
plate G being also of polished steel, and rendered as
hard as possible to prevent the action of the knife-edge
upon it; and in order to relieve the suspension of the
balance when the instrument is not in use, the two
erotches FF are brought up by the screws shown in
the figure, so as just to take off the pressure from the
point of support. When the equilibrium is nicely sup-
ported, the needle, or index, CS, corresponds very

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accurately with the zero on the graduated arc attached to the top or bottom of the principal stem, and which former, being fixed to the beam, will be displaced by and indicate any want of due equipoise. The other particulars of the construction are shown with sufficient precision in the figure. The whole apparatus is, when used for nice experiments, inclosed in a case or frame, with glass faces, and which are only opened sufficiently to introduce the weights and body to be weighed, and then shut down to await the result of the experiment. An instrument in its case, with the index pointing downwards to save room, is shown in our plate Assay above referred to.

The method of weighing a body is as follows:—Place the body, which we may denote by B, in one of the scales of the balance; as, for example, in the scale A, to be put in equilibrium, by placing in the other scale A', bodies of any weight, such as grains of lead, small pieces of copper, or the like; and lastly, small pieces of leaf copper, or paper, till the needle, or index, points exactly to zero on the graduated arc; the beam is then in equilibrium, and the weight in the two scales equal, or very nearly so. Take out now the body B, and replace it by different known weights, till the equilibrium is again obtained; and these weights together, will express the precise weight of the body. This method, it is obvious, is independent of the length of the arms, and even of the quantity of friction on the axis, because the body B, and its equal weights, are placed precisely in like circumstances, which is not the case in the common method of weighing. One thing, however, is here very essential and must be attended to; viz. not to shake or disturb the apparatus in removing the body from the scale, as this may change a little the point of support, and alter the degree of friction. To prevent this, the crotches F, F', are brought up to the beam, without removing it from its support; then before the body B is removed, another body, of about half its weight, is added.

The former body B is now taken out, and weights, as nearly as can be judged equal to it, are put in the scale; the other body is then removed, the crotches let down, and the balance left on its point of support as at first; and successive small weights added, till the equipoise is perfect.

Beam balance. This instrument is represented in fig. 3; it operates by a fixed weight C, at the end of the bent lever AHC, supported by its axis B, on the pillar III; having a scale E, suspended from the other extremity of the lever at A. Draw the horizontal line KBG, through B, the centre of motion, on which from A and C let fall the perpendiculars AK, CD; then if BK and BD are reciprocally proportional to the weights at A and C, they will be in equilibrium; but if not, the weight C will move upwards or downwards, along the arc FG, till that ratio is obtained. If the lever be so bent, that when A coincides with the line GK, C coincides with the vertical BH; then as C moves from F to G, its momentum will increase, while that of the weight in the scales E will decrease; hence the weight in E corresponding to different positions of the balance, may be expressed on the graduated arc, FG.

This instrument is very convenient, and we are surprised it has never been more generally adopted.

Roman balance, or steelyard. This is the common

steelyard; the general construction of which is well known. It consists of a beam or bar of iron, supported by a pivot much nearer to one extremity than to the other; and to the extremity of the shorter arm is suspended a hook, or a scale, for holding the body to be weighed; the longer arm is graduated, and upon this slips a determinate and moveable weight, till this and the proposed body are in equilibrium; the mark on the graduated arm, where this moveable weight is at the moment, shews the weight sought, see fig. 4. In order to render the instrument more general, the steelyard is sometimes supplied with two different hooks on the shorter arm, the one nearer to the fulcrum than the other, and the beam is graduated on both sides with the weights corresponding to these two cases.

The theoretical principle upon which this instrument depends is explained in sect. xvi. of our treatise on MECHANICS.

Chinese balance. This instrument depends upon precisely the same principle as the above, but is somewhat different in its form and application: it is much used by the merchants of China for weighing gems, precious metals, &c. The beam is a small rod of wood, or ivory, about a foot in length: upon this are three lines of measure made of fine silver studded work, all beginning from the end of the beam, whence the first is extended eight inches, the second six and a half, and the third eight and a half. The first is European weight, the other two, Chinese. At the other end of the beam hangs a round scale; and at three several distances from this end are fastened so many fine strings at different points of suspension. The first distance makes $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{5}$ of an inch; the second $\frac{3}{4}$ or double the former; and the third, $\frac{4}{5}$, or triple the same.

When the instrument is used, it is held up by some one of the strings, and a sealed weight, of about $\frac{1}{4}$ oz. troy, is hung upon some one of the divisions of the rule, so as to produce an equilibrium, the weight of the body being indicated by the graduated scale above referred to.

Danish balance. This also is a sort of steelyard in general use, or formerly in general use in various parts of the continent, particularly in Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. It consists of an iron bar, or batten of wood, having a heavy weight at one end, and a scale or hook at the other. The goods to be weighed are placed in the scale, or suspended from the hook, and the whole is then balanced by a string, or other means, by sliding it backwards and forwards till the balance is obtained; and the weight of the body is then indicated by the graduated divisions of the instrument, which are computed as below. See fig. 5.

Let P denote the whole weight of the apparatus, and let C be the place of its centre of gravity; W the weight of the body, and F the point at which the support is when the whole are in equilibrium. Let AC = a, AF = x; then, by the principle of the lever,

$$\begin{aligned} Wx &= (a - x)P, \text{ or} \\ (W + P)x &= aP, \text{ whence} \\ x &= \frac{aP}{W + P}. \end{aligned}$$

Here a and P are constant quantities; and by substituting for W successively 1, 2, 3, &c. the corresponding

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ponding distance from the end A will be known at which these several weights will be balanced, and the beam is graduated accordingly.

Beck's balance, or weighing apparatus, partakes of the properties both of the bent lever balance and the steelyard. We have represented this ingenious and useful machine in fig. 6. ABC is a frame of cast iron, having a great part of its weight towards A, where it is thicker than in its other parts: F is a fixed fulcrum, and E a moveable suspender, having a scale and hook at its lower extremity: K, E, G, are three distinct places to which the suspender EII may be applied; and to which belong respectively, the three graduated scales of division, or weights, fC , $c d$, $a b$. When the scale and suspender are applied at G, the apparatus is in equilibrium, with the edge AB horizontal, and the suspender cuts the zero on the scale $a b$; now a weight being applied, the whole apparatus turns about F, and the part towards B descends, till the equilibrium is again established; when the weight of the body is read off from the scale $a b$, which registers to ounces, and extends to two pounds. If the weight of the body exceeds two pounds, and be less than eleven pounds, the suspender is placed at E, and when the upper edge of the balance is horizontal, the weight, or number 2, is found a little to the right of the index of the suspender; if now weights exceeding two pounds be placed in the scale, the whole again turns about F, and the weight of the body is shown on the graduated arc $c d$, which extends to eleven pounds, and registers to every two ounces.

If the weight of the body exceed eleven pounds, the suspender is hung on at K, and the weights are ascertained in the same manner on the scale fC to thirty pounds, the subdivisions being on this scale quarters of pounds. The same principles would obviously apply to weights greater or less than the above. To prevent mistake, the three points of support, G, E, K, are numbered 1, 2, 3; and the corresponding arcs are respectively numbered in the same manner. When the hook is used instead of the scale, the latter is turned upwards, there being a joint at m for that purpose.

We believe the employment of such machines is not legal in the usual transactions of commerce; but the great convenience it would offer seems to render it a subject for consideration, whether under some regulations they might not be rendered so by act of parliament.

Hydrostatic balance is an instrument designed for the ready and accurate determination of the specific gravity of bodies, both solid and fluid. The principle upon which the operation is founded, has been explained under the head *SPECIFIC GRAVITY*, in our treatise on *HYDROSTATICS*; we have here therefore only to attend to the mechanical construction of the instrument. The following is perhaps one of the most simple. AB (fig. 7.) is the foot on which the instrument stands; CD, a pillar, supporting a moveable brass plate EF, fastened to it by the screw in the knob e . In the end of this piece is fixed an upright piece IK, supporting another plate GH, which slides backwards and forwards upon it. In the end of this plate at I, is fixed by a nut beneath a brass stem LM, tapped with a fine thread from one end to the other; upon this moves the swan-neck slip of brass NO, to which a very exact balance is hung at N. To one of the scales P,

is suspended the body R, (whose specific gravity is to be found) by a fine horsehair. The weight of the body in air is first ascertained by means of weights in the opposite scale Q. Water is then poured into the vessel, till the body is wholly immersed: by this means the equilibrium is destroyed, and is to be restored by weights introduced into the scale P. These latter will therefore indicate the weight lost in water; and hence, by the principles already explained in our treatise on *Hydrostatics*, the specific gravity may be determined. And in a similar manner, the specific gravity of a solid body, lighter than water, may be found, by attaching to it a body heavier than that fluid; and so also may that of any fluid, by attending to the principles explained in the treatise above referred to.

Various other constructions of this instrument may be seen in *Gravesande's Physic*, *Eles. Math.*; *Desaguliers's Exp. Phil.*; *Ferguson's Lectures*; and *Gregory's Mechanics*: see also the following articles.

Lukia's hydrostatic balance. This instrument is intended for the same purpose as the preceding, but it is much more simple in its construction and application; and according to the *Report of the Committee of the Academy of Sciences of Philadelphia*, it possesses every requisite degree of accuracy. Its principle of action is the same as that of the common Roman balance, or steelyard. The arms are so constructed in the first instance, as to be in exact equipoise when unloaded. The body C, (fig. 8.) of which the specific gravity is to be ascertained, is suspended to the shorter arm by any of the usual methods; and its relative weight in air and water are indicated by the numbers on the graduated arm A, at which the moveable weight D is suspended when the beam is brought into a horizontal position. It is obvious that the absolute weight of D is arbitrary, and it is one of the advantages of the instrument, that this weight may be altered at pleasure, so as always to suit that of the body to be weighed.

When great accuracy is desired, a second moveable weight may be employed; which, for the convenience of ready estimation, ought to be one-tenth, one-hundredth, or some other determinate and simple fraction of D. Then the division marked by the larger weight will give the units, and that by the smaller the tenths, hundredths, &c. The instrument and its appendages are arranged in a small box, so as to be very convenient and portable.

Coulter's hydrostatic balance. This instrument, (fig. 9.) like the former, is of American origin, and is indeed founded upon the same principles, the only difference being in the mode of graduation, this being peculiarly adapted to the purposes of finding the specific gravity of minerals; and therefore, instead of pointing out the actual and relative weights, it shows at once the specific gravity of the body under experiment. The division for this purpose is made thus. The instrument, in the first place, is accurately balanced when unloaded, by making the shorter arm so much larger than the longer one; and this latter is graduated and marked with numbers, which every where show the quotient of the entire length of the longer arm, divided by the distance of the mark from the end: thus, at half the length, is marked the number 2; at one-third, the number 3, and so on; which numbers extend on the scale to rather more than

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twenty, in order to extend the use of the instrument to the heaviest mineral.

In using it, any convenient weight is suspended by a hook at the extremity A, and the body under examination is to be hung on the shorter arm by a horse-hair, and slid along by the same till an equilibrium is obtained, as suppose at D. Then, without altering its situation on the beam, this body is to be immersed in water, and balanced a second time, by sliding the weight C along the graduated arm, till the instrument is found again in equilibrium. The hook of this latter will then at once indicate, by its situation on the scale, the actual specific gravity of the body, (that of water being considered as unity.)

The demonstration of this is very simple. The instrument being supposed in equilibrium, and BD and the weight of the counterpoise being constant, the weight of the body varies as the distance of the counterpoise from B, by the common principle of the lever. Hence, if C be the place of the weight at the conclusion of the operation,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{As the weight in water} &= W \\ \text{Is to the weight in air} &= W' \\ \text{So is } BC : BA; \\ \text{and as } W' - W : W' :: BA - BC : BA \\ \text{whence } \frac{W'}{W' - W} = \frac{BA}{BA - BC} = \frac{BA}{AC} \end{aligned}$$

which is the same as the rule in words.

Substances lighter than water may have, if necessary, their specific gravities ascertained by the usual method; a scale of equal parts being cut on the opposite side of the beam, and the body to be weighed placed in a notch for the purpose. For mineralogy, however, this will seldom be necessary. The bottom of the notch A, at the smaller end, should be in a line with the edge of the scale, its sides being a little raised, and the top of the shorter arm should be rather the thickest part of it, to allow the horse-hair, by which the mineral is suspended, to swing clear.

Balance of torsion, is a denomination given to an ingenious instrument constructed by Coulomb, on a principle first advanced by Michell, being intended to estimate very small forces, particularly of the attracting and repelling kind, as in electricity, magnetism, &c. The former able philosopher, after having examined with great accuracy all the circumstances attending the torsion of metallic threads, found that they might be turned to a very useful purpose in the construction of the instrument we are about to describe. Its essential

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parts consist of a metallic vertical thread, the upper end of which is attached to a fixed point; its lower end carrying a small weight, and a little above it, a light horizontal needle of any matter. When we wish to appreciate very small forces, they are made to act on the extremity of this needle, and their intensity is estimated by the angle of deviation which they cause in it, from its natural situation of repose. So that the forces are balanced by the torsion of the wire, and hence the denomination.

In order that the motion of the air may not disturb the action of the needle; the latter is inclosed in a glass cylinder, the thread being in like manner protected by a smaller hollow cylinder fixed into the brass cover of the former. On the upper part of the smaller cylinder is placed a divided dial-plate, which turns with little friction about the cylinder. The lever which carries the thread that suspends the horizontal needle, traverses this dial, and serves as an indicator, when it is requisite to have the torsion equal to a certain number of degrees. And, finally, a circular division applied horizontally about the glass cylinder, opposite to the needle, is that by which the deviation of the latter is measured when it is under the action of any exciting power. See fig. 10.

We may give to the thread and to the needle any lengths at pleasure, according to the object we have in view. If it be proposed to estimate very small forces, the wire should be long and very fine, for the force of torsion varies inversely as the length, and directly as the fourth powers of the diameter of the wire. The long threads have also another decided advantage over shorter ones, because they will admit of being twisted a greater number of degrees without their elasticity being materially affected. Coulomb made various applications of this instrument in his experiments on magnetism, &c. and by it also Cavendish determined the mean density of the earth; estimating by it the action of two leaden balls of known dimensions and specific gravity; and comparing the effect with that of terrestrial gravity. See *Phil. Trans.* anno 1798. This was indeed the original idea of such an application, and is, as we have observed, (in the commencement of the article,) due to the ingenuity of the Rev. John Michell, a young and accomplished philosopher, who was carried off in early life from the scientific labours he had so successfully begun.

Balance of a watch. See our treatise on HOROLOGY.
BALANCE FISH, in Zoology, a vulgar name of the *Squalus Zygoma*, or hammer-headed shark. See SQUALUS.

BALANUS, in Zoology, a genus of the class Cirripoda, order Scutella. Generic character. Body sessile, inclosed in an operculated shell; arms numerous, in two rows, unequal, articulated, ciliated, each composed of two cirri placed on a peduncle, and capable of being exerted beyond the operculum; mouth not prominent, having four toothed transverse jaws, besides four hairy palpiiform appendages. Shell sessile, fixed, univalve, conical, truncated at the apex, closed at the base with an adherent testaceous lamella. Aperture somewhat triangular or elliptical; operculum internal, composed of four valves, which are moveable, and inserted near the internal base of the shell.

This genus comprehends several of the species placed by Linnaeus in his genus *Lepas*, the whole of which, with additional ones since discovered, form the class Cirripoda, (Cirripedia of Leach.) They are found adhering to rocks, corals, shells, &c. and are frequently brought at the bottoms of ships from different parts of the world; in which situation many very interesting species have been discovered.

The shell of the Balani is immovable in all its parts; it forms a cone, generally more or less short and truncated, fixed, without any intermediate peduncle, on marine bodies. It appears to be univalve, but is in fact composed of six different portions, exclusive

Q & A

BALANUS of the base, which are united by a very exact suture, and are as it were soldered inseparably together in old shells, especially in some of the larger species. The animal would be exposed to numerous injuries, were it not for the operculum, which consists of four moveable pieces, allowing the animal to protrude its cirri at pleasure. The general form of the operculum is a short cone. The manner in which the Balani increase their shells is not understood. Probably they have the power of separating the pieces of which it is composed, and after the new testaceous matter is added, of reuniting them. The species are very numerous, of which several are natives of our coast. Lamarck enumerates nearly thirty, and there are probably many more undiscovered, as well as others not yet properly distinguished. Vide Lamarck, *Anim. sans Vert.* vol. v. p. 397; also article CLAMARENA, in *Zoology*.

BALATON, a lake in Hungary, the largest in the Austrian empire. It is sometimes called the *Platten See*, and is situated between the 46th and 47th degrees of latitude, about half way between the Danube and the western confines of the country. It stretches about 45 miles from north-east to south-west, and its breadth varies from four to nine miles. The greater part of its shores are flat, though in some parts, particularly about Tihany, on the north-west, they are precipitous. The waters in general are shallow, the deepest places not exceeding twelve fathoms. It abounds with several kinds of fish, among which are the *Perca lucioperca*, or *fogas*, which is esteemed a great delicacy. The small depth of its waters near the greater part of its shores, renders it less advantageous for the purposes of commerce than many lakes of less extent in other countries.

BALCASHI TENGIS, or **PALKATI**, a lake in the country of the Kalmycks, 140 miles in length and half that breadth. After the seas of Atal and Balkal, it is the largest lake in Asia.

BALCONY, Fr. *balcon*; from the Italian *balcone*, from the Latin *palca*, *paleo*, *palconis*, *palcone*. *Balcone*, Menage. Duerhat and Skinner agree, from the Ger. *balck*, a beam. For (*balco*) a *Francis relicto*, says Wicher; and from it, he and three think the Italian *balco* is taken. *Opus tabularum extra fenestram, trabibus e marmo progreffentibus suffulium*.

This fair, and animated night,
In sables dress'd; whose curls of light
Are with a shade of cypress veil'd;
Not from the Syrian dews exhal'd;
But from heav'n's bright balcony came;
Not dropping dew, but shedding flame.

Shelburne. The Night.

And who shall silence all the airs and madrigals that whisper softness in chamber? The windows also, and the balconies must be thought on; there are shrewd books, with dangerous frontispieces, set for sale; who shall prohibit them, shall twenty licensers?
Milton. A Speech for the Liberty of Unlearn'd Printing.

As clever Tom Clinch, while the riddle was bawling,
Rode stately through Holbourn to die in his calling;

The maids to the doors and the balconies ran,
And said, "Lack-a-day, he's a proper young man."

Swift. Tom Clinch.

Now morning, rob'd in saffron-colour'd gown,
Her head with pink and pea-green ribbons dress'd,
Climb'd the celestial staircase, and look'd down
From out the gilt balcony of the east.

Jenyns. An Ode.

BALCONY Spain. Yesterday the king shorn himself to his subjects, and after having stayed half an hour in his balcony, retired to the royal apartment.
Goldsmith. Citizen of the World.

BALD, { Skinner prefers to derive it from the
Ba'DOLV, { Fr. *pelé*, part. verb. *pelé*; i. e. to de-
Ba'DLNESS, { plate or deprive of hair. The ancient
Ba'LOPATE, { manner of writing the word gives some countenance to the supposition that it is the past participle of the verb, to *bald*, to reduce to the roundness and smoothness of a *ball*, by clearing away the hair; and then applied to that which is
Naked, bare, stripped, or deprived of hair, or other covering; of ornament, of value.

*Soyez hyéce man be was, & of grete strenghe,
Gret womede & balded. R. Glouceter, p. 377.*
His hed was balded, and shone as any glas,
And eke his face, as it hadde been avelat.
He was a lord fat and in good point.

Chaucer. Prologue, v. 199.
Bot ech woman pryvage or pryvageur whome his hand is not hidid defenith his heed; for it is oon as if sche were baldid.
Wicli. 1 Corynth, chap. ii.

How many hundred thousands are there, which when they have sinned, knowlege their sinnes: yet trust in a baidle ceremony.
Tyndale's Works, fol. 95. c. i.

And at the same tyme shal the Lorde of Hostes call men to weeping, mourning, to baldness, putting of myghty rebukes.
Bible, 1551. Ezech, chap. xxi.

And in that day did the Lord God of hosts call to weeping, and to mourning, and to baldness, and to girdling with sackcloth.
Bible. Modera Version.

For they who suppose that Hades, that is to say, Pluto, is said to be the body, and as it were the sepulchre of the soul, as if it seemed to be foolish and drunken all the while she is within it, she thinks they do allegorize but very badly.
Holland's Plutarch, fol. 1057.

Bion seeing a prince weep and tearing his hair for sorrow, asked if baldness would cure his grief.
Taylor, Sermon xvii. p. 168.

He [Caligula] without once looking upon the title and cause of their imprisonment, standing only within a gallery, commanded all in the midst, a *causa ad causa*, from one *ballo-pate* to another to be led forth to execution.
Holland. Suetonius, fol. 193.

Then with applause, in honour to his age,
Dismiss your veteran soldier off the stage;
Crown his last exit with distinguish'd praise,
And kindly bid his baldness with the days.

Brown. The conclusion of an Epilogue.

It was but yesterday he fastened my wig to the back of the chair, and when I went to make a bow, I peep't my bald head in Min. Frizzle's face.
Goldsmith. She stoops to Conquer, act i. sc. t.

BALDNESS, the falling off of the hair. Medical writers call it also *alopecia* (*ἀλωπεγία* a fox, which animal is said to be subject to this disease), *athrix* (a privative *αθηρ* hair), *depilis* (de privative, *pilus* hair), *phylacrotis* (*φωλακροτης* bald). When it occurs particularly in the sinapit, it is named *calities*. When the bald part is smooth and winding, like the track of a serpent, it is called *ophiasis* (*ὄφις* a serpent.) but the general name of the bald spot is *area*, and the hair is said to fall off *areatim*.

Baldness is said to be caused by excessive venery; it is a common accompaniment of old age, and frequently results from violent fevers. Eunuchs and women are almost always free from it, and Aristotle says that it never can precede the age of puberty. The Egyptians, if we believe Herodotus, (iii. 12.) seldom went bald, and the reason which he assigns is, that they shaved their heads from childhood, and thus hardened them in the sun. It is not easy to say how a man with his head shorn could ever become bald. In most cases it is without remedy, in its incipient

BALCONY
**BALD-
NESS**

BALD-NESS. stages nutritives may be applied with advantage to the roots in which the disease is situated; or the head may be shaved, and washed with lie, in which *abro-nem* (southernwood) and other warm stimulants have been in fusion.

BALD CALUS was a term of reproach among the Romans. When Joveal seeks the bitterest possible designation for Domitian, he calls him *calvus Nero*.

BALD BERRARD, in Zoology, a name given by Ray and Willoughby to the Falco *Haliastur* or *Oprey*. See **FALCO**.

BALD PATZ, in Zoology, the name given by Ray to the Columba *Leucophaea*. See **COLUMBA**.

BALDACHIN, or **BALDACHIN**, It. *Baldachino*, in Architecture, a canopy supported by columns. It generally serves as a covering for the altar. *Baldachin*, corruptly *bandekin*, a rich figured cloth of silk and gold, brought from *Baldacio*, Babylon.

BALDERDASH, *potus mixtus*, according to Skinner, who believes it to be compounded of *bolder*, *holder*, and *dash*; q. d. *potus tener mixtus*. Dr. Jamieson suggests that it is allied to the Icelandic *bolldur*, *marro-mun* *hateratio*, *vel stultorum balldur*.

It is against my freedom, my inheritance,
My Magna Charta, our liberties,
To drink such *balderdash*, or *honey clabber*!

Ben Jonson. The New Inn.

I heard him charge this publication with rithality, acurrility, bilinguistic, and *balderdash*. *Horne's Trial*, p. 25. i.

BALDRICK, see **BAUDRICK**.

BALE, n. } *Balejan*, *Guth. torquere*. Ni
Ba'LERU, } *balejaia* *mis*. Mark v. 7. Luke viii.
Ba'LEFULNESS. } 28. Ne *torquere* me. In *balacim*,
in tormenta. Luke xvi. 23. Vid. *Junius Gloaz. Goth. Bale*, (*Junius* in *Etym.*) in Chaucer, is mischief, danger, destruction.

Bale is torture, writhing, wretchedness, misery; that which causes mischief, calamity, ruin, destruction.

As I saille telle his tale, as I ferre go,
How falsnes bewen *bale* with him, and many mo.

R. Brunne, p. 55.

And ther a point; for ended is my tale.

God send every good man bove of his *bale*.

Chaucer. The Chaucer's Yenners Tale, v. 16949.

Retrev ye put bove, *bale* adon byrge

Than *bale* be bette, and bote nevere ye betere.

Piers Plowman, p. 68.

Thou shalt be bent in *baleful* fire

And all thy sect I shall dinitie.

Chaucer. The Plowman's Tale, fol. 96.

Fortune hath ever be unstable,

And eale no while stonde stable.

For nowe it hieth, now it loweth,

Nowe stak upright, nowe overthreth,

Nowe full of blisse, and nowe of *bale*.

Gower. Conf. An. book viii.

Amid my *bale* I bath in blisse,

I swim in beaven, I sink in hell:

I find swordes for every misse,

And yet my moone no tongue can tell.

Goswain. Flowers.

And eke the *baleful* blowe

so grievous that was thought,

Fall quickly curle by margins slight

if he were quickly sought.

Turberville. Epitaphs, &c.

But make you ready your stiffe *bale* and clubs,

Rome, and her rate, are at the point of battell,

The one side must have *bale*.

Shakespeare. Coriolanus, fol. 2. c. ii.

Ever long they came near to a *baleful* tower,
Much like the mouth of that infernal cave;
That gaping stood all corners to devour,
Dark, doleful, dreary, like a greedy grave,
That still for carion carcasses doth cave.

Giles Fletcher. Christ's Triumph on Earth.

But all those pleasant bowres and palace brass,
Gryon broke downe, with rigour pitiless;
Ne ought their goodly workmanship might save
Them from the impact of his wrathfulness,
But that their blase he turn'd to *balefulness*.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book ii. c. xii.

Here gales of sighs, instead of breezes, blow,
And streams of tears for ever mourning flow.

The mournful yell with solemn horror warm
His *baleful* branches, saddening even the grave.

Browne. On Death.

BALE, Fr. *bale*; It. *bulla*; Ger. *balle*; Dut. *bale*; Fr. *embeller*; It. *imbellare*; Ger. *embellern* (mercenaries). Perhaps (says Skianer) from *bail*, q. d. *pila*, *seu massa rotunda mercium*; i. e. a round mass, a *bale*, of goods.

When finished, these goods are *baled* up, and consigned to a factor *shred*, who sends in return two bottles, three sieges, and a shrewd letter filled with dashes — blanks and stars * * * * of great importance.

Goldsmith. Citizens of the World

The merchant tells us perhaps the price of different commodities, the methods of *baling* them up, and the proper manner of an European to preserve his health in the country. *Id. ib.*

I have got conveyed thus far, like a *bale* of cadaverous goods, consigned to *Finto* and company, lying in the bottom of my chains most of the route, upon a large pillow, which I had the grace to purchase before I set out. *Sterne. Letter 57.*

BALE, a nautical word (says Skinner.) Th laid out the water rushing into the ship. From the Fr. *bailler*.

Which continued with us some 24 heures, with such extremity, as it carried not only our sails away being furl'd, but also made much water in our ships, so that we had six foot water in hold, and having fired our ship thereof with *baling*, the winds shifted to the north west and became duller.

Hackstay. Voyages, &c. v. i.

BALEARES INSULE, or **BALEARES ISLANDS**, in Ancient Geography, the name of a group of islands in the Mediterranean, eastward of the coast of Spain. They included the two large islands of Majorca and Minorca, with a few adjacent islets, which afterwards constituted the kingdom of Majorca. Etymologists have advanced different opinions in reference to the origin of the term *Baleares*; but as the inhabitants were celebrated for their use of the sling, which was the only weapon they carried to war, it is thought by many that the name of the people, and from them that of the islands, was derived from the Greek word *Bállē*, I throw. The Greeks frequently called these islands *Gymnasia*, which some suppose was derived from the inhabitants going naked to summer; but others from their going to battle armed only with a sling. Whatever may have been the origin of the name, they were noted for the use of this weapon from a very remote period; and to exercise them in it from an early age, mothers were accustomed to place their children's hand in an elevated place, that they might be compelled to knock it down with their slings before they could obtain it. When they went to battle, it was customary for each man to carry three slings of unequal length, to be used as the distance of the enemy, or other circumstances might require.

The inhabitants of these islands appear to have been either of Phœnician or Carthaginian origin, but to

BALE.
BALE-ARES INSULE.

BAL-
FARES
INSULAE.
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BALL.

have taken possession of them prior to the date of any existing historical record. They lived for a long time in all the simplicity of uncultivated nature; in which caves in the rocks, or holes dug in the ground served them for habitations. In the warmer seasons of the year they went nearly naked; but at the colder periods they covered themselves with sheep-skins. The soil was so fertile as easily to supply them with the simple necessities of life. The use of money, according to ancient authors, was prohibited among them. They were in general a pacific people, yet some of them served in the Carthaginian armies: and others having joined the pirates that infested the Mediterranean, Metellus, the Roman consul, fitted out an expedition for invading their territory; but on the landing of the Roman soldiers, the inhabitants fled, and so dispersed themselves over the country, that it was more difficult to find, than to defeat them. Metellus, however, secured his conquest, and planted two colonies, one at the eastern, and the other at the western extremity of *Balearis Major*, the present Majorca. These islands were considered as forming a part of the ancient *Tarconensis*, and were called *Fortasae* by the Romans, from their favourable situation, and the excellence of their harbours; the chief of which was port *Mago*, the present port Mahon.

Situation,
extent, and
productions

BALL, sometimes called *Little Java*, one of the islands in the Sumatran chain, separated from the eastern extremity of Java by the strait of the same name, which is about five or six leagues wide, and presents only an intricate navigation. Sir Thomas Stamford Raffles states its length at about eighty miles, and its breadth as nearly equal, and considers its surface as containing 6400 square miles. No enumeration has been made of its population; but from the nature of the country, the state of civilisation, and a comparison with what is known of Java, he thinks it may be estimated at a little more than sixty persons to each square mile, which would give about 400,000 for the whole number of inhabitants. The face of the country is mountainous; the highest parts being in the interior, to which there is a gradual ascent of hills and vallies. The ravines and beds of rivers are deep, and the rivers themselves necessarily rapid. The cultivated parts of the country are thickly planted with cocoa-nut and other fruit trees, while those that are uncultivated are, as usual, crowned with deep forests. The soil and climate have a great resemblance to those of Java; and indeed the climate and physical circumstances of all this part of the Oriental archipelago, are so similar, that the chief distinction consists in the effects produced by the greater or less elevation of the soil, and the proportion of civilisation and industry among its inhabitants. In this respect, there are none of these islands, with the exception of Java, and perhaps part of Celebes, that rival Bali. Its agriculture is in so improved a state as to supply food for a much greater population than most of them support. This consists chiefly of rice, maize, yams, sweet potatoes, and other productions of a mountainous and dry soil. The cultivators are described as among the most skilful and industrious in the archipelago, and the women are less engaged in the labours of the field than among the Javanese. The rice yields from thirty to forty fold, and the maize often more than a hundred. Besides these articles which constitute the absolute necessities of life, the Balinese grow cotton

of a superior kind, which is cultivated on the upland, or dry lands, a practice which is contrary to that of their neighbours the Javanese. Some dying drugs are also produced as articles of commerce, and are in considerable request.

As the Balinese afford specimens of the greatest degree of civilisation that has been attained in this archipelago, and have even attained a higher point in the scale of being than the Javanese, a brief account of them will at once be interesting and useful, as presenting a point of comparison by which we may judge of the state of the other islands. The inhabitants most likely sprang from the same sources as those which peopled Java and the other adjacent regions; but their language is now peculiar, and though resembling both the Malayana and the Javanese, neither of these is intelligible to the majority of the Balinese. This language is written in the same character as that of Java, and the Javan is said to be spoken at the courts of some of the princes, but it is considered as a foreign acquisition. The literature of the island has either been borrowed from that of Java, or derived from the same source; and the *Kawi*, the learned and dead language of the islands, is well understood at Bali, and is said to contain all the learning and religion of the priesthood. In disposition the Balinese are represented as mild and inoffensive, and neither prone to anger nor revenge. They readily associate with strangers, and are altogether divested of those bigoted prejudices of caste, nation, and religion, with which the people of continental Asia are so deeply imbued. It has been remarked of the Balinese, that they are the only people of this archipelago who possess either courage or tractability sufficient for receiving the regular discipline of European troops. Their use of poisoned arrows, however, is a relic of barbarism, which still connects them with the savages of the neighbouring islands, and is not easily reconciled with the other parts of their character, or the progress they have made in the path of civilisation. Prisoners of war are either associated with the conquerors, or sold for slaves, but never put to death. The diet of the people is not confined to vegetables, as animal food seems to be very common. This consists principally of the flesh of hogs and buffaloes; and ships touching at Bali are readily supplied with this sort of provisions, as hogs are generally very numerous. Nor is the use of spirituous liquors or opium unknown, both of which have been introduced by Europeans. Their houses are built upon the ground, as in Java, and not raised upon posts like those of the Malays, and other inhabitants on the borders of rivers and marshy sea coasts. This is an evidence of the dryness and salubrity of the climate. The Balinese are generally clothed in cotton cloths of their own manufacture, which are of a better fabric than those of the Javanese, though they are not so well clad as the inhabitants of the larger islands. The females, indeed, go nearly naked till they are married, when the bridegroom wraps a *mandering* or cloth round the bosom of the bride. They also manufacture cotton cloths for exportation, which may be considered as a decisive proof of the advanced state of society. The women, as among the Javanese, are the sole manufacturers. The art of printing their cottons does not appear to be known, as they are either white or striped with other colours in the loom. They also

BALL

Manners
and cus-
toms of the
natives.

BALL

manufacture their own weapons, even including firearms; and though the locks of these are clumsy, much taste is displayed in inlaying the barrels. The people of this archipelago are placed under circumstances so similar, that where their effects are not counteracted by differing causes they must tend to produce a striking uniformity. The Balinese, are however, honourably distinguished from their neighbours the Javanese, by fidelity and decorum of intercourse between the sexes. Marriage is not contracted till the parties arrive at maturity, and then not only for the most part between persons of similar ages, but in general as an indissoluble union for life. Their religion is that of Budhi, and they are not divided into castes, though the priesthood seems to be hereditary. Their priests are called Brahmins, and live in separate societies, generally in some secluded spot, among the mountains, and have lands assigned for the support of themselves and their temples; but these they cultivate with their own hands. Though the Balinese do not manifest any hostility towards people of other religious sects, they have steadily resisted the doctrines of Mahomedanism, and very few converts have ever been made in the island. Such as have embraced the faith of Islam, are treated like the proscribed castes in India. Law and religion are blended together, as in other countries of the east; but here the administration of justice is not in the hands of the priests, but is executed by distinct magistrates, who expound the law from written authorities, and pay much attention to the distribution of justice, which is a decided proof that civilization has had a powerful influence even upon the body of the people.

Government, division, &c.

Bali is under the government of several independent princes, who are each absolute in his own dominions; though their despotism appears to be of a much milder character than among the native governments of Java. The right of private property in the soil is said to be established, and the claims of the prince to be restricted to a small proportion of the rice crop alone. Though the common people are not burdened with forced or feudal services, difference of rank is sufficiently palpable, as the language presents the degrading distinction of one class of words for the privileged orders, and another for the people in general. An obligation of feudal service in war is still maintained; but slavery is unknown among them, though they sometimes sell the prisoners of war as slaves to other nations. As the Balinese are habituated to the peaceful pursuits of agriculture, and but little inclined to follow war as a favourite occupation, they present none of that ferocious and hardy character exhibited by the savage warriors of some of the other islands. Their mode of warfare is desultory; they never engage in large bodies, but dispersed in small parties of forty or fifty together. Bali is divided into seven states, which are frequently in either open or secret hostility to each other.

Manufactures and commerce.

In countries where industry has become at all conspicuous, commerce and agriculture go hand in hand, each supplying a stimulus to the prosecution of the other, and both contributing to the comfort and advancement of society. Though the Balinese are perhaps more engaged in preparing the materials of trade than actively engaged in its transactions; yet it has a strong influence upon the state of the island. The chief articles of export are cotton cloths, as well

as raw cotton, which is often sent to Java, and which from its superior quality and the facility with which it is raised, might in some cases constitute a valuable article of trade to Europe. Besides these, kossunbo flowers and mangkasia roots for dyeing, rice, nutmegs, cloves, slaves, and some other articles are all exported. The Chinese who reside on the coasts are the principal overtraders, especially as dealers in slaves. Rice is sent to all the surrounding countries as far as Benccoleo and the straits of Malacca; and of late it is said to have been imported in considerable quantities into the Moluccas. The nutmegs are of the long kind, and are supposed to be produced in the recesses of the island in a wild state, as they are sent to Java in great abundance, where they are called the Bali nutmegs, and are to be obtained at a very cheap rate. Gold is also found in this island; a mine of this metal is worked at a place called Pejo, on the eastern coast, but the quantity of its produce is not known. The imports of the Balinese are chiefly Indian cloths, and other piece goods, opium, iron, and china ware. Iron is in general demand both in this and the other islands of the Oriental archipelago, and few articles appear to promise so much advantage, either to the importer or consumer; as some seems to be manufactured, and so much both of the advancement and comfort of society depends on its use.

A brief historical sketch of this people would have been interesting, as developing the means by which they have raised themselves above the other islanders of the same group, in most of the arts of life; but for this the materials are wanting, unless any documents should exist to the native language. The inhabitants are supposed to have been converted to Buddhism about 1740 years ago, when the priests of that sect were expelled from India by the superior influence of the Brahmins. Sir Francis Drake, according to Valentyn, visited Bali in 1697; and the Dutch, who constantly traversed these seas, undoubtedly often landed on the shores of Bali, but they do not appear ever to have acquired much influence, or to have formed any establishments on the island. The latitude of the eastern peak is 8° 24' S. and its longitude 115° 24' E.

BALISTES, from the Italian *balestra*, a crossbow, Art. Lin. Cuv. File-fish, Grew, Shaw. In Zoology, a genus belonging to the family *Sclerotermines*, order *Plectognathes*, class *Pisces*.

Generic character. Eight teeth in each jaw; body compressed; skin scaly or granular; first dorsal fin, spined; second soft and opposite the anal; no true ventral fins, but the pelvis attached to the bones of the shoulder, and sometimes having projecting processes.

The *B. Capricornis* is the only one of this genus found in Europe, the others are all natives of the Indian and American seas. The *Balistes* are remarkable for the first dorsal fin which is composed of two or more spines connected together on a single bone attached to the skull. The generic title is derived from the trivial name of the *B. Capricornis*, *Pece Balestra*, so called by the Italians, from its supposed resemblance to the trigger of a crossbow, for says Salvian, it has three spines capable of voluntary erection and depression, and although you press the foremost and greatest never so hard, it will not stir, but if you depress the last and least of all over so softly, the other two immediately fall down with it. Artedi applied the name *Balistes* to this genus, from a supposed resemblance

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—
BALISTES

BALISTES of the spine of the *B. Monoceros* to the ancient battering ram. The English name File-fish was given to it by Dr. Grew, in his *Museum Regalis Societatis*, "from the likeness which the foremost bone upon his back hath to a file." They are remarkable for the brilliancy of their colours; and their flesh, seldom much esteemed, is considered poisonous at particular seasons.

For a farther account of their anatomical structure and classification, see *COMPARATIVE ANATOMY and ZOOLOGY*.

They have been divided by Cuvier into four sub-genera.

a. The *Balistes Proper*, having the body covered with distinct rhomboidal scales, not overlapping, but giving the appearance of divisions in the skin; the first dorsal fin has three spines, of which the first is very large and strong; some of them have the tail armed with several rows of spines, or tubercles, whilst others have not.

β. The *Monacanthes* are covered with very small rough scales, and have but one large and notched spine as the first dorsal fin: some have the pelvis very moveable, and attached to the belly by a kind of dewlap or loose skin; others have the sides of the tail irregularly notched.

γ. The *Aluterus* have the skin granular; a single dorsal spine; and the bones of the pelvis completely enveloped in the skin, from whence they derive their name.

δ. The *Triacanthus* have the skin covered with small notched scales; after the large spine, there are three or more smaller spines on the first dorsal fin; they have a kind of ventral fins attached by a large spiny ray to the pelvis, which does not appear externally.

The following are the species:—

Balistes Proper.

B. Capricornus, Lin. Cuv.; *Pesce Balistra* of the Italians; *Mediterranean File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Forcipatus*, Lin. Cuv.; *Guaperna cauda forcipata*, Willoughby; *Forcipated File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Fictula*, Lin. Cuv.; *Old Wife*, Brown's Jamaica; *Ancient File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Punctatus*, Gmel. Cuv.; *Speckled File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Piasus*, Schneider. Cuv.; *White-sided File-fish*, Shaw. Those having the tail armed with spines, are with two rows, *B. Lincatus*, Schneider. With three rows, *B. Cinctus*, Lacép. Cuv.; *Cinctus File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Acanthatus*, Lin. Cuv.; *Aculeated File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Ferracornus*, Lin. Cuv.; *Warted File-fish*, Shaw. With four rows, *B. Fasciatus*, Lacép.; *Fasciated File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Coupicellum*, and *B. Viridescens*, Schneider. With six or more rows, *B. Armatus*, Lacép.; *B. Riagens*, Lin. Cuv.; *Black File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Bursa*, Schneider. *Souwerats File-fish*, Shaw. With small tubercles, *B. Capistratus*, Lacép.; *Bridled File-fish*, Shaw.

Monacanthes.

B. Chincensis, Bloch; *Chincus File-fish*, Shaw: this has the pelvis attached to the belly by loose skin. *B. Tomentatus*, Lin. Cuv.; *Downy File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Hapidus*, Lin. Cuv.; *Hipid File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Papillosus*, Lin. Cuv.; *Papillose File-fish*, Shaw.

Aluterus.

B. Monoceros, Lin. Cuv.; *Unicorn File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Lævis*, Lin. Cuv.; *Smooth File-fish*, Shaw. *B. Kleinii*, Gmel.; *Kleinian File-fish*, Shaw.

Triacanthus.

B. Biacanthus, Gmel.; *Two-spined File-fish*, Shaw. Grew's *Museum Regalis Societatis*; Linnæi *Systema*

Nature, et a curd Gmelin; Cuvier, *Règne Animal*; *BALISTES* Shaw's *General Zoology*.

BALIZE, a river of South America, which descends from the interior of the peninsula of Yucatan into the bay of Honduras, in the fifteenth degree of latitude. It is on the banks of this river that the English have their principal establishments for cutting mahogany; and some of the wood-cutters ascend as high as 200 miles from its mouth. To this distance it contains sufficient water for floating the logs to the shore; but the upper part has been little explored. The treaty of 1763 gives to British subjects the right of cutting logwood between the Balize and the Rio Hondo, which falls into Hanover bay.

BALIZE, a seaport of Yucatan, stands at the mouth of the above river, and is the principal settlement which the English have on this shore. Convenience has obviously been the chief inducement to the selection of this spot as the site of a town, for the situation is low, the port open to the sea, and the back ground occupied by an immense swamp, which becomes a complete lake during the rainy season, and is productive of pestilential exhalations at other times. The lofty cocoa-nut trees, interspersed with the fresh and lively foliage of the tamarind, and intermixed with the houses of the town, give it a more agreeable appearance than it would otherwise possess. The number of houses is between two and three hundred, all built of wood, and raised upon posts a few feet from the ground. The heat of the climate renders piazzas necessary appendages. Most of the houses are now covered with shingles, instead of the palmetto leaves which were formerly employed for this purpose. This gives an air of neatness to the town which it did not previously possess. The English factories a few years ago contained about 200 whites, nearly as many people of colour, and 900 slaves. The annual exports to Europe were then estimated at 800,000 cubic feet of mahogany; 10,000 lbs. of tortoise-shell; and 200,000 lbs. of sarsaparilla, besides great quantities of log-wood. The latitude of Balize is about 14° 50' north, and its longitude 91° 15' west.

BALK, } Sax. *balc*, *balica*. *Porca*, i. e. terra por-
Ba'k'o. } recta. (Varro.) Land, says Junius, beset
up between two furrows, and extended (porrecta) in
length. Perhaps, he adds, *balk*, a beam, because it
is extended like a long and straight beam.

Dyers and delvers digged up jo balks.

Peter Plowman, p. 134.

But so well halt an man the plough,
That he balk-it other while,
No so well ran an man stile
His longer, that sometime in lape
Hym maic some light worde ourscape.

Gower. Conf. Am. book iii.

Or elf that I of my huntyns and pray
Elit thyse honour any maere of way;
Or at thy smoldest, knygge post of tre,
Thy holy templeis refe, or balke hit,
Gif ever I lang or fruit any thing.

Deuotus. Encodes, book ii. fol. 290.

No grying land-lord hath inclod'd thy walkes,
Nor toying plowman furrow'd them in balkes.
Wm. Browne. Pastorals, book ii. song ii.

This third the merry Dixamo we call,
A burder-city these two counts removing;
Which like a tolt with his cross-buried wall,
Disparts the terms of anger, and of loving.
P. Fletcher. The Purple Island, canto iv.

BALK.

For he glorieth, and braveth forth in his verses, that he hath taken away all fences and marks that separated men's lands through the country of Attica; and that now he had set at liberty, that which before was in bondage.

North. Fletcher, part 73.

BALK. Of uncertain origin, says Ibre. *Balk*, Dutch; *balke*, Ger.; *bal*, Swed. Why not from *releaser*, to bew, to strike with an axe? since a beam is hewn wood. Waebter. But see BALK, the verb.

His own head than made ladders three,
To climb by the ranges and the stalks
Unto the tubbs hanging in the stalks

Chaucer. The Millers Tale, v. 3627.

He can wit in min eye seen a walk,
But in his own he cannot even a bal.

Id. The Rees Prologue, v. 3918.

BALK, v. Skinner thinks that *balk*, a beam, is from the Italian *salicore*, (from *salcare*) to pass over, to omit. *Salcare*, according to Menage, is from the Lat. *salcare*, to pass over, to climb over. (Varro.) Vid. Vossius in v. *corvus*.

To *balk*, will be, to pass over, to omit, to neglect; and thus to disappoint, to defeat the expectation.

For she had taught him by her silent talk
To tread the safe, and dangerous ways to bal;
And brought his God with him, him with his God to walk.
P. Fletcher. The Purple Island, book 1.

I know not, whether the spiers, or the gal of Ahab be more affected. Whether more of savor, or grief, I cannot say; but sick he is, and keeps his bed, and seeks his meat, as if he should die of no other death, than the salads that he would have had.

Hall. Cont. Ahab and Nahath.

Who so could cite a tragedy
Was foremost in his creed,
For, beliving pleasant company,
On sorrows did he feed.

Werner. Alfin's England, book 1.

The outward manna fell not at all on the Sabbath: the spiritual manna, though it *balke* no day, yet it falls double on God's day: and if we gather it not then, we famish.

Hall. Cont. of Quells and Manna.

Balks longlike with acquaintance that you have,
And practice rhetoricks in your common talks.
Shakespeare. Twelfth Night, sol. 210. c. ii.

And therein thousand payers of lovers walk,
Praying their god, and yielding him great thanks,
Nor ever ought but of their true loves talk,
Ne ever for rebuke or blame of any balk.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book v. c. x.

Quoth she, I've heard old cunning stagers
Say, fools for arguments use wagers;
And though I praise'd your valour, yet
I did not mean to balk your wit.

Bulwer. Hothras, part ii. canto 1.

Then those who follow'd reason's dictates right;
Lied up, and lifted high their natural light;
With Socrates may see their Maker's face;
While thousand rabble-martyrs want a place,
Nor does it balk his charity, to find
The Egyptian bishop of another mind.

Dryden. Religio Laici.

By the inward over-powering influences of his Spirit, a man's desires shall become cold and dead to those things, which before were so extremely apt to captivate and command them; than which there cannot be a greater balk to the tempter, nor a more effectual defeat to all his temptations.

South. On Temptation. Sermon v.

An honest tradesman, who languishes a whole summer in expectation of a ballet, and perhaps is balked at last, may here meet with half a dozen in a day.

Spectator, No. 452.

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BALK.

BALKII.

He in whatever path he goes,
Still looks right on before his nose;
And holds it little less than treason,
To balk his stomach or his reason.

Meliet. Cupid and Hyacin.

BALKII, a province of Turkistan, bounded on the north by the Amb, (Oxus); on the east by Badakhshan; on the south by the Hindû-cush, (Phrygians); and on the west by the deserts of Khwârezm, (Chorasania), the Bactria of the ancients. Its extent may be estimated at 250 miles from east to west, and about 110 from north to south. This country lies upon the rapid declivities of the Persian and Indian mountains; and its southern and eastern districts are consequently cooler, and have a greater variety of level than the northern and western divisions. The valleys among the hills and the level country towards the Amb, are well watered and fertile; but as the country approaches the sands of Khwârezm, it gradually becomes less productive. The rivers from the Hindû-cush, as we learn from Mr. Elphinstone, flow in a direction almost due north, into the Amb: the Kokan, or Badakhshân, is the easternmost; next comes the Ak-serûi; and the last and most westerly, the Rebâs, seeks itself in the sands before it reaches Balkh. This territory is divided into the districts of Mainench, Andekbûd, Shilbûrkân, or Shilbergân, Balkh Proper, Kulam, Ilazerî Imâm, Kundera Khost, Inderâb, and Tâlikân. The three first border on the deserts, and are principally occupied by wandering hordes of Uzbegs and Turcomans. The city of Balkh, in lat. 36° 45' N. long. 65° 30' E. is now a heap of ruins; but the surrounding country is fertile and well cultivated, watered by eighteen canals supplied from a reservoir in the Hindû-cush, and maintaining 360 villages. Kulam and Hazerî Imâm are naked and barren; the former mountainous, the latter flat and sandy. The remaining districts, on the north side of the Hindû-cush, are productive and well peopled. The population of the whole province amounts probably to a million. The boundaries and extent of this country have varied with its ever-varying fortunes, and some of the districts here assigned to it, are given to Tokkâristân and Ghadr; while Balkh itself is considered as a part of Khorâsân, by most Asiatic writers. It was built by Kayûmaras, and was the favourite residence of the Persian kings of the Caucasian dynasty. It was esteemed the chief Mussulman city in the north, and therefore called Kubbatu'l-Islâm, (the holy shrine of Islamism), having been converted in the Khalifat of Othman. Jengiz Khân took it in 1221, and the last of his family was driven out of it by Tamerlane in 1369. In the beginning of the sixteenth century, the princes of the house of Taimûr were expelled by the Uzbegs, who have ever since maintained a precarious dominion over these provinces. Kiliî All Bey, the reigning prince of Balkh, when Mr. Elphinstone visited Afghanistan, carefully paid every outward mark of respect to the king of Cabul, whose paramount authority he acknowledged, though, in every other respect, he was an independent sovereign. (D'Hierbelot *Bibliothèque Orientale*; Elphinstone *Cabul*, p. 469—475; *Hist. Géologique des Tatars*, i. 284; *Pétis de la Croix, Vie de Timur*, i. 193; *Jebân Namâ*, p. 274. 309—315; *Asiatic Researches*, vi. 471, 870.; Otter, *Voyages*.

2 F

BALL

BALL. Ger. and Dutch, *ballen*; *vulvere, vertere, rotare*, to roll, to turn, round; *bol, voluimen*, any thing round, or roundly; as a cricket ball, a billiard ball, the eye-ball, the ball of the earth.

And with these words I brast out to weepe, that every tear of mine eyes for greatness seemed they burnen out the *bol* of my sight, and that all the water hadde been out runne.

Chaucer. The Test. of Love, fol. 289. c. iii.

For where as God hath shewed vnto vs certain toltis of his godhead, in the heavenly *baller* and circles above, and on the yearthly banch in the sea, and in all tising creatures on the yearth, yet hath he wrought in some of theym more wonderfully, than in manne.

Udall. Actes, cap. xviii.

Some writers saie that the Dolphin thynkynge kynge Henry to be geyn still so suchie plaires and light folies as he craniat & used before the tyme that he was exalted to the croune soote to hym a tounse of tennis *baller* to plaie with, as win said that he coude better skil of tennis then of warre, and was more expert in light games then marshall pollivy.

Hall. King Henry V.

KIN. We are glad the Dolphin is so pleasant with vs, His present, and your paines vs thanke you for: Wist we have mischt our carkets to these *baller*, We will in France (by God's grace) play a set, Shall strike his father's croune into the hazard.

Shakespeare. Henry V. fol. 72. c. i.

Here is then nothing throwne *downe* that was before builded, but you cast *snow baller* at y' windowes of the building, which may for a tyme darken them, all your soverie be mette away with the sunne.

Wright. Defence, fol. 196.

Since light so necessary is to life,
And almost life itself, if it be true,
That light is in the soul,
She all in every part; why was the sight
To such a tender *ball* as th' eye confide?

Milton. Son. Ag.

It was then very pleasant to look into the hearts of the whole company; for the *balls* of sight are so form'd, that one man's eyes are spectacles to another to read his heart with.

Tetter, No. 145.

The disk of Phœbus, when he climbs on high,
Appears at first but as a bloodshot eye;
And when his chariot downward drives to bed,
His *ball* is with the same suffusion red.

Dryden. Ovid's Metam. book xv.

To ambient air this pond'rous ball he hung,
And bade his creature rest for ever strong;
Heav'n's, air, and sea, with all their storms in vain
Assault the basis of the firm machine.

Bischoff. An Hymn to the Supreme Being.

After the death of Trajan, his ashes were placed, as some authors say, in a golden *ball* on the top of this noble pillar; but Entropius affirmeth they were deposited under it.

Miræus. Flavy, book viii. letter iv. (note.)

BALL. It. *ballare*; Gr. *βαλλειν*. To throw or cast about (sc.) the legs and feet; from *βαλλω*, to throw.

In the mean while there was nothing in the court, but banqueting, *balling*, and dancin, and other such pleasures as were meet to provoke the disordered appetite.

Knox. On the Reformation, fol. 463.

Have you not been in pain even at a *ball*, because another has been taken out to dance before you?

Tetter, No. 253

As thro' the mazes of the festive ball,
Proud of her conquering charms, and beauty's blaze,
She flirts amid the silken sons of dress,
And shines the fairest of th' assembled fair.

Warton. The Pleasures of Melancholy.

RA'LLAD, v. It. *ballata*. A kind or sort of **BALLAD**. poetry so called; *perchè si cantava a ballo*. Bembo in Menage. See **BALL**.
RA'LLADER, v. Applied by our older writers to the Song of Solomon, as The *Ballad* of Solomon.
RA'LLATED, v. *Ballades* of Solomon, called in Latin *Cantica Canticoorum*. It is used in composition, as *ballad-monger, ballad-singer, &c.*

At certayne times can repaire
Small birds downe from thaire
And on the ships bonnde about
Sate and sang with voice full out.

Chaucer. Dream, fol. 358. c. ii.

For that is a fortunate chortle, that can stirre vs, not to wanton dainties or folyshe *ballades*, wherewith the Gentiles crië vpon theyr deuilies: but vnto psalmes, and hymnes, and spiritual songs.

Udall. Ephe. cap. v.

And also I haue ofte namde
Roumdel, *balades*, and verchale
For her, on whom myn heart leide,
To make.

Guerr. Conf. Am. book i.

In guddy odour went they and array,
And of thair kyng song *baller* by the way.
Douglas. Eneides, book vii. fol. 253.

As if to symptoms we may credit give,
This very time, wherein we two now liue,
Shall in the compass wound the mazes more,
Then all th' old English ignorance before;
Base *baller* is so below'd and night.

Dryden. Elly to Master G. Sandys.

Alas! I make but repetition,
Of what is needless, and spillo talk,
And *baller*, and would be paid a' th' stage,
But that vice many times finds such loud friends,
That preachers are charm'd silent.

Webster. Fictoria Columiana, act iii.

The villagers also must have their visitors to enquire what lectures the bagpipe, and the rebec render, even to the *baller* and the gunsmith of every municipal' fairs, for these are the country-men's Arcadia, and kin Music Mayors.

Milton. Speech for the Liberty of Unlicensed Printing. v. i. fol. 145.

CLEO. Nay 'tis most certaine, frim : saucie lictors
Will catch at vs like strumpets, and scald rimers
Balled vs out a toun.

Shakespeare. Antony and Cleopatra, fol. 366. c. ii.

The silent' tales I th' metamorphoses
Shall staff their lines, and swell the windy page;
Till verse, retin'd by thee, in this last age
Turn *ballad-rhime*, or those old idols be
Adm'd again with new apostasy.

Caran. Elly upon the Death of Doctor Donne.

Four verbal quips, outworn by scrying-men, tapsters, and milk-maids; even had aside by *ballers*.

Quarby's Character. sign. G. iv.

Ballade, and all the spurious crew
Of lins that malice could devise,
Or ever smarm'd from a licentious pen,
Heng round about him like a spell.

Wray. The Poet's Complaint of his Muse.

Those heads that us'd most indolent to move
To sing-song, *baller*, and sonnets love,
Began their buried senses to explore,
And found they now had passions as before.

Addison. Poems on Cats.

Thither no more the peasant shall repair,
To sweet oblivion of his daily care;
No more the farmer's new, the barber's tale,
No more the woodman's *baller* shall prevail.

Goldsmith. Deserted Village.

BALLAD. The origin of the English **BALLAD** has been traced by Dr. Percy, among our Anglo Saxon ancestors, to the minstrels, whom he considers the genuine successors of the ancient bards. So early as the first invasion of Britain by the Saxons, Geoffrey of Monmouth has recorded an incident which proves that the profession of minstrel was not unknown in our island. Regin, (i. 36. Tindal's translation) has assigned the chronology of Baldulf, who, according to the above named chronicler, disguised himself as a minstrel in order to obtain admission within the walls of York, in the year 495; and the more assured adventure of King Alfred, who penetrated the Danish camp by a similar stratagem, cannot be placed later than 938. Aulaff, a Danish king, repented the attempt sixty years afterwards, but not with equal success. In *Domesday-book*, the *Joculator Regis* is expressly mentioned as having lands assigned for his maintenance in Gloucestershire: and numerous authorities prove that *joculator* must be understood a minstrel. (Du Cange, iii. 1543. Fauchet, *De l'Origine de la Langue Française*, 78. Fantenelle, *Histoire du Théâtre Français*.) In the Conqueror's army, Tarblessen, or Taillefer, an esquire, who, as the romance tells us, *meut bien chanter*, is said, on more sober authority, to have excelled as much in the arts of minstrelsy as he did in those of war. In the battle of Hastings he obtained permission, as a sort of forlorn hope, to lead the van, and singing the popular *Chanson de Roland*, he threw himself upon the English spears and perished. (Du Cange, iv. 769. Voltaire, *Aid. Hist. Univ.* 69.)

It would lead us too far from our precise object, the English **ballad**, if we entered upon even a brief sketch of the history of the Troubadours, those songsters of love and war, who gave birth to the poetry of Italy, France, and Spain. It was from Normandy that Provence in all probability borrowed the romantic tales which the Troubadours afterwards more widely disseminated; and it is to the Norman conquest that we must attribute the refinement of the Anglo Saxon **ballads**.

Yet even subsequent to the conquest, we meet with many romances of genuine English growth. *Horn child: The Squire of lowe degree: and A lytell geste of Robyn Hood*, have been pointed out as tales unmingled with foreign lore; and they are none of them such as we need be ashamed to claim as national productions. *Cœur de Lion*, the hero of chivalry, was no less the patron of song; and his well known deliverance from captivity, by Blondell, was the reward which the Muses had in store in return for his protection. Whatever was the rigour exercised by the first Edward against the mountain bards of Wales, in his own court it is clear that he favoured minstrels; and, in his crusade, he was indebted for his life to the courage of one of these attendants, who beat out the brains of a Saracen assassin, who had aimed at the king with a poisoned knife. (*Peter's Historie Anglice Scriptores*, ii. 591.)

Minstrels were incorporated by charter in the 9th Edward IV. and the fraternity was protected by a corporation under the government of a marshal and two wardens. This charter was renewed by Henry VIII. It was not till the reign of his daughter that the profession was destined to the last disgrace, and that minstrels by statute (39 Eliz.) were included among

"rogues, vagabonds, and sturdy beggars," and rendered punishable as such.

The oldest English **ballads** are in the northern dialect. Those of after date have adopted that of the south. In the reign of James I. when the genuine minstrelsy became extinct, large collections of the latter kind of **ballads**, much inferior in spirit to their predecessors, were collected under the name of *garlands*. The *carmen triviale* of later days, and that which still retains the name of **ballad**, scarcely falls within the purpose of this article. Those who wish to know more of the history of the elder poems, may consult the essay prefixed to the Bishop of Dromore's elegant *Reliques of Ancient English Poetry*, which we have principally followed as our guide in the above short notice. The sources from which the bishop chiefly drew his interesting collection, are five volumes in folio, begun by Selden, but containing many pieces much older than his time, in the Pepysian library at Magdalen College Cambridge. These volumes present nearly 2000 **ballads**. The Ashmolean and the Bodleian libraries afford many others; the first about 900, collected by the labour of the indefatigable Anthony Wood. The Antiquarian Society possesses several from the time of Henry VIII. but chiefly on political subjects; and the British Museum, besides a folio volume of printed **ballads**, contains a copious store in MS.

J. Warton's *History of English Poetry*, and Dr. Barne's *History of Music* may be consulted with advantage by those who seek profounder researches in the history of **Ballads**.

BALLET, a dramatic fable represented by action and dancing only. There is no reason to suppose that the ancients at any time admitted of dramatic representations of which dialogue did not form a part; although the size and construction of their theatres rendered them peculiarly adapted to such a display. The origin of the **ballet** must be rather sought in those gorgeous spectacles of the Italian courts, to which, as society advanced in civilisation, the more dangerous amusements of the tournament were compelled to give place. An approach to these magnificent diversions may be traced in some of the recreations which are recorded as having distinguished the interview of the two monarchs in the field of the cloth of gold; but it is to the next century that we must refer for those splendid pomps which formed the delight and exhausted the resources of the courts of Tuscany and Lorraine. The actors were all of princely rank, and the memory of these pageants, both at Florence and at Nancy, has been faithfully preserved to us by the etchings of Della Bella and Callot. England was in some measure a sharer in the same taste, and was fortunately possessed at that moment of a genius whose commanding talent in scenic decoration, would soon have enabled her to vie with her continental rivals, though as Ben Jonson was employed to compose the dialogue for the masks at Whitehall, this circumstance must exclude them from being classed with the regular ballet. Whatever partook of display and pomp, was certain to find a zealous patron in Louis XIV.; and probably the most magnificent **ballet ever** performed, was that which this prince commanded and bore a part in, in the year 1664. It is indeed in honour of this memorable *fête*, that the name of the *Cerouisel* has been perpetuated in the spot of its celebration. There

BALLAD. is yet preserved in the library at Versailles, a volume in which all the dresses and trappings employed at this ceremonial are faithfully portrayed; and to add to its value, it contains the portraits of all the chief nobility of the court of France, who were actors as well as their sovereign in this mimic splendour. Since that period, the *ballot* has rarely been enabled to boast of names so illustrious among its performers; though it is believed that on the private stage of the Opera of Versailles, Marie Antoinette did not disdain to assume the part of the *Beauty* in the interesting fable of *Semir and Azor*. The theatres, however, both of France, Italy, and England, have always taken care that the taste for the *ballot* shall not become obsolete. All our classical recollections, and all the wonders of Arabian enchantment have been ransacked to furnish ground-works for the ingenuity of the ballet master. The actor who on one night as the conqueror of India has shared his divinity with Arindne, has on the next fretted in his iron cage as the captive Bajazet; and the same gloomy cavern through which Orpheus has pursued his difficult path in search of his Eurydice, has served also for the return of the more successful Aladdin in possession of his magical treasure. The wildest fancies and the soberest incidents of real life, have been equally the subjects of representation; and the audience that has witnessed unmoved Faustus hurried away as the victim of his tempter, has been compelled to real sympathy with the Deserter of Naples.

BALLAST, n. } A. S. *hlæstan*, *be-hlæstan*, to lade,
BALLAST, n. } load or freight a ship. Hence per-
BALLASTING. } haps our present *ballast*, *colours*.
 Past part. *hlæsted*, *be-hlæsted*, loaded or laden, Soomer.
 Dutch and Ger. *ballast*.

It is applied to that lading or loading which is used to steady a vessel in the water, or to steady any thing in its motion or action.

Bye of statue stude he like to fecht,
 Dinted the strenge with ballast of huge wecht,
 And with his lang and lusty ballingore
 Overalides the depe flodie in thare fare.

G. Douglas. *Excursion*, book x. fol. 321.

The crane to labour, tearing some rough flaw,
 With sand and gravel buttressing his crew:
 Noted by men, which by the same did find
 To ballast ships for steadiness in wind.

Drayton. *The Owl*.

Before the heart is ballasted with this fear of God, it runs after every vagrant thought that comes cross us or fleets before us; as children run after every feather that the wind drives.

Rp. *Hypocrite*. Sermon xiv.

But his [T. Corry's] knowledge and high attainments in several languages, made him not a little ignorant of himself, he being so covetous and ambitious of praise, that he would heave and endure more of it than he could in any measure deserve; being like a ship that hath too much sail, and too little ballast.

Wood's *Athenæ Oxon.* l. 424.

Isa. 'Monstrous friends!'

If brothers: would it had bin so, that they
 Had bin my father's enemies, then had my prize
 Bin less, and so more equal ballasting
 To thee Posthumus.

Shakespeare. *Cymbeline*, fol. 387.

This fleet was just in sight of the English by then they had any warning of it; and they were so unprepared for its reception, that many of the crew were on shore, providing ballast, water, and other necessaries.

Olby's *Life of Sir W. Raleigh*.

I do not deny, but that a little melancholy may be sometimes as good as ballast to a ship, to keep it steady; but too much is apt to sink the soul into so much grief and sorrow, that it is very difficult for it to raise up itself so high as to rejoice at all, much less in God himself.

Deveridge. *Sermon cxvi.* vol. 2.

The *zealous* of the first [Diderot] supplies the gale of favour, and BALLAST the latter [Dennet] adds the useful ballast of stupidity.
 Goldsmith. *Present state of Public Learning*, chap. viii.

BALLAST, is a term used in Navigation, to denote any heavy material employed for sinking a vessel to a proper depth in the water, and to give it a just weight and counterpoise against the action of the wind on the sails. We have already in our treatise on *Hydrostatics*, entered at considerable length upon the theoretical principles of the laws of floating bodies, and have defined and illustrated some terms of frequent application in that part of the science which is chiefly of importance in the due distribution of the matter, whether of *ballast* or *load*, which forms the interior charge of a hollow body of any symmetrical figure floating on a fluid: but it is very obvious that these deductions stand in need of great modifications as soon as we apply sails to our floating vessel; and particularly when we have to accommodate its action to the various circumstances attending the motion of the waters of the ocean. If a vessel could always be ensured fine breezes and smooth water, or waves of small and regular oscillation, we should dispose the *ballast* in a very different manner from that which is now the common practice; if on the contrary, we had only to provide against squalls and heavy gales, the *ballast* would again differ very considerably both in quantity and position from that adapted to the former circumstances. But the fact is, that ships in general experience all the shades of variation between the two extremes supposed above, and we are therefore obliged to look to that proportion and disposition of the *ballast* which shall render the vessel safe in a heavy sea, without injuring her speed and due action in more moderate weather. And this we will not scruple to say, is to be learned better from practice than from the most refined theory, if indeed the latter be of any advantage whatever, (which we much doubt) unless assisted by the former. We have known instances in which vessels belonging to the Royal navy have come home with very bad characters as sailors, and in the very next voyage they have been reckoned the best of the squadron, merely from a different disposition and addition or subtraction of *ballast*; and yet not only equal skill and talent have been employed in both cases, but the same person has had the direction in both instances. There are, unquestionably, peculiarities in the form of vessels which require particular dispositions of the *ballast*, and which no general rules can reach, and no length of practice is fully competent to meet, till trial has been made of the identical vessel in question: for which reason all ships in the Royal navy are allowed a certain proportion of what is called shifting *ballast*. In making this concession however, we must beg not to be understood as meaning to disregard all rules; there are undoubtedly many which cannot be dispensed with, and the facts in which we have alluded above, are rather meant to apply to particular modifications, than to the rules themselves.

The art of ballasting a vessel consists in giving her what the sailors term as little *stiffness* as possible, provided she be not rendered too *crank*. If she be too stiff, although she may be able to carry much canvas, her rate of sailing will not be proportionally increased, while her masts are endangered by her sudden jerks and excessive labouring; and if she be too *crank*, she will bear but little sail without the danger of being

BALLAST upset. The former effect is produced by too much ballast, or by its being stowed too low; and the latter, by having too little ballast, or by raising it too high: in the first case, the centre of gravity is too much depressed, and in the second, too much elevated. Another circumstance of great importance in the practice of ballasting is, to moderate the pitching of a vessel, a motion which, more than any other, tries the strength of her fabric, and endangers the masts and rigging. She must also be prevented rolling too much; the general rule for which is, to stow the ballast, when of iron, to the floor heads; but this, if carried to too great a length, will necessarily bring the centre of gravity too high, and thus cause some of those defects which we have shewn ought always to be avoided: and thus, throughout the whole practice, as we are finding a remedy for one fault, we are in danger of running into another; and on this account it is, that so much of the final distribution of the ballast depends upon knowing well the peculiarities of the vessel; which are seldom fully appreciated till she has had to contend with all weathers.

It may be stated as a general principle, that the ballast should be placed round and near the centre of gravity of the ship, because it will prevent the pitching being so violent as it would be if it were carried much fore or aft of that point. For while a vessel is passing over a wave, she will be at one time supported below the centre of gravity; and immediately after, her head will incline downwards, or she will, as it is termed, pitch; and it is evident, that the nearer the weight is to the point over which the vessel is supported, the less violent this motion will be. But even this rule, which is one of the most obvious, will frequently stand in need of modifications: for which perhaps, as much as for any other reason, so large a quantity of shifting ballast is allowed in the Royal navy.

Formerly, the ballast of our men of war was partly iron, and partly shingle, in the proportions stated in the following table: and then the general practice was, first, to stow the iron ballast fore and aft, from bulkhead to bulkhead, in the main hold; next to fit cante, nailed on the limber strakes, on each side of the keelson, five or more inches clear of the limber boards, and winged up three or four pigs above the floor heads in the midships, or bearing part of the ship, with two tiers of pigs in the wake of the main hatchway, &c. The shingle ballast was next spread and levelled over the iron ballast, on which was stowed the lower tier of water casks, with the hungs up, and the bilge clear of the sides. The midship tiers were first laid, and the casks sunk about one quarter of their diameter into the shingle; the sides being filled in with small casks, as half hogheads, &c. But since the general introduction of iron tanks, the shingle ballast is altogether laid aside, and iron ballast only employed, the proportion of which, according to the present practice in the navy, is as stated in the second table. However, notwithstanding the official regulations here referred to, considerable deviations from it are necessary; in many cases we have known demands made for additional ballast, to the amount of one-third, and even one-half of the quantity first issued; and this not in the smaller class of vessels only, but in 74's and upwards: so that although the table in question exhibits truly the official allowance of ballast, it must not be understood as definitive.

Table of the proportion and quantity of iron and shingle ballast, as formerly adopted in the British navy.

Guns.	Tonnage.	Iron ballast.	Shingle ballast.	Guns.	Tonnage.	Iron ballast.	Shingle ballast.
110	2290	180	370	36	670	65	160
100	2090	180	370	32	700	65	140
98	2110	160	350	28	600	60	100
90	1870	160	350	24	500	50	80
80	1690	140	300	22	450	50	70
74	1500	80	270	20	400	50	60
64	1370	70	260	Sloop	300	50	40
50	1100	65	170	Brig	160	30	15
44	900	65	160	Cutter	20	Seldom	any.
38	830	70	170	Sloop	15	any.	

Table of the proportion of iron ballast, at present allowed in the navy, in comparison with the tonnage.

To all three-deckers, 4th of computed tonnage.

To two-deckers and cut frigates, 7th ditto.

To six frigates, 7th ditto.

To 22-gun ships and sloops, 4th ditto.

To brigs, sloops, &c. 4th ditto.

The smaller vessels are not submitted to the like rules; but are left to the judgment of the officers to be ballasted as circumstances may require.

In ships of the line, 16 ton of the above ballast, called shifting ballast, is moveable as circumstances may require, and half that quantity to frigates.

Frequently in yachts where room, and particularly head-way, is an object of importance, the ballast is frequently of lead, and is worked between the timbers.

BALLIAGE, a duty payable to the city of London, for the goods and merchandise of aliens, according to the charter, 16th Car. II.

BALLIUM, in *Archæologia*, the court within a fortified castle. There were generally two; the outer ballium immediately within the gates, separated by a wall from the inner ballium, which contained the apartments for the garrison and the keeper. St. Peter, in the Bailey at Oxford, stands in the outer ballium of the castle. The Old Bailey and New Bailey in London occupy similar positions in regard to the walls of that city.

BALLOON, Fr. *balon*, a little ball, or pack; also a foot-ball. Dutch, *balloon*; Ger. *ballun*; Sp. *balon*; It. *ballone*. A name given to a certain game, played with a ball, filled with wind.

Many other sports and recreations there be, much in use, as foot-ball, *bevoe*, *quintan*, &c. and many such, which are the common recreations of the country folks.

Burton. *Anat. of Mel.* p. 2. sec. II.

SIX PEE.—Faith, I was so entertained in the progress with one Count Eperoum, a Welch knight: we had a match at *baloon* too with my lord Wexham, for four crowns. * * * O, sweet lady, 'tis a strong game with the arm.

Eastward Hoe. act i. sc. I.

BALLOON, in *Chemistry*, a large, globular, glass flask with a short neck, generally used as a receiver in distillations.

BALLOON, see AERONAUTICS.

BALLIOT, v.

Ba'LIOT, n.

Ba'LIOTANE,

Ba'LIOTATION,

Ba'LIOTIN.

Fr. *balloter*; It. *ballotare*; from ball. Skinner. Applied to a particular mode of election.

BALLOT. This gag had a *balloting*-box, and *ballotted* how things should be carried, by way of *testimony*; which being not used or known in England before this account, the room every evening was very full.

BALM. The greatest of the parliament men hated this design of rotation and *balloting*, as being against their power. *Id. Ib.*

No magistrate was to continue above three years, and all to be chosen by *ballot*; than which choice nothing could be invented more fair and impartial, as 'twas then thought, though opposed by many for several reasons. *Id. Ib.*

Which don immediately before the *ballot*, and so the letter unknown to the *balloters*, they can use no fraud or juggling. *Harrington. Oceana, fol. 113*

Whereupon eight *balloties* or pages, take eight of the boxes and go four on the one, and four on the other side of the house; and every magistrate and senator holds up a little pellet of linen, as the box passes, between his finger and his thumb, that men may see he has but one, and then puts it into the same. *Id. Ib. fol. 116.*

The election of the duke of Venice is one of the most intricate and curious forms in the world; consisting of ten several precedent *ballotations*. *Reliq. Wottoniana, 260.*

Some held no way so orthodox
To try it, as the *ballot*-box.

And, like the nation's priests,
To find, or make, the truth by votes.

Butler. The Elephant in the Moon.

I am afraid, in process of time, it will introduce new inconveniences; as this manner of *balloting*, (*tacitis suffragiis*) seems to afford a sort of screen to injustice and partiality.

Metast. Flég, book iii. let. xx.

BALLOTA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Dynamis*, order *Gymnospermia*. Generic character. Calyx hypocrateriform, with five teeth, and ten stam; the upper lip of the corolla, crenate, concave.

A species of this genus, the *B. nigra*, (or black horehound) remarkable for its disagreeable odour, is very common in hedges in this country. Two other species are described, viz. the *B. lanata*, native of Siberia, and the *B. disticha*, found in India.

BALLYNAHINCH, a barony in the west of Ireland, in the county of Galway. Its ancient name was *Connamara*, (the chief tribe on the great sea.) It is a wild and mountainous district: the inhabitants on its coast make kelp, and are engaged in the sun-fish and herring fisheries; woollen stockings, called *connamara*, and blankets, are its manufactures. The people are amongst the most uncivilized in Ireland.

BALLYVARINCH, a market town in the county of Down, in Ireland, seventy-six miles from Dublin. In its neighbourhood is a sulphureo-chalybeate spring. In 1798 the rebels were defeated here on Lord Moira's demesne, after a bloody engagement, and the destruction of the greater part of the town.

BALLYNAMUCK, a small village in the county of Longford, in Ireland. Here the French troops, under General Humbert, surrendered to Lord Cornwallis in 1798.

BALM, *v.* Gr. *Balanos*, (from the Hebrew *Balm*, *s.* *Bahel* Schemen, *i.* princeps sive dominus *sic* dei. Voss.) Lat. *balanum*; Fr. *balame*, *boulme*; It. *balamo*; Goth. *balan*; A. S. *balame*, *balame*; Ger. and Swed. *balam*; Dutch, *balam*. In *Mark*, xiv. 4. the Greek *Μίρον* is in the Goth. version, *balana*, and so in *John* xii. 3d and 5th verses.

Applied to a fragrant shrub, the sap of a shrub, to fragrant ointment; to any thing fragrant, sweet

smelling, soothing, lenifying, lulling, mitigating, either literally or metaphorically.

To balm, is to wash with balm, or any thing balmy. To sweeten, soften, lull, lenify. See to **EXALM**.

In May that mother is of months glade
That fresh dews, blew, white, and red,
Ben quicks axen, that winter deud made,
And fill of summer is fitting every mead.

Chaucer. Troilus and Criseyde, fol. 158. c. ii.

And certes all the breath that went
Out of his trumpets mouth smellede

As men a potfull of rosebilde
Among a bucket full of roses.

Id. House of Fame, book iii. fol. 281. c. i.

Then flew Apollo to the fight, from the Idalian hill,
At all parts putting into act, his great commander's will.

Drew all the darts, wauld, balme'd the corns; which (deckt with ornament,
By sleep and death, those feather'd tylos,) he into Lycia sent.

Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book xvi.

But forbear to speak

Of baths, or balmeing, or of beauty, now
(The Queen replied) lest (tyring comforts) you
Discomfort much.

Id. Homer's Odyssey, book xvii.

We saw thee in thy balmy-nest,

Bright down of our eternal day;

We saw thine eyes break from the east,

And chase the trembling shades away.

Crashaw. A Hymn of the Nativity.

Thus she came to Mantell, and dyd so moche that she knewe
the truth where her father was buried; then he was dyged vp,
as 'his bones washed and beumed, and wrapped in leade, and
be set to the cyrie of Croyll.

Freisart. Chauc. v. ii. c. 155.

As the vexations which men receive from their children, hasten
the approach of age, and double the force of years, so the con-
flicts which they run from them, are fatal to all other nerves,
and dissipate the injuries of time.

Tatler, No. 169.

But as mild heaven on Eden's opening grass,
Bestow'd the balmeate dew, and brightest beams;
So whilst remotest climes thy influence share,
Britain's the darling object of thy care.

Penton. Verses on the Union.

Now swells his canvas to the sultry line,
With glittering spoils where Indian grottoes shine;
Where fumes of incense glad the southern breeze,
And wafted citron scents the balmy breeze.

Tycho. On the Prospect of Peace.

'Tis our's th' ancestral passions to control,
Pour the glad balm that heals the wounded soul;
From wealth, from power's delusive, restless dreams,
To lure your fancy to divine themes.

Leigh. Julia's Priested Letter.

Grateful is sunbath to the sportive lambs,
The balmy dews delight the nibbling dams;
But kinder warmth Ardenna's smiles impart,
A balme more rich her lessons to the heart.

Jago's Ardenna. A Pastoral.

BALM, the English name of several species of *Melesma*.

BALM OF GILEAD, the English name of the *Dracoccephalum Canariense*, or Canary dragon's head.

BALNEAL,
BALNEARY,
BALNEATION, } Lat. *balneum*. See **BAIN**.

Others attribute this balneal heat to the sun, whose all searching
beams penetrating the pores of the earth, do heat the waters.

Huvel's Letters, book i. sec. 6. let. xxxv.

And the balnearies, or bathing-places, that they may remain
under the sun until evening, he exposts unto the summer setting.
Brown. Vulgar Errors, p. 264.

BALNEAL And so as the heat may be disturbed by the skin, it may the same way be relieved; as in observable in *balneatione*, washings, and fomentations, either of the whole body, or of that part alone.

BALSAM.

BAL'SAM, See **BALM.** *Balsam*, literally, accords more limited in the application than *balm*, the latter to any thing fragrant, sweet smelling, *BAL'SAMICK*, *R.* &c.; the former to an unctuous or oily mixture.

This maister hath his coery loynte
With certein oyle and *balzam* assygnte.
Gower. Con. Am. book viii. fol. 181. c. 1.

Should I sigh out my days in grief,
And, as my beads, count miseries;
My wound would meet with no relief
For all the *balzems* of mine eyes:
I'll therefore set my heart at rest,
And of bad market make the best.

Met. Stevenson in Ellis, iii. 336.

That this herb [*rosa-solis*] is the cause thereof, shepherds affirm and deny; whether it hath a cordial vertue by sudden refection, sensible experiment doth barely confirm, but that it may have a balsamical and resumptive vertue, whereby it becomes a good medicine in cutaneous and consumptive dyspositions, practice and reason conclude.

Brown. Vulgar Errors, p. 117.

In fevers and epidemical distempers, it [tar water] is (and I have found it so) as well as in chronic diseases, a most safe and efficacious medicine, being good against too great fluidity as a balsam, and good against viscosity as a soap.

Berkley & Swit, l. 60.

Whatever the wounds of our conscience be, is not the blood of the cross, tempered with our hearty repentance, and applied by a lively faith, a sovereign balsam, of virtue sufficient to cure them!

Barrow. Sermon XXXI. vol. II.

— The Brilons separate the works
Of sedulous bees, and mixing odorous herbs
Prepare balsamic cups, to wheezing lungs
Medicinal, and short-breath'd, ancient cures.

J. Philips. Cider, book II.

This caustic venom
• • • • •

• by the drunken venous tales, that yawn
In countless pores o'er all the pensive skin
Inevitably, would poison the balsamic blood,
And rouse the heart to every fever's rage.

Armstrong. The Art of preserving Health, book I.

— That bright space
Guarded the spicy tribes from Africa's shore,
Or Ind, or Araby, Sabean plants
Weeping with urea, and balsams.

Mason. The English Garden, book IV.

Now the radical moisture is not the tallow or fat of animals but an oily and balsamous substance; for the fat or tallow, as also the plagues or watry parts are cold; whereas the oily and balsamous parts are of a lively heat and spirit.

Sterne. Tristram Shandy.

BAL'SAM-HERB, the English name of the *Justicia comata*.

BALSAM, in *Materia Medica*. The term *balsam* was formerly applied to any strong-scented, natural vegetable resin, of about the fluidity of treacle, inflammable, not miscible with water, without addition, and supposed to be possessed of many medical virtues. All the turpentine, the Peruvian *balsam*, copaiba, &c. are examples of natural balsams. Many medicines also, compounded of various resins or oils, obtained the name of balsams, as Locatelli balsam, &c. Lastly, however, the term has been restricted to those resins which contain the benzoic acid. Of

these, only three are commonly known; the gum *BALSAM*. benzoïn, *balsam* of Tolu or Peru, and storax. All the substances which have obtained the name of *balsam* will be mentioned in their respective places.

BALSAMITA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Syngenesia*, order *Polygamia Aequalis*. Generic character: receptacle naked, pappus none, calyx imbricate. Desfontaines dans les *Actes de la Société d'Histoire Naturelle de Paris*. p. 1.

This genus contains four species, the only one requiring especial notice is the *Balsamita vulgaris* (*Tenacitum Balsamita* of Linnaeus) common customary, or almost.

B. vulgaris: stem herbaceous, leaves oval, dentate; inferior petiolate; superior sessile, auriculate at the base, flowers corymbose.

It is a perennial plant, a native of the south of France and Italy; flowering in August and September. It was formerly received into the Pharmacopœia as a carminative, &c. but it is now disregarded.

BALTIC SEA, a large gulf of the North sea, which penetrates the northern part of the European continent. About the 57th degree of latitude, a narrow and winding channel opens a passage in the west coast of Europe, and gives access towards the south-east into this sea, which after expanding in width, and stretching towards the north-east through about five degrees of latitude, divides into the two gulfs of Finland and Bothnia; the former running towards the east to the vicinity of St. Petersburg, and the latter extending north till it penetrates the arctic regions. The whole length of the Baltic, including the gulf of Bothnia, therefore exceeds 600 miles, while its breadth varies from 80 to 150 miles, and its surface contains an area of 10,000 square leagues. It has Denmark, Germany and Prussia on the south; Sweden on the west; Lapland on the north-east; Bothnia, Finland and Russia on the east. The northern part of the strait by which it communicates with the ocean, on the south-west, is called the Scagger-rack, the middle consists of the Great and Little Belts, and the southern of the Cattegat. This entrance to the Baltic is sometimes called the Sound. Near Pillau and Memel it is also connected by narrow passages with two large lakes, called the Frische Haff, and Curische Haff. The general depth of the Baltic is from fifteen to twenty fathoms; in some places it is much less, and in others a little more; and its greatest depth is supposed not to exceed fifty fathoms. The proximity of the coasts and islands, the shallowness of the waters, the flatness of the Prussian shore, the ruggedness of the Swedish, with the frequent and sudden changes of the wind, render the navigation of the Baltic dangerous. As in other inland seas, the tides are scarcely perceptible, but a strong current generally sets into the ocean, unless when checked by a strong west wind, which forces the water in a contrary direction through the straits, and causes the Baltic to rise above its usual level. The waters of this sea are said to be colder and less salt than those of the North sea. From its freshness and deficiency of tides, with other causes, it is generally frozen for about three months in the year, not merely near the islands and shores, or only so much as to prevent navigation, but so completely as sometimes to admit of a passage over the ice from one country to another. Many instances are recorded in which it has been

BALTIC SEA.

BALTIC
SEA.

crossed in this manner. So late as February 1814, Mr. James went from the coast of Sweden to Finland in a sledge. The passage was effected by the island of Åland, between which and the Swedish shore there is a channel of at least forty English miles in breadth. The route afterwards lay through a chain of islands which partially connects Åland with the Finnish coast. In reference to this passage, Mr. J. says, "Our road was an undeviating line from place to place, no obstacle presenting itself; we passed over the fields, through the woods, across the ice; hill and dale, land and water, were all alike; sometimes we traversed the rocky channel of a deep bedded river, at other times wandered among the inlets of a lake, at others again steered our way between the islands over the sea." In the southern part, the ice generally breaks up in April, but the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland are seldom clear before the middle of May. The Baltic receives numerous rivers, which not only contribute to its freshness, but together with the diminished evaporation of these high latitudes, produce the current through the entrance, already mentioned. Some of the largest of these streams are the Vistula, the Pregel, the Dvina, the Memel, the Oder, the Torneo, the Lulea, the Umea, the Daln, and the Motila. It has been stated that the earthy particles conveyed into the bed of the Baltic, by the rivers and other means, causes the depth of that sea to diminish at the rate of about four feet in a century. Mr. Von Buch, in his late *Traut's in Sweden and Lapland*, remarks, in reference to the west side of the Bothnian gulf, "the sea bays have become marshes, from the continual decrease of the Bothnian gulf; and we may soon expect to see fields and cottages on the surface now occupied by the gulf."

Numerous islands are sprinkled over the Baltic sea. Besides those which constitute the seat of the Danish government, the following may be enumerated, Åland and the group which separate the gulf of Bothnia from the Baltic; Dago and Oesel, are near the shore of Livonia; Oeland and Gotland belong to Sweden; Rugen to Pomerania; and Bornholm, Falster, Moen, Læsland, Åsen, and several other smaller ones belong to the Danes. Though fish are less abundant in the Baltic than in many parts of the North sea, a considerable fishery is carried on near some of its coasts. M. Fischer, a naturalist of Livonia enumerates nearly fifty different species in the waters of that province. The principal of these, at least in a commercial point of view, are salmon, streamlings, pike, and lampreys. The fish obtained in the gulf of Finland are chiefly sterlets, salmon, and carp. Sturgeon are sometimes caught in the gulf of Cronstadt. Vast quantities of the smaller species of fish caught in the gulfs, in the eastern parts of this sea, are transported in pierced vessels to St. Petersburg; and in winter the larger kinds are sent to the same market in a frozen state.

When it is considered that the Baltic washes the shores of Denmark, Sweden, Russia, Prussia, and a part of Germany, its importance in the commerce of northern Europe will be readily acknowledged. One peculiar production of this sea is the amber that is usually thrown on the coasts of Prussia and Courland by the tempests which sometimes agitate it. This substance is also found in beds near Pillau, at the depth of 90 or 100 feet. All the vessels that pass in or out of the Baltic pay a certain duty to the Danish

government, which has been guaranteed to that power by all the commercial nations of Europe, for maintaining lighthouses, &c. This occasions these vessels to be registered as they pass Elsinore, a port on the Danish side; from which account it appears that the number in 1816 and 1817, showing the comparative state of the Baltic commerce for these years, were,

BALTIC
SEA.
BALTI-
MORE.

In 1816,

	From the North sea.	From the Baltic.
American	83	85
Bremen	55	56
Danish	408	379
Dutch	473	403
English	942	908
French	8	8
Hamburgh	18	18
Hanover	113	111
Lubeck	23	22
Mecklenburg	126	127
Norwegian	396	398
Oldenborg	16	13
Pappenburg	22	17
Portuguese	25	23
Prussian	525	489
Rostock	65	68
Russian	308	191
Spanish	5	4
Swedish	1097	945
	4608	4963
		4604

Total number that passed the Sound } 8871
in 1816

In 1817,

	From the North sea.	From the North sea.
American	68	212
Bremen	11	169
Danish	463	470
Dutch	695	917
English	2084	197
French	23	104
Hamburgh	42	360
	3389	3369
		3389

Total number of vessels from the North sea 6758
From the Baltic

Total number of ships that passed the } 13,148
Sound in 1817

BALTIMORA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Syngeusia*, order *Polygamia Necessaria*. Generic character: receptacle paleaceous; pappus none; calyx cylindrical, of many leaves; radius of five florets.

This genus is allied to *Milleria*, it contains but one species, a native of Maryland in the United States.

BALTIMORE, a county of Maryland, in the United States of America, bounded on the north by

BALTI-
MORE.

Pennsylvania; east by Hartford county and Chesapeake bay; south by Anne Arundel county; and north-west by Frederick county. Baltimore county is watered by several rivers, and contains many iron works. The number of inhabitants in 1818 was stated at 75,810; of whom 10,369 were slaves.

BALTIMORE, a city and port of entry in Baltimore county, North America, situated on the north side of the Patuxent river, about fourteen miles above its entrance into Chesapeake bay. It is thirty-seven miles north-east of Washington, and one hundred south-west of Philadelphia. Baltimore has experienced a more rapid increase both in size and population than any other city in America. It contained only about fifty houses in 1765, and was first raised to the dignity of a city in 1797, though it is now the third in size in the United States, and is supposed to contain nearly 70,000 inhabitants. It is well situated for commerce, and is a place of great opulence, possessing most of the trade of Maryland, with a great portion of that of the back country of Pennsylvania, and the western states. The vessels belonging to the port in 1790 amounted to 13,564 tons; in 1816 they had risen to 101,980 tons. The number of ships that entered the port in the last-mentioned year, was 533 from foreign countries, and 401 coastwise. This city is built round a basin, which affords a spacious and secure harbour, with eight or nine feet water at common tides. A small river divides Baltimore into two parts, called the town and Fell's point, which are connected by bridges. Vessels of 500 or 600 tons arrive at the wharfs at this point, while those of 900 tons come up to the town. The mouth of the harbour is narrow, and well defended by a fort. The town is well supplied with water from a perennial spring within the city.

Baltimore contains a court house, a penitentiary, a jail, an almshouse, a hospital, a theatre, an exchange, a museum, a gallery of paintings, and a public library, possessing about 10,000 volumes. Besides these there are ten banks, and thirty-one places for public worship, belonging to nearly all the denominations of religious professors to be found in the United States. The exchange is a vast pile of building, very lately erected, 366 feet in length by 140 in breadth, comprising four wings. The Roman Catholic cathedral, the Unitarian church, lately finished, St. Paul's church, the court house, and the Union bank, are all spacious and elegant structures. The Washington monument is another ornament to this city. It stands in an elevated situation, at a short distance above the compact part of the town. The base is fifty feet square, and twenty-three high, on which is placed another square of about half the same size and elevation. Upon this stands a column of twenty feet diameter at the bottom, and fourteen at the top, on which the statue of Washington is placed, 163 feet from the ground. The city is in general well built, most of the houses are of brick, and many of those lately erected display considerable taste. Some of the streets are spacious, one of them in particular is about a mile long, and eighty feet wide, running east and west, nearly parallel to the water. The ground on the north and east of the city rises to a considerable elevation, and with the number of ships in the harbour forms a scene of great interest.

Nor are the literary and scientific institutions of Baltimore unworthy of attention. St. Mary's college

was incorporated as a university in 1806, and is well endowed. Its buildings are composed of brick, but neatly executed. It has a good library with a philosophical and chemical apparatus; and now is under the management of a president, one professor of divinity, one of moral, and one of natural, philosophy, one of the belles lettres, four of languages and mathematics, besides eight assistant tutors. The number of students is generally about 140; but they are admitted at a much earlier age than in the universities of England. The medical college was founded in 1807. It received a new charter in 1812, when it was designated the university of Maryland, and was authorised to annex the other faculties of languages, arts and sciences, law and divinity, to that of physic; but the medical department was the only one lately in operation. The building is spacious and elegant, and the instruction is under the direction of a provost and six professors of anatomy, &c. There is also another literary institution, called the Baltimore college. Four daily, and one weekly newspaper, are published at Baltimore. A great number of flour mills, forges, &c. are placed on the stream, within a few miles of the town, which add greatly to its trade. A formidable attack was made on the city by the British troops under General Ross in 1814, but they were repulsed and their commander slain; and a handsome stone structure, called the Bettle monument, has been erected to commemorate this event. Latitude $39^{\circ} 17'$ and longitude $76^{\circ} 36'$.

BALUSTER, *Fr. balustrade; Span. balustrero, balustrada.* It. *balustrata, dalla forma simile alla* BALUSTRADE. *It. balustrata (from the Gr. βαλυστρον, the flower or blossom of the pomegranate); balustrato, si dice certa colonnetta, che regge l'architrave del balafato. (Vedi. La Crusca.)* Menage.

If he describes a house, he shows the face,
And after walks you round from place to place;
Here is a vista, there the doors unfold,
Balconies here are balustrated with gold;
Then counts the rounds and ovals in the balls.

Dryden. The Art of Poetry, c. 1.

He'd then, perchance, of sets that daily claim
Thy renovating labour, thou wilt form,
With elm and oak, a rustic balustrade
Of finest juniper: happy could thy toil
Make it as fair as firm: yet vain the wish,
Aim but to hide, not grace, its formal line.

Mason. The English Garden, book II.

BALUSTRA, in Architecture, a small column used chiefly on terraces, tops of buildings, and frontages. It is corruptly pronounced *baluster*. Balusters when continued form a balustrade.

BAMBA, the largest province of the kingdom of Congo, in Lower Guinea, in Africa. It occupies 150 miles of coast, from the river of Ambriz to that of Coanza. It is little cultivated; but its inhabitants, who are brave and robust, carry on an extensive trade in slaves. Its wooded mountains are said to contain mines of copper and silver, and to abound in wild beasts. Bamba, its principal town, is thirty leagues inland. The other chief towns are Panza or Panga, in a plain between the rivers Ambriz and Loze, and Mossula or Marnoula, a place sometimes visited by European traders.

BAMBARRA, one of the more powerful and extensive states in Nigritia, or the Sudda. It is placed between 12° and 18° N. lat. and from the meridian of London about 2° W. The Sahra, or great Desert,

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bounds it on the north; Tombukto and Baḍū on the east; Kaḥba and Kongon on the south; and Fāhūd, Kaarta, and Luḍamar on the west. It is little known to Europeans, having been visited only by Mungo Park and by Mr. Docherd, whose account of it is not yet published. It is watered by the majestic, and, we may add, mysterious Joliba, and is extremely fertile and populous. Park estimates the population of Ségō, the capital, Jenni and Samsending (or Sang-sangli) at 30, 20, and 10,000 souls respectively; and a remarkable evidence of the populousness of this country, is the great abundance of slaves, who are *Bambārda*, or natives of Bambārda. Golberry (l. 303.) mentions this as being the case on the coast, and we observed it ourselves in a very remote quarter. The king is a Negro, and a Pagan; but the Mohammedan religion is making a rapid progress, and many of the chiefs profess it. The Mussulmen have all the fanaticism of their neighbours the Herbers, and the Negroes are as good-humoured and kind-hearted as that race usually are elsewhere. Slaves, cotton cloths, and butter from the shē tree, (a species of *Bassia*), and gold (brought from Bambūc), are the chief articles of commerce. Rice, cotton, Jutes, and indigo, afford plentiful crops. The Joliba is navigable throughout this kingdom, and is crossed in large canoes. The low shrubby ground near the water's edge is infested by lions, and therefore is uninhabited; but the hills above are covered with Negro villages. Of the industry of the inhabitants Mr. Park gives a very interesting account. They manufacture tolerable soap from shē butter, they tan sheep and goat skins, smelt iron, are pretty good smiths, and make a sort of beer of durrah, (*Sorghum vulgare*), and the lotus-berries, (*Ziziphus lotus*). The land about Kabba was so well cultivated, as to remind Mr. Park of England. Their language is a dialect of the far-spread Mandingo.

This kingdom was scarcely known by name to Europeans in the earlier part of the last century. Mouette, in his *History of Mouley Arché*, (Môlāi Rashid), tells us, that when Sidi Ali, the Morabit, who reigned at Sés, was obliged to fly into Nigritia, he took refuge with the king of Bambārda, and raised an army of Negroes, whom he led into the empire of Morocco. This essentially enabled Môlāi Ismail, the successor of Rashid, (Arché), to make the conquest of Tombukto. Thence arose the influence of the Moors over the Negro countries. Their conversion to the religion of Mahomet is probably of modern date, as they were not known to the older Arabian travellers. The favourable reception which they gave to Mungo Park, and still more the treatment which Mr. Docherd experienced, during a residence of several months on the banks of the Joliba, were calculated to encourage the hope that we might see a friendly intercourse established between Ségō and the coast. This hope seems now likely to be soon realized; for, in March 1820, Mr. O'Beirne, who had been sent by the governor of Sierra Leone on a mission to the Almāmi (Imām) of Timbū, found there an envoy from Dhāa, king of Ségō, sent to apologise to the governor for the detention of Mr. Docherd. Lieutenant Lang, of the 2d West India regiment, offered to accompany this envoy back to Ségō; but whether he was able to fulfil his intentions we have not yet learned. The envoy quitted Sierra Leone for Fūth Jallon, in July 1821. (Park's *Travels*; Golberry's *Fragment*, l. ch. xi.; Mouette,

Hist. de Mouley Arché, 1833, p. 70; *Sierra Leone Gazette*.

BAMBERG, an ancient bishopric in the circle of Franconia, which now forms the greater part of the Bavarian circle of the Meine, and part of that of Rezat. In the former constitution of Germany, the bishop was always director of the circle of Franconia. He stood immediately under the Pope, enjoyed the privileges of an archbishop, and was the fourth among the spiritual princes of the empire. This bishopric existed from 1007, when the emperor Henry II. created his chancellor the first bishop of Bamberg, till it was secularized and assigned to Bavaria in 1803. The diocese included 1430 square miles, and more than 200,000 inhabitants. The number of towns was nineteen. The bailiwicks exceeded fifty, and the villages and hamlets were estimated at 1200. The soil is fertile, the forests produced a large revenue, and the manufactures were flourishing; these chiefly consisted of cloth and iron. The whole of the bishopric was transferred to Bavaria at the above date, and is supposed to yield about £150,000. a year to the crown, including the secularized convents, some of which were very rich.

Bamano, a city of Bavaria, the capital of the preceding province, and the chief town in the circle of the Meine. It stands on the Regnitz, which falls into the Meine a little below the town. This function promotes its commerce, which is extensive in comparison with many other inland towns of Germany. Bamberg is a large town, partly encompassed by walls and ditches, and containing about 90,000 inhabitants. Having so long been a noted ecclesiastical city, it still contains many interesting objects. Among these are the university, and the library that belonged to the Carmelite monastery. The university was first founded as an academy, by bishop Otto, in 1147; but was raised to the title and dignity of a university in 1739, by another of the bishops. It was converted into a Lyceum, in 1802, in conformity with the fashion of the times, but without undergoing any material alteration in its former constitution. The library contains about 14,000 printed books, besides several valuable manuscripts. As in nearly all towns so long under papal influence, the ecclesiastical edifices, and the hospitals, are all good buildings, though most of the monasteries and nunneries have now been suppressed. Bamberg is, however, a see of one of the Bavarian archbishops; and is particularly noted for the excellent vegetables that are produced in its neighbourhood, and with which it supplies many other places. It suffered greatly by war, both during the seven years' conflict, when it was twice subjected to heavy contributions by the Prussians, and since that period by the French. Lat. 49° 36' N. and longitude 10° 35' E.

BAMBUSA, BAMBOO, or BAMBA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Hexandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: scales covering three sepals, of about five flowers. Calyx none. Corolla glume of two valves. Style bifid. Seed none.

Only two species of this genus are described by Willdenow; of these the most generally known is the *Bambusa arundinacea*, or common Bamboo cane.

B. arundinacea, panicle ramose divaricate.

This plant, which is a native of India, was first cultivated in this country in the year 1750, by Mr. Philip Miller; it requires the heat of the stove.

BAM-
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BAM-
BOOZLE.BAMBOOZLE. } Not in our old lexicographers.
BAMBOOZLES. } Serenitas has,

BAMBOC.

To bam, or bamboozle; *deisidero*; but he offers no

etymology.

To deicide, to mislead, to cheat, to cozen, to deceive, to beguile.

After Nic. had bamboozled John while about the 18,000 and the 20,000, John called for counters; but what with slight of hand, and taking from his own score, and adding to John's, Nic. brought the balance always on his own side.

Swift. *Hist. of John Bull.*

There are a set of fellows they call banterers and bamboozlers, that play such tricks.

Archibald.

This whimsical phenomenon,

Confoundeth all my pen and mine,

Bamboozles the account again,

And draws me volens volens in.

King. *The Stantham Black.*

But says I, Sir, I perceive this is to you all bamboozling; why you look as if you were Don Diego'd to the tune of a thousand pounds.

Tatler, No. 31.

BAMBOROUGH, or BAMBURGH, a town of great antiquity, on the coast of Northumberland. It sent members to parliament in 1294, and was rich enough in the reign of Edward III. to furnish a ship for the siege of Calais. It had a monastery of Austin Friars, and one also of Friars preachers. In the church is a cross-legged figure, which tradition assigns to that hero of romance, Sir Launcelot de Lake. The entire parish, which is of great extent, contained in 1821 3542 inhabitants. Bamborough castle stands upon a triangular rock, high, rugged and abrupt towards the land. The cliff towards the sea is 150 feet in height. The fortress is accessible only on the south-east; and here it is protected by a deep dry ditch, and a series of towers. The site was probably that of a Roman fortress, for denarii of Vespasiana have been found among the ruins: but the castle now existing was built by Ida, first king of the Northumbrians, A. D. 548. The Keep also has been supposed to be a Roman work. It is a ponderous square tower, of great strength, without a chimney, and warmed from a central hearth. It was here that Edward I. before his invasion of Scotland, summoned Baliol to meet him; and here for a time his unhappy successor secreted his minion Gaveston. Nathaniel Lord Crewe, bishop of Durham, purchased the castle and estates; and at his death, in 1720, bequeathed them to trustees for charitable purposes. Within its walls are now to be found a school, a valuable library, an infirmary, which receives more than 1000 patients yearly, and a dispensary. More than thirty beds are provided for shipwrecked sailors; and the coast for a distance of eight miles is patrolled on stormy nights. The poor here find a market, in which the most necessary articles are sold at prime cost.

BAMBÚC, a Negro state to the west of Bambarra, between 13° and 15° N. lat. and 9° and 11° W. long.: bounded on the west by the Falcine, which falls into the Senegal; and on the east by the Bâ-fing, or Senegal itself; it has Wounded on the south, and Kajnaga on the north. The little which is known of this state is derived from a Frenchman named Compagnon, who passed a year and a half there in the beginning of the last century. (Labat, *Afrique Occidentale*, iv. 1.) No country in the world, perhaps, is so well watered as this, which is consequently extremely moist and

fertile, though placed under a vertical sun. This union of heat and moisture renders it more fatal to Europeans than almost any other tropical region; and accounts for its having continued upwards of three centuries in a state of independence. For, besides fertility of soil, beauty of scenery, and facilities of intercourse with the coast, which would render it a desirable possession, it possesses beneath the surface of its soil a greater abundance of gold than almost any other known country, and is the centre of the gold trade in that part of Africa. Such a stimulus could not fail to attract the attention of the European powers. The Portuguese, according to traditions current among the natives, once possessed themselves of the whole country; but their numbers were soon reduced by disease, and the inhabitants repaid their cruelties by a tremendous vengeance, rising in a mass, and massacring all the remainder of their invaders in one day. The French, from the time of their first establishment on the Senegal, had always a hankering after the gold mines of Bambúe, but were thwarted in their projects by the unhealthiness of the climate, and the resolution of the inhabitants. These latter are of the Mandingo race, zealous Mohammedans, and among the most civilized of the Negro tribes. They understand the art of extracting and working their metals. The country is divided into three parts, Bambúe, Satabb, and Kookodá; each of which has its own sirdic or chief, whose power scarcely goes beyond a right to assemble the heads (cabociras) of the villages by whom the aristocracy is formed; for it may be observed, that the government of all the Negro states consists in an aristocracy more or less powerful. It is remarkable that they will not tolerate any moribund (priests) in their country. That they should be unwilling to allow strangers to settle there is natural enough, after what their forefathers suffered from the Portuguese. The cultivation of their soil, which of course furnishes them with all the tropical productions, the management of their cattle, and the working their mines, are their chief occupations. The mountains of Tamba-úra, which give rise to the numerous streams falling into the Falcine and Senegal, are the district in which gold abounds; but the most productive mine is that of Natakú, an isolated hill, 300 feet high, and about a mile in circumference, at a considerable distance from that chain. The gold is found in pits from twenty to twenty-five feet deep, of which there are 1200. They are only worked in the dry season: the descent is gradual; but these pits often fall in for want of props, and bury the miners: the gold dust is washed and sifted by the women; the coarser gravel is full of iron ore. There are other gold mines at Semadé, Nambis, Combadiré, or Combadiré; and the Moors receive their produce in exchange for salt. Hospitality is in great esteem among the natives of Bambúe; but they are accused of laziness, cruelty, and perfidy. Their country however is so little known, and the accounts of it are so exposed to suspicion, that it would be unfair to form any decided opinion on their general character. (Park's *Travels*; *Voyage à Bambouk*, (par Coate) 1789; Golberry, *Fragments d'un Voyage en Afrique*, l. 376; Labat, *Nouvelle Relation de l'Afrique Occidentale*, iv.; Mollien, *Voyage dans l'Intérieur de l'Afrique*, l. 531.)

BAMIAN, (Bâniyân) an ancient city, eight days journey to the N. W. of Cábúl, and about half as far to

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the west of Ghaznah (Ghizni) lat. 34° 30' N. long. 66° 57' East. It consists of grottoes, or caverns, excavated from an isolated mountain, some of which are still inhabited. Some of them are adorned with carved work and sculptures; and in many the remains of paintings may be traced. This city was once the head quarters of Budd'hism, and is still called, by the followers of Budd'hā, Vāmiyān, i. e. "the most beautiful and excellent." "From the veneration paid there to Budd'hā," says Mr. Wilford, (*As. Res.* vi. 463.) "it was called Budd'h Vāmiyān, and maliciously corrupted by the Musselmān into But-Bāmiyān, 'idolatrous Bāmiyān.' The most curious of all the ancient monuments in this 'eastern Thebes' are two colossal statues, hewn out of the rock and standing *in alto relievo* against the wall of the niches in which they are enshrined. They are visible at a great distance, being at least 75 feet in height. A third statue, of less colossal dimensions, being only fifteen cubits high, stands at a small distance off. The orthodox Hindus say they represent B'hima and his family; the Budd'hists maintain that they are Shāhānā and his disciples Sālsāh; while the Musselmān swear that they are no other than Adam and Eve, in the shape of Cūyūmān and his consort. Between these conflicting opinions, it would be presumptuous to decide without plates, at least, of the statues. These Mr. Wilford has not given; and we shall therefore wave all further consideration of the disputed points, and merely observe, that a door, between the legs of the largest, opens into a temple still served by a few wretched Brāhmanas.

Bāmiyān is noticed by Ibn Hūdāl in the tenth century, and we learn from Hājī Khalīfah that it "is in long. 104° 30' lat. 35° 30', a small city upon a mountain with a strong fortress. Its territory is extensive, placed midway between Khorāsān and Ghāzr; ten jornadas from Balkh. A river rising near it runs towards Ghuriyān, passes by Ghaznah and joins the Jāhūd. It has no gardens; all its vegetables are brought from the neighbourhood. The author of the *Noz'hā* says its air is cold. It was entirely ruined by Jengiz, at the time of the Moghōl invasion, and then called Māsa bālik, and was forbidden to be rebuilt; but it was again peopled some time afterwards. There are many villages in its territory, and some towns. The author of the *Noz'hā* reckons Bāmiyān among the dependencies of Balkh; but it is much nearer to Ghaznah and Cābal." (*Jehānnūmā*, p. 238.) This is sufficient to show that Bāmiyān was a place of some consequence in the beginning of the thirteenth century; and that the surrounding country contains many of these ancient excavations, cannot be doubted; for they are mentioned in the *Ayn Akbarī* (l. 168.) and other Persian books, as well as by Mr. Wilford's informers, whose truth cannot be so securely relied upon. The actual existence of some of these sculptures is also noticed by Mr. Elphinstone (*Caucul*, 153. 316. 487.) and they well deserve a careful examination. That they are of Indian origin, and were made in honour of Budd'hā seems highly probable from what has been stated above; and it is not impossible that a further acquaintance with the ancient monuments still existing in the neighbourhood of Balkh, might solve some of the intricacies in the early history of India.

BAMPTON, anciently called *Bathram-ton* and *Bath-ern-ton*, a small town over the river Bathern in Devonshire. It was a Roman station, and its name

has been deduced from a compound of *Bath* and *therme*. Here is a strong chalybeate spring. The living is a vicarage. The town formerly sent members to parliament. Population, in 1821, 1633. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 4s. 2d. 1090. Is. 8d. Here is a manufactory of serges.

BAN, v.

Ger. *bannen*, *bann*; a word of very various applications. (See Wachter, *Bannino*.) Ihre, Kilian, and Messing; Sax. *bannan*, *abannan*; which Sommer interprets,—to command; to publish, to proclaim; to call forth, summon, congregate, or call together. Hence also he adds, *bannes* of marriage; and the Fr. *baner*; the It. *bandire*; Eng. *banish*; Goldast (a name of no great weight perhaps, see Bayle,) derives *bann*, *coactio imperantis*, from *bann*, *vinculum*, from *binder*, *vincere*. This, however, is rejected by Wachter, who asserts that from *bann*, *princeps*, comes *bannes*, to compel by imperial authority; whether by commanding, forbidding, summoning, punishing, restricting, exacting, publishing, declaring the law, or by any other means belonging to those in power. With respect to the *bannes* of marriage, there appears little difficulty; to publish them, is to publish the *bonds*, *bonds* or obligations of matrimony into which the parties enter. So also to *bann*; may he to *bann*, bind, or oblige; to impose any obligation; to exercise any obligatory or compulsory power, or authority, or jurisdiction; to command to do or not to do; to forbid, to prohibit, to throw any restraint by proscription or interdiction; to expel from any society or communion, to *banish*, to excommunicate, to excommunicate.

Of ye rounde table ys ban aboute he sende,
Just echis a Wytemayntid to carlon wende.

R. Gloucetter, p. 187.

He ran his slouthes far to banne,
But it was to late channe.

Over. Conf. Am. book iv.

Than Peter being more strayed began not onely to sinne and forsake Jesus, but also to excommunicate and ban himselfe, if ever he knewe the manne.

Uell. Matthew, cap. xxvi.

And contrarywise, when they shone vponished, and when the ruler, leue no respect vna equite or honestie, then God sendeth his curse among them, as hunger, death, mourning, banishing, pestilence, warre, oppression.

Tyndall's Wches, fol. 10. c. li.

His foes doe wake by day
they dread to sleepe the night;
They banne the sunne, they curse the moone,
and all that shee giue light.

Turverville. Epitaph, &c.

Furthermore, who is ther that is not afraid of all maledictions and cursed execrations; and especially when the names of the infernall fiends or unbelike soules are used in such *bannings*.

Holland's Plinur, ii. 296.

Fuc. A plugging mischief light on Charley, and these,
And may ye both be suddenly surpris'd

By bloody bands, in sleeping on your beds.

Yonke. Fell bannings legge, inebriate hold thy tongue.

Shakespeare. Henry VI. part i. fol. 115.

At illerty I set, and see
Them, that have not laugh'd me to scorn,
Whip'd with the whip that scourged me,
And now they see that they were borne.

Ellis. Unconquered authors, li. 96.

Wherefore Homer the poet, among the carings & banings that he giueth unto certain men, putteth this for one of the sort: I pray God (saith he) their wises might needful with other men.

Poet. Inscr. Christ. Woman.

And here upon my knee, striking the earth,
I see their souls in everlasting pain,
And extreme tortures of the fiery deep,
That thus have dealt with me in my distress.

Marlowe. The Jew of Malta, act i.

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Besides this condemnation, they detested also, that all the religious priests and women should ban and accurse him. But hereunto answered one of the men called Threano, the daughter of Meano, of the village of Agraulis, saying that she was professed religious, to pray and to bless, not in curse and ban.

North's Plutarch, fol. 174.

Hold dord then ban preum's, adrentum Eve,
And perit great provok't, who thus hath dar'd
Had it been only coveting to eye
That sacred frisk, sacred to abstinence,
Much more to taste it under banne to touch.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book ix.

BANNS, of marriage.

Thus crieth he out tyo al y^r church, and sayth they forbode al matrimony, because they forbode the banes betwene freens and sunnes.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 434.

Be for ever her's,
As she is yours, and heaven increase your comforts.
AMET. Chloridia hath play'd the churchman's part;
I'll not forbid the ban.

Men. Are you contented?
Ford. The Lover's Melancholy, act v. sc. 1.

I presse me none but good house-holders, yeomen's sonnes: enquire me out contracted butchers, such as had bene ask'd twice on the banes; such a commodity of warme blouses, as had as lice hear the drull, as a drumme.

Shakespeare. Henry IV. part i. fol. 67. c. i.

In England, all marriages celebrated without the regular publication of bans in the parish church, where either of the parties, not being either a widow or widower, is under the age of twenty-one, and celebrated without the consent of the father, or if he is dead, of the mother and guardians,—are null, and the children of such marriage are illegitimate.

Beattie. Moral Science, p. 3. c. i.

Among the variety of applications all deducible from its primary meaning, Ban signified a solemn assembly of the nobility to attend the king in arms, summoned by proclamation. *Arrer ban* (corruptly rear ban) was an assembly of vassals summoned in like manner to attend their lord on pain of outlawry. *Ban* was also used as a proclamation forbidding intercourse with an enemy. To be put under the *bans* of the empire in the ancient German constitution, was to be interdicted from all intercourse with society; a sentence modelled on the Roman exclusion from fire and war. The imperial ban was directed against cities as well as persons, and deprived those who incurred it of all their dignities and privileges.

BANBURY, a borough which returns one member to parliament. It was a Roman station, and stands on the river Cherwell in Oxfordshire. The church is a vicarage in the patronage of the bishop of Oxford. Population, in 1621, 3396. Poor's rates, in 1603, £2019. 2s. 6d. In the year 1469, the Lancastrians reached Banbury with an army of 15,000 men. The earls of Pembroke and Devonshire were sent by Edward IV. to meet them. It is said that the generals quarrelled about their quarters; and the latter earl being forced to relinquish those in which he had fixed himself in the graces of a fair inhabitant, quitted the town in disgust. Pembroke encountered the insurgents on a spot called Dnesmore. He was defeated, and behended after the battle, with many other persons of distinction. The castle of Banbury was successfully defended for Charles I. in 1644, by Sir William Compton. Two years afterwards it was compelled to surrender, but not until it had maintained a ten weeks siege. The town was favourable to the parliament, and was afterwards distinguished for its sectarian spirit. Ben Jonson, in his

Bartholomew fair, has made the Puritan, Zeal-of-the-land-busy, a Banbury man; and a whimsical anecdote arising from this reputation of the town, is authenticated by a memorandum in the handwriting of Camden. When Holland was employed in translating the *Britannica*, Camden visited the printing office, and found that to his own observation, that Banbury was famous for cheese, the translator had added cakes and ale. Thinking this remark too trifling, he changed the last word into *zeal*; and this gave much unintentional offence. In his MS. supplement to the *Britannica* in the Bodleian library, is the following note, "Put out the word *zeal* in Banbury, where some think it a disgrace, when as *zeal* with knowledge is the greatest grace among good Christians: for it was first foisted in by some compositor or pressman; neither is it in my Latin copy, which I desire the reader to hold as authentic." If Shakespeare may be trusted, Banbury was not so famous for cheese as Camden would represent. In the *Merry Wives of Windsor*, act i. scene 1. where Slender calls Bardolph, Nym and Pistol "cony-catching rascals," the first retorts on him, "you Banbury cheese."

BANCA, an island in the Indian ocean, between 1° 21' and 3° 4' S. lat. 105° 30' and 107° E. long. separated from Sumatra by a strait of the same name. This island is about 130 miles long, and from 30 to 40 broad: mountainous and woody, and producing tin in very large quantities: there are seven mines, which give employment to 20,000 men. The miners are a Chinese colony, nominally under the direction of the sultan of Palembang, but in reality working for the profit of the Dutch East India company. Tin to the amount of 2,000,000 of pounds is annually obtained. It is considered by the Chinese, who are the principal purchasers, as more valuable than the English tin, and it is therefore preferred by them. The metallic sand is said to give about 70 per cent., and the mines yielded an annual profit of £150,000. to the company. Very little is sent to Europe; and the Chinese are so skilful in adulterating it, as to deceive any but an experienced eye. This island, which had been captured by our forces during the war, with the rest of the Dutch possessions in the East Indies, was given up at the peace of 1814. It had been formally ceded to us by Najunudin, sultan of Palembang in 1812, on condition of his being placed under the protection of Great Britain; but this stipulation was disregarded by the Dutch authorities in Java, in 1818; and they have since that period been at war with the sultan, whose territory they threatened with an invasion.

The straits of Banca afford a safe passage, with a favourable monsoon; but as shoal water sometimes occurs, and there are occasionally coral reefs, they require great care and attention on the part of the navigator. The Banca islands in 2° 22' S. lat. and 105° 41' E. long. afford shelter from S.W. by S. to N.W. with a plentiful supply of water and fuel. (Hamilton's *Gazetteer. Asiatic Journal*, vii. 306.)

BAND, v. } Band, the noun, upon which
BAND, n. } verb, to band, is formed, is the past
BANDAGE, } part of the verb, to bind; (A. S.
BANDON, } binden, figure, nodare, vincire, obligare,
BAND-DOG. } to tie, to knit, to bind. (Sommer.)
To tie, fasten, unite, join, yoke together. To be in, or yield to bondage, i. e. bonds or bondage. To join or unite together; to confederate for one common

BAN-
BURY.
—
BAND.

BAND. purpose. *Band*, in our old writers, is frequently written *bande*. See **BANDS**.

*Ritner vs if ye wille mak obsequious,
But I be your aller brother, & ye in my bandous,
But not saile ojer, no consent to reason.*
R. Branne, p. 162.

*Richesse a robe of purple on had
And purtrid in the rismalings
Of dukes stories, and of kings
And with a head of gold tawiled
And knoppes fine of gold smiled.*
Chaucer. The Rem. of the Rose, fol. 121. c. ii.

*For evermore I fynde a lette,
The hottier is not my frende,
Wiche hath the key by the hande.*
Gower. Con. Am. book vi.

Let vs break the sides of this, & let vs cast of y^e yoke of this.
St. Thomas More's Works, fol. 12.

*And have practised sorcery and witchcrafts, contrary to y^e
honour and love of god, not without making some bande or com-
pact with the wicked spirites the archie enemy to God, whome they
have scorned, and obeyed.*
Udell. Rev. c. xxi.

*The emperor, and his barounes,
Yethills becom to thy lawdounes,
With body and chaitel, ayth and forre,
To helpe thee to thy worre!*
A. Alasander, in Weber, l. 132.

*Veto such as will be like swine, we must yoke the for breking
hedges, and ringe them for wroing, and have bandingagger to
dryve them out of this comen with lryng, and leade them out by
the eares.*
St. Thomas More's Works, fol. 586.

*And when it was day, certain of the Jews banded together, and
bound themselves under a curse, saying; that they would neither
eat nor drink till they had killed Paul.*
Blott. Acts, c. xxiii. v. 13

*Mean while th' Eternal eyes, whose sight discernes
Abstracted thoughts from forth his holy mount,
And from within the golden lamps that burne
Nightly before him, saw without their light
Rebellion rising, saw in whom, how sped
Among the sons of men, what multitudes
Were banded to oppose his high decrees.*
Milton. Paradise Lost, book v.

*And thus to Stanley said, in Richard's name;
"My lord, the king salutes you, and commands
That to his ayde you bring your ready band,
Or else he swares by Him who sits on high,
Before the armies joyne, your name shall die."*
Ben Jonson. Barren Field.

*Sr. Golden dear,
We implore thy powerful hand
To undo the charmed band
Of true virgin here distressed,
Through the force, and through the wile,
Of unlickt sorcherer vile.*
Milton. Comus.

*—Like Male's son he stood,
And shook his plumes, that heavenly fragrance fill'd
The circuit wide, strait knew him all the bands
Of angels under watch; and to his state,
And to his message high in honour raise.*
Id. Paradise Lost, book v.

*But when the post was pulled once away,
Which stood to uphold the king and his kin,
Yeeke and his banders proudly pressed in,
To challenge the crowne by title of right,
Beginning with law and ending with might.*
Mervin for Naphtoret, fol. 358.

*When I was going on in my wonted course, (which so low or
circumstance had inhibited,) certain forward volunteers in the city,
banding together, stir up the mayor and aldermen and sheriffs, to
call me to an account for an open violation of their covenant.*
Sp. Hall. Hard Measure, p. 26.

The princes and chiefs of all the nation of Hetruria were
banded and confederated together in a diet held at the temple of
Vulturnus, to make warre upon them.

Holland. Lulus, fol. 217.

*In this messae while the senators fell to strive who should bee
king; and the desire of sovereignty troubled much and perpleyed
their minds. But as yet, there was no banding nor siding from any
one person in particular.*
Id. H. fol. 12.

*And she that could well keep the prince in her bandon by
craft and subtilty, also made the prince to be her husband; and
bycause she could have no stayle, she doned that the prince
should be divorced fro her.*

Freisart. Cronicles, v. ii. c. 244.

*Then Somervet says, Set the bandon on the hull.
And Glostershire again is blasse'd, Weigh thy woe.
As Berksire hath for her's, Let's ta't and toun the ball.
And Wiltshire will for her, Get home and pay for all.*
Drayton. Polyolbon, Song xlii.

*Things went on so far, that my mistress presented me with a
wrough nightcap and a lac'd band of her own working.*

Tetter, No. 91.

*As all men naturally, by indelible bands of obligation, are
the subjects and servants of God; so God indispensably and in-
calculably duth require the same loyalty and fidelity, the same dili-
gence, the same reverence from all.*

Barnes. Sermon xxxviii. v. iii.

*From Jove he comes, the captive to restore;
Nor can the thunder of his sire do more.
Religion shall dread nothing but disguise;
And Justice need no headgear for her eyes.*
Garrick. Clarendon.

*Yet see how all around them wait
The ministers of human fate,
And black misfortune's baleful train,
Ah, show them where in ambush stand
To seize their prey, the numerous band!*
Ah, tell them, they are men!

Gray. On a Distant Prospect of Eton Coll.

*So saying, she the silken bandage loos'd,
Nor added further speech, prepar'd to watch
The new surprise, and guide the doubtful scene,
By silence more than tenfold night conceal'd.*

Johnson. Edge Hill, book iii.

BAND, in *Architecture*, a low flint moulding, other-
wise called a *face*, from *fascia*. Vitruvius, iii. 3.

BAND FISH, in *Zoology*, the English name of the
Cepola rubescens. See **CARPUS**.

BAN DOG, in *Zoology*, a name of the *Canis Molossus*,
or mastiff. See **CANIS**.

BANDA ISLANDS, a group of high and precipitous
islands in the Eastern ocean, situated about 130 miles
east-south-east from Amboyna. This assemblage
includes ten separate isles, which are Banda Neira,
Banda Lantior, Pulo Ay, Pulo Rondo, Pulo Pisang,
Rosingen, Craka, Capella, Soangy, and Gomong
Apee. The last is a volcanic islet, which rises nearly
2000 feet above the level of the sea. They are all
small: Lantior, or Banda proper, which is one of the
largest, as well as the most important, is only about
eight miles long, and not more than three broad; nor
does Neira exstend much more than two or three
square miles of surface. Most of these islands are
covered with a rich black soil, which renders them
fruitful in all the productions of these eastern climes;
but is particularly favourable to the growth of nut-
megs, to which the principal of them are chiefly
devoted. They consequently depend, in a great
measure, upon foreign supplies for many of the neces-
saries of life, most of which are at present imported
from Java. The Dutch were the first European
possessors of the Banda islands; and soon after their

BAND.
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BANDA
ISLANDS

BANDA
ISLANDS.
BANDIT.

arrival, they appear either to have enslaved or extirpated the original inhabitants. In this, as well as in many other instances, the love of gain stifled the dictates of conscience, and the power of conquest superseded the right of possession. To secure, as far as possible, the monopoly of nutmegs, for which these islands were so famed, the Dutch enacted all the trees to be destroyed, except upon four of the islands. These are Neira, Lantior, Pulo Ay, and Pulo Rondo, which are laid out in plantations for the production of this spice. The trees attain the size of a common pear-tree, but their leaves have more resemblance to those of the laurel. They begin to bear when about twelve or fourteen years old, and continue bearing for eight or ten years, after which they decay; and at all times, particularly while young, they require much care and attention. Each tree, during the period of its bearing, produces about ten pounds of nutmegs yearly. The fruit is enveloped in a covering of mace, and the whole is likewise inclosed in an external husk, which is shaped like a pear, and about the size of an apricot. The whole quantity produced on these islands cannot be accurately stated: the annual sales are said formerly to have amounted to 350,000 pounds of nutmegs, and 100,000 pounds of mace. When, however, they were taken by the English in 1796, the half year's crop was found to be little more than 80,000 pounds of nutmegs, and about 24,000 pounds of mace. The trees in all the other islands were carefully extirpated by command of the Dutch; and the whole trade of those where the growth is cherished, is a complete monopoly. This is obviously a great check upon the population; and the total number of inhabitants is supposed not to exceed four or five thousand. By a census taken in 1796, they were found to be 5763; and in 1814 they were estimated at little more than 4000; about three-fourths of whom were slaves. The negroes, however, which formerly stated them at 15,000 whites, were most likely exaggerated. The seat of government in these islands is at Neira, which has a good harbour, and two fortresses, one of which contains the public magazines; near it are the storehouses, and here the produce of the nutmeg plantations is collected, to be exported as opportunities offer. Dutch garrisons are maintained in these fortresses; but they are rather adopted for the protection of the trade and keeping the slaves in subjection, than for the defence of the islands; as they were taken possession of by Admiral Ruisier in 1796 without opposition. They were restored to the Dutch by the peace of Amiens; but were again taken by the English in 1810; and reverted to their former masters at the general peace of 1814. The latitude of these islands is principally between four and five degrees south, and the longitude about 130° east.

BANDIT. *Ban* and *ditto*; which last, says *BANDITTO*. J. Tooker, adopted by us together with the Italian method of book-keeping, is the past part of *dicer*.

One declared to be *banished*, exiled, excommunicated.

Great men all dye by virtue *Ban*olous.
A *Romane* sworder, and *banderito* slane
Master'd sweet *Tully*. *Ban*us bastard *bandy*
Stal'd *Julius* Cesar.

Shakespeare. Henry VI. part ii. act iv. s. 1.

Bequeath — yet *ban* you, are the *banditti* read
To wait in ambush!

Ford. 'The pity she's a Where, act v. s. 2.

She [Chastity] like a quiver'd nymph with arrows keen,
May trace huge forests, and unharbour'd heath,
Infamous hills, and sandy perils wide;
Where, through the sacred rays of chastity,
No savage fire, *bandit*, or mountainier,
Will dare to soil her virgin purity. *Milton. Comus.*

By this means many, apprehending a severe prosecution, left their houses, and went about like a sort of *banditti*, and fell into a fierce and savage temper.

Dunbar's Own Times, l. 518.

There's not a blessing individual find,
But some way leans and leans to the kind;
No *bandit* here, no tyrant mad with pride,
No cavern'd hermit, rests self-satisfied.

Pope. Essay on Man, ex. iv.

Who are they who can add to be governed by laws of their own making? I know of no such persons; I never heard or read of any such, except, perhaps among pirates and other *banditti*, who, trampling on all laws, divine and human, refuse to be governed in any other way than by their own licentious regulations.

Beattie. Moral Science, p. iii. c. ii.

BANDON, or **BANDON-BIDGE**, a considerable town in the county of Cork, in Ireland, situated on a river of the same name. It is called by the Irish *Druid*, (the bridge.) It was founded by the first earl of Cork in 1610, and returns one member to the imperial parliament. The cotton manufactory used to be very flourishing here, and large numbers of people are still employed on linens, camlets, and woollens. Population 14,130; distance from Cork 13 miles; from Dublin 136.

BANDY, *v.* *Bandy*, a club, bent at the bottom; *BANDY*, *v.* *bandy*, from the verb, to bend. To *BANDY*, *adj.* *bandy*, to strike backwards and forwards from one to another, with a *bandy*.

To beat or toss, to and fro; to give and take in turns; to exchange.

Bandy-leg, is *bandy-leg*.

Ros. Draw Benulio, bent down their weapons:

Gen'lemen for shame forbear this outrage,

Thou, Marston, the Prince expressly hath

Forbidden bandying in Verona streets.

Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet, fol. 64.

I'll send him balls and rackets, if I live,

That they such racket shall in Paris see.

Wien over line with *banden* I shall drive,

As that before the set be fully done,

France may (perhaps) into the hazard run.

Deighton. The Battle of Agincourt.

Had she affections and warm youthful blood,

She would be as swift in motion as a ball,

My words would *bandy* her to my sweete love,

And his to me.

Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet, fol. 63. c. 1.

For had we no masonry at all over our thoughts, but they were all like tennis balls, *bandied*, and struck upon us, as it were by rackets from without; then could we not steadily and constantly carry on any designs and purposes of life.

Cuthbert. Intellectual System, fol. 815.

Not let that pass, they now began

To spar their living engines on;

For as whips'd tops and *bandy'd* balls

The leeward held, are animals;

So horses they affirm to be

Mere engines made by geometry.

Burton. Hudibras, part i. c. 2.

He that is employed, has no leisure to move in the little disputes and quarrels which trouble the peace of the world, and which are chiefly kept up and *bandied* to and fro by those who have nothing else to do.

Attorney. Sermon xiii. vol. 4.

She calls it witty to be rude;

And, placid ruffery in railing,

Will tell aloud your greatest failings;

Not make a scruple to expose

Your private leg, or crooked nose.

Swift. Remarks of a Woman's Mind.

BANDIT.
BANDY.

BANDY.

BANE.

— Thy once formidable name
 Small grace her humble records, and I heard
 In words and mockery, banished from the lips
 Of all the vengeful brotherhood around,
 So oft the patient victims of thy scorn.

Athena. The Pleasures of Imagination, book iii.

BANE, *v.* } Goth. *banjo*, ulcers, sores, wounds.
 BANE, *n.* } Luke xvi. 21. *Banjo* falls, full of
 Ba'NEFUL, ulcers, sores, wounds. Luke xvi. 20.
 A. S. *ban*, destruction; Swed. *ban*, a wound; per-
 haps, says Ibre, from *ban*, *percute*. In Peirs
 Plowman we find above.

To destroy, ruin; to cause destruction or ruin; to
 poison, to render poisonous.

*Ashaf of Norway, of Denmark kynn Seane,
 Argued in þu loud, to many wer þu bane.*

R. Bruner, p. 38.

And holdis beggeres and bygger, þat move here bred by swykes
 With hoodles bred and hirs bred, bane þem when þei hunger
 And showe hem with bones. *Peirs Plowman, fol. 139*

For in his hunting lute he swiche delite,
 That it is all his joye and appetite
 To bea himself the grete hartes bane.

Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, v. 1683.

Think when thou meet the baile
 whereon is thy delite,
 That hidden bootles are hard at hande
 To seee thee what thou baile.

Turberville. Epigrams, &c. p. 612.

And how that in those ten yeres warre,
 Full many a bloody dede was done;
 And many a lord that came full farr,
 There caught his bane (also) to none.

Surrey. Lower comforter himself.

What, if my house be troubled with a rat,
 And I be pleased to give ten thousand ducats
 To have it baited?

Shakespeare. Merchant of Venice, fol. 178.

Achilles bane/ill wrath reared, O goddess that impos'd
 Infinite sorrows on the Greeks, and many brave souls lost
 From breasts heroique. *Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book i.*

Before mine eyes in opposition sits
 Grim Death my son and foe, who sets them on,
 And me his parent would full soon devour
 With food of other prey, but that he knows
 His end with mine int'ret'd; and knows that I
 Should prove a bitter morsel, and his bane,
 Whenever that shall be.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book ii.

Thy sin are of so baneful a nature that they poison even the
 blood of Christ unto thee; and whilst the heavenly merit is in thy
 mouth, even the body of our Lord Jesus Christ, which is meat
 indeed for a believing soul, the curse of God cometh upon thee.

Hopkins. Sermons, fol. 219.

He learns how stocks will fall and rise;
 Holds poverty the greatest vice;
 Thinks wit the bane of conversation;
 And says that learning spoils a nation.

Prior. The Cavalier.

Then wouldst thou steer where Fortune spreads the sails?
 Go, sister Vice! for seldom Fortune falls.
 Soft through the ear the pleasing bane distils:
 Delicious poison! in perfumes it kills!

Brown. An Epistle to Mr. Fenton.

Beneath the gloomy covert of a yew
 That taints the grass with sickly sweats of dew;
 No verdant beauty entertains the sight,
 But lowly hemlock, and cold acanthus.

Garrick. The Dispensary, canto ii.

When it is now clear beyond all dispute, that the criminal is no
 longer fit to live upon the earth, but is to be exterminated as
 a monster, and a bane to human society, the law acts a note of
 infamy upon him, and puts him out of its protection.

Blackstone. Commentary, iv. 330.

A wicked example, as we all know, tends to corrupt in some
 degree every one that lives within its baneful influence; more
 particularly if it be found in men of high rank, great wealth,
 splendid talents, profound erudition, or popular character.

Porteus. Lectures on St. Mat. xvi.

BANE.

BANFF.

BANE BRARIES, a name given to the *Actea spicata*,
 or Herb Christopher.

BANFF, or BANFFSHIRE, a tongue-shaped monn-
 tainous country, in the north-east of Scotland, included
 by Aberdeenshire on the east, the counties of Moray and
 Inverness on the west, and the Moray firth on the north.
 Its extreme length is about sixty-four miles, its greatest
 breadth is not more than thirty. The area of this
 county is about 622 square miles, nearly 35,000 acres
 of which are completely waste grounds, and about
 1800 more are covered with wood. The population
 was 35,607 in 1801; in 1811 it had increased to
 36,668; and in 1821 to 43,561; thus exhibiting an
 augmentation of two per cent. in the former ten years,
 and of eighteen in the latter. This gives seventy
 persons for each square mile, which is nearly one-
 fifteenth less than the medium population of the whole
 country. With the exception of a few small bays and
 creeks, the line of coast is bold and precipitous. Nearly
 the whole country, except a tract near the sea, is
 rugged and mountainous, but interspersed with fertile
 valleys; though not more than one-fourth part of the
 surface is supposed to be cultivated. The southern-
 most extremity is comprehended in the range of
 mountains which are distinguished by the name of
 Highlands. Some of the highest and most interesting
 mountains in Britain are to be found in this district;
 among which are Cairn Gorm, stated at 4060 feet in
 height; Benrinnes, 3747 feet above the sea; Knock-
 hill, 2500, with some others of inferior height. Many
 beautiful straths and glens are dispersed throughout
 this county, exhibiting a great variety of picturesque
 scenery. The two principal rivers are the Deveron
 and Spey, by which it is bounded on the east and
 west. Some lakes are also found within the limits of
 Banff, which, as well as the rivers, abound with fish,
 particularly salmon. The climate is cold and moist,
 but not unhealthy. The soil in the lower tracts is
 frequently light and sandy; but clay is more abundant
 on the hills. Agriculture has, in general, made less
 progress in improvement than in the more southern
 counties of Scotland, though innumerable examples have
 been set, and much encouragement given, by the late
 earl of Findlater and other proprietors. Limestone
 abounds in many parts, but from the want of coal little
 use can be made of it. Marble of a good quality is
 also obtained, and used for various purposes. Rock
 crystals and topazes, called cairngorms, from the
 mountain where they are found, are obtained in con-
 siderable quantities, the value of which has in some
 years amounted to £2000. Iron and lead are also
 among the mineral products of Banffshire. There are
 likewise mineral waters which have proved efficacious
 in various complaints. Few manufactures exist, except
 for the supply of its own wants. The chief exports
 are fish, butter, cheese, yarn, and linen. The fish is
 chiefly salmon for the supply of the London market.
 The imports are fax, hemp, leather, iron, coals, wine
 and colonial articles.

Banffshire comprises twenty-three parishes and two
 royal burghs, Banff and Cullen. There are also
 several magnificent noblemen's seats in this county;

BANFF. the principal of which are Duff-house, belonging to the earl of Fife; Cullen-house, to the earl of Findlater; and Gordon-castle, one of the most magnificent seats in North Britain, to the duke of Gordon. The county abounds in remains of antiquity; and has been the theatre of many sanguinary conflicts with the Danes. Tradition affirms, that the skulls of many of the invaders who fell in these contests were cemented into the walls of the Scotch churches.

BANFF, a seaport and royal borough of Scotland, situated near the north-east extremity of the county. It stands at the mouth of the river Deveron, but the harbour is not good, owing to the shifting sands near its entrance. Banff is one of the nearest towns in the north of Scotland. A handsome bridge crosses the river; and a large town house, surmounted by an elegant spire, was built in 1798, and contains various apartments for transacting the public business of the place. A new prison has also been lately built upon an improved principle. Thread, linen, stockings, soap, and leather are made here, but none of them to any great extent. A few ships are also built. Near the town there is a strong chalybeate spring. Banff was constituted a royal borough by Robert II. in 1373, and in conjunction with Cullen, Elgin, Kintore, and Inverary, it sends one member to the imperial parliament. The population is about 3000, and the distance 165 miles north of Edinburgh. Lat. 57° 38' N. long. 9° 25' W.

BANG, v. } *Dut. bangelen*, to beat with sticks,
Bang, n. } clubs. *Swe. bang*, to strike.
To beat or strike, to hit hard; to give repeated, heavy blows.

You should have been accosted here, and with some excellent jests, fire-new from the mist, you should have bang'd the youth into dumbness. *Shakespeare. Twelfth Night*, fol. 266.

Or if a bear, oppress
With cruel hunger, bang'd to violent
His feeding flocks, he with such bangs him ply'd,
That with the prey even in his teeth he dy'd.
Drayton. David and Goliath.

With many a stiff thwack, many a bang,
Hard crab-tree and old iron rang,
While some that men them could divine
To which side conquest would incline.
Bellier. Hadrian, part i. c. ii.

But, dear Mr. Bickerstaff, convince 'em, that as harsh and irregular sound is not harmony; so neither is *bang* a cushion, oratory. *Tatler*, No. 76.

The first bout they had was so fair, and so handsome,
That to make a fair bargain, 'twas worth a king's ransom;
And set on such bangs to his neighbour importuned,
Would have made any fibres but Figg's to have smarted.
Byron. Eastopore Verses.

BANGOR, a city of Caernarvonshire in North Wales. The see of a bishop. A monastery was founded here in the sixth century. The diocese comprehends the whole of Anglesen, Caernarvonshire, excepting five parishes; more than half of Merionethshire; fourteen parishes in Denbighshire; and seven in the county of Montgomery. It has three archdeaconries, two of which are usually held in commendam by the bishop, and ten rural deaneries. The prelate is a suffragan to the metropolitan see of Canterbury. The present cathedral was built during various parts of the sixteenth century, and comprises a choir, nave, transepts, two aisles, and VOL. XVII.

a quadrangular tower at the west end. The extreme length from east to west is 214 feet. The town is situated in a narrow valley between ridges of rock. It has a fine opening to the Menai, and consists of one well-built street. A chain-bridge is now constructing over the Menai strait, which will connect the main land with Anglesen. The population in 1821 was 3579, presenting the large increase of 1195 persons since the census of 1811.

BANGOR INCE, a village of Flintshire in North Wales, celebrated as the site of a Christian seminary for instructing noviciates, founded by Lucius the first king of Britain in the third century. In the sixth century this college was converted into a monastery, which in its splendour is said to have contained 2400 monks, who a hundred or a time, performed the service continually by day and night. It was distinguished by a valuable library, and the number of its men of learning. But this magnificent establishment was destroyed, and the majority of its inhabitants put to the sword, by Ethelfrith, king of Northumberland, about A. D. 710. William of Malmesbury, who lived in the reign of Stephen, speaks of it as utterly ruined; and at present not the smallest vestige can be traced. A bridge of five arches, of great antiquity and of elegant structure, is now the only architectural ornament of the village.

BANIAN, a name formerly given by Europeans to almost all Hindûs, because *baniya*, the term whence it is derived, signifies a banker; the class with which Europeans had most frequent intercourse. It is one of the mixed classes derived from a father of the medical and a mother of the commercial class. (*Halhed's Code*, p. civ.) What we read therefore in old books, of their peculiar tenets, abstinence from meat, &c. is nothing more than the practice of all conscientious Hindûs.

BANIAN, or **BANYAN TREE**, the common name of the *Ficus Bengalensis*, called *bar* or *bat* in the Hindi and *vata* in Sanscrit, celebrated for its peculiar mode of striking into the ground by the ends of its boughs and taking root: hence one tree will in time form a whole grove. See *Hodges's Travels in India*.

BANISH, } See to BAN. *Sax. forbenen*, a ban-
Ba'NISHEN, } nished man. *Somner*.
Ba'NISHMENT, } To bind, oblige, or compel, to
BANNTION. } order, command, condemn to leave, or quit any place; to expel or drive away, to exile.

This is thy mortal foe, this is Arelis,
That fro thy loins is banished on his bed,
For which he hath deserved to be dead.

Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. 1728.

Then fair Phobos, lantern and lamp of light,
Of man and beast, both fruit and flourishing,
Tender voices, and banisher of night.

The Test. of Cressida, fol. 255. c. iv.

When an voracious spirit (*o ho*) goeth out from a man, being banished from his old hospital, he walketh in dry and barren places, seeking rest and fyndeth none.

Udell. Mat. cap. xli.

For I am not ignorant, that unto thee which measure their felicity by the pleasures of this life, *banishment* is more payably grievous than death.

Id. James, cap. i.

Marina then fetching a deep sigh from his heart, gave him this answer: thou shalt tell Sextilius, that thou hast seen Gaius Marina banished out of his country, sitting amongst the ruins of the city of Carthage.

North. Plutarch, fol. 347.

BANISTER,
BANK.

Now this extremity,
Hath brought me to thy hard, not out of hope
(Mistake me not) to save my life: for if
I had fear'd death, of all the men 't the world
I would have voided thee. But in mere spite
To be full quit of those my banisters,
Stand I before thee here.

Shakespeare. Coriolanus, fol. 22.

Hast thou, and from the paradise of God
Without remorse drive out the sinful pair,
From hallowed ground th'anthemic, and denounce
To them and to their progeny from hence
Perpetual banishment.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book xi.

They refused to do it [take the oath] and were upon that con-
demned to perpetual banishment, so men that denied allegiance to the
king. And by this an engine was found out to banish as many
as they pleased.

Rp. Barnet. Owen Times, i. 192.

Shall I add, that this love of purity was the cause, why, she
banished herself from those public diversions of the town, at which
it was scarce possible to be present, without hearing somewhat that
wounded chaste ears.

Attorney. Sermons vi. v. i.

The civil death commenced, if any man was banished or shunned
the realm by the process of the common law, or entered into religion;
that is, went into a monastery, and became there a monk
professed.

Blackstone. Commentaries, i. 132.

Think, says Epictetus, frequently on poverty, banishment, and
death, and thou wilt then never indulge violent desires, or give up
thy heart to mean pleasures.

Johnson. Reader, No. 17.

As I have your express orders not to restore any person who
has been excommunicated either by myself or others; so I
have no directions with respect to those who, having been banished
by some of my predecessors in this government, have by this also
been restored.

Mitchell. Phry, book x. let. ixiv.

Every professor do continue in his office during life, unless in
case of such misbehaviour as shall amount to denunciation by the uni-
versity statutes.

Blackstone. Commentaries, i. 22. notes.

BANISTERIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class
Decandria, order *Trigynia*. Generic character. Calyx
quinquepartite, having two melliferous pores at the
external base. Petals roundish, uogulate. Filaments
cohering at the base. *Samaræ* three, one seeded,
crowned with simple ale.

An American and West Indian genus, containing
twenty-four species. Several are figured and described
in Cavanilles, " *Monsidolus classic dissertationes decem.* "

BANK, v. } Fr. *banque*. It. *banche*; Sp. *banque*;
BANK, n. } Danish and Dutch *bancke*. According to
some, says Juvonius, from the Danish *banke*, to beat,
to strike, because they are constantly beaten against by the
waves of the sea. Cotgrave says,—*banque*, a long shoal,
shelf or sandy hill in the sea, against which the waves
do break. Skinner is content with A.S. *baner*, *tumulus*.

Wachter has—*baner*, a hill, mound, heap, and any eminent
or rising place. It is transferred, he adds, to any eminent
or rising places for sitting or lying. And it
may thus be applied to any thing raised to confine a
current of water; to the seat raised from the bottom
of the boat; to the raised table or counter of merchants,
traders, money-changers.

To bank, is to confine, or surround with banks; to
throw up embankments. In the elation from Shake-
spere, Mr. Stevens suggests, that to bank, may mean,
to sail along the banks.

He dikes were full side just closed he castle about
& deep on its side, with banks but without.

R. Brown, p. 162

BANK.

The place, where as he them sight,
It was under a bank, alga
The great sea, and he above
Sook and beheld the busy hour,
Whence echo of them till others made,
With gently chere and warden shade.

Goethe. Conf. des. book ii. fol. 28.

And the bibeaters an house that hadd a wote dand into which
thei thoughts, if thei myghtes, to brynge up the achip.

Wicif. Deeds of Aquilas, chap. xxvii.

When it was day, they knew not the lands, but they aped a
certayne laces with a bank into the which they were mynded (if
it were possible) to forest in the ship.

Shir, 1551.

Nut so freely doth overflow the fides
The fusing flood, that breaks out of his banks:
Whose rage of waters beares away what heapes
Stand in his way, the coates, and eke the lardes.

Surry. Denais, book ii.

Have I not heard these islands about out
Vine le Roy, as I have heard their towns.

Shakespeare. King John, fol. 19.

That the mother end of the cut be set into the ground, and namely,
that part always which grew next the root, and last of all, that
they be banked well with earth about the place where they spring
and bud forth, until such time as the plant have gotten strength.

Holland's Plume, i. 52.

That straine agen, it had a dying fall:
O, it came o'er my eare, like the sweet sound
That breathe upon a bank of violets;
Stealing, and giving colour.

Shakespeare. Twelfth Night, fol. 253.

One of them dates his letter to me from the banks of a purling
stream, where he used to ramble in solitude upon the divine
Clarissa, and where he is now looking about for a convenient spot,
which he tells me he is resolved to take, unless I support him
under the loss of that charming perjured woman.

Trotter, No. 146.

On every bank, and under every shade,
A laughing youth, a broken damsel play'd;
Some wantonly were tripping in a ring
On the soft border of a gushing spring.

Mr. W. Jones. The Seven Fountains.

Is it owing to Christianity, or to the want of it, that the banks of
the Nile, whose constantly renewed fertility is not to be impaired
by neglect, or destroyed by the ravages of war, serve only for the
scene of a ferocious anarchy, or for the supply of unceasing hos-
tilities?

Paley's Evidences of Christianity, ii. 358.

BANK, v. } See the preceding word, to BANK.
BANK, n. } In this application, to bank is
Ba'NKEE, } to place or deposit money in a bank.
Ba'NKEUT, v. } Bankrupt. Fr. *banqueroute*; It.
Ba'NKEUT, v. } *banquerotta*; a bankrupt is one whose
Ba'NKEUT, adj. } bench or table has been broken;
Ba'NKEUT, v. } whose debts exceed his means of
Ba'NKEUT, v. } payment. In the Mid-Latin *ruptus*,
Ba'NKEUT, n. } and *ruptura* are used; as we use
bankrupt and bankruptcy. See Du Cange.

But methinks I take unto our dame,
Yee wif at home, the same gold again
Upon your benches, the wote it wel certain,
By certale tokens that I can hire tell.

Chaucer. The Shipman's Tale, v. 13219.

And yet that same very point ought to have quickened the to
some attitude in bestyring thee to have delivered forth my
money to the keepers of the bank.

Uttal. Luke, cap. 19.

He hadie openly preached in the temple, he had overthrown
the bankers tables, and driven them oute of the temple too.

Mr. Thomas More's Works, fol. 1386.

And such bankes rousers be those men of that good reale, that
eye after the spoyle of the spirituality, which was they have
wasted and miscrept their own, woulde than very faise was for
hanging robe spiritual and temporal.

Id. fol. 481.

BANK.

And so gathering a great army of valiant copyists of all nations, some *banquerotes*, &c. which leavages their bodily labour denyings only to lyne of robbery and rapine, came to be his serantes and souldears.

Hall. King Henry VII. fol. 38.

The minde shall banquet, though the body pine,
Fat panches have lesse paines; and daintie bits,
Make rich the ribs, but bankrupt the wits.

Shakespeare. Love's Labour Lost, fol. 123.

ADRI. As if time were in debt: how fondly do'st thou reason? S. DRO. Time is a verie bankrupt, and owes more then he's worth to season.

Id. Comedy of Errors, fol. 94.

Unless we had rather think both moral and judicial, full of malice and deadly purpose, conspir'd to let the debtor Israelite, the seed of Abraham, run on upon a bankrupt score, flatter'd with insufficient and ensnaring discharges.

Milton. Doctrine, &c. of Divines.

Although the errors of prudence are out of our power, yet the endowments and the observation, the diligence and caution, the moral part of it, and the plain conduct of our necessary duty, (which are portions of this grace,) are such things which God will demand in proportion to the talent which he hath intrusted into our hands.

Taylor. Sermon xx. fol. 192.

He caused a banker, for unskilful handling and exchange of money, to leave both his hands, and to have them nailed fast onto his owne shop board.

Holland's Suetonius, fol. 214.

GONZ. There's the quintessence,

The soul, and grand vicar of my wit
For he (according to his noble nature)
Will not be known to want though he do want,
And will be bankrupt so much the sooner,
And made the subject of our scorn and laughter.

Beaumont and Fletcher. The Lovers of Comedy, act iii. sc. 1.

Canst thou by sickness banish beauty so,
Which if put from thee, knows not where to go
To make her shift, and for her succour seek
To every riv'd face, each bankrupt cheek?

Drayton. England's Heroical Epistles.

There is no such treasure as a true friend; it is a treasure far above that of St. Mark's in Venice; a treasure that is not liable to those casualties which others are liable to, as to plundering and burglary, to bankrupts and ill debtors, to firing and shipwrecks.

Hewell's Letters, book vi. let. lvi.

I do hereby forbid all dedications to all persons within the city of London, except Sir Francis, Sir Stephen, and the best, will take epigrams and epistles as value receiv'd for their notes.

Tatler, No. 43.

Truma was better acquainted with his master's affairs than his daughter, and secretly lamented, that each day brought him by many miscarriages nearer bankruptcy than the former.

Id. No. 213.

Or, at some banker's desk, like many more,
Content to tell that city two and two make four,
His name had stood in rhyms much fair,
And prudent dullness mark'd him for a mayor.

Churchill. The Rivalry.

By attempting to increase, we diminish them; the mind becomes bankrupt under too large obligations; all additional benefits lessen every hope of future return, and shut up every avenue that leads to tenderness.

Goldsmith. Citizen of the World.

Here is again discovered the inhabitant of Chesapeake, whose heart cannot keep his poetry unmingled with trade. To sinke that intellectual bankruptcy which he affects to fear, he will erect a bank for wit.

Johnson. Life of Blackmore.

Had every particular banking company always understood and attended to its own particular interest, the circulation error could have been overstocked with paper money.

Smith's Wealth of Nations, v. l. p. 451.

BANK.

BANK, BANKING; the meaning of these words as applied to commerce, is so well understood, that it is quite unnecessary to give any definition of them. Suffice it therefore to observe, that in the simple state of money-dealing which prevailed in Italy during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the treasure to be lent out on usury was commonly displayed on a table or bench called *banco*: and hence the origin of the term, now so generally appropriated to those immense establishments which circulate the wealth, and promote the trade of modern Europe. Hence also the term bankrupt, as applied to such as are no longer able to discharge their obligations in the way of business; for when the dealer in money, in former times, failed to meet the claims which were made upon him by his professional brethren, his table or board was publicly broken in pieces, and himself declared unworthy of credit. The stigma of *banco* henceforth adhered to him, and he was accordingly driven out from the society of the still solvent usurers.

It is perhaps worthy of a passing remark, that money-lenders among the ancients were distinguished by a similar name, derived, too, from a similar circumstance. They were called *trapezites*, from the tables on which they were wont to expose their bullion, and which like their successors, among the Lombard Jews, they took care to set forth in the most public places; in the porches, and even the sides of churches.

In respect to their object, banks may be divided into two kinds, either as they are meant for the purpose of simple deposit, as was the case in Amsterdam and Hamburg; or as they are intended also for cir-

culating paper money and discounting bills of exchange. Of the former class of banks, a very accurate history is given by Dr. Smith, in his celebrated work *On the Wealth of Nations*; from which, after the example of all who have written before us on this subject, we shall proceed to give an abridged account of the great bullion establishments to which we have just alluded.

The necessity for such depositories was first suggested, in the small trading states of Italy and Germany, by the difficulty of maintaining a pure currency, which might serve at once for a standard of value at home, and a medium for discharging commercial obligations abroad. In large nations, such as France and England, the currency consists almost entirely of their two coins; so that when these are worn, clipped, or otherwise sunk below the regular value, a new coinage will restore things to their former level, and minister to all the purposes of domestic trade and foreign commerce. In poorer countries on the contrary, the gold and silver pieces which circulate through the hands of merchants, are usually supplied from their intercourse with their surrounding neighbours, and they consist of all the denominations and varieties of coin, which purchasers from different states may happen to bring into their market. Such countries, therefore, by reforming their own coin, would not be able to reform their currency; and if foreign bills of exchange were paid in this degraded medium, the uncertain value of any sum, would render the exchange always very much against the said countries; their currency being in all foreign states, necessarily valued even below what it is worth.

BANK.

In order, says Dr. Smith, to remedy the inconvenience to which this disadvantageous exchange must have subjected the merchants, such small states, when they began to attend to the interests of trade, have frequently enacted that foreign bills of exchange of a certain value, should be paid, not in the common currency, but by an order upon the books of a certain bank, established upon the credit, and under the protection of the government: this bank being always obliged to pay in good and true money according to the standard of the state. The banks of Venice, Genoa, Amsterdam, Hamburg, and Nuremberg, seem to have been all originally established with this view, though some of them may afterwards have been made subservient to other purposes. The money of such banks being better than the common currency of the country, necessarily bore an agio or premium, which was greater or smaller, according as the currency was supposed to be more or less degraded below the standard of the state. In Hamburg, it was commonly about fourteen per centum, at the period when Adam Smith made his inquiry; since that time it has varied considerably, and at the present moment may be rated at 25 or 36 per centum.

Before 1609, the great quantity of clipped and worn coin, which the extensive trade of Amsterdam had brought from all parts of Europe, reduced the value of its currency about nine per cent. below that of good money fresh from the mint. Such money no sooner appeared than it was melted down, or carried away. The merchants, with plenty of currency, could not always find a sufficient quantity of good money to pay their bills of exchange; and the value of those bills, in spite of several regulations which were made to prevent the difficulty, became in a great measure uncertain.

In order to remedy these inconveniences, a bank was established in the year just mentioned, under the guarantee of the city of Amsterdam. This bank received both foreign coin, and the light and worn coin of the country, at its real intrinsic value, estimated according to the standard of good money; deducting only so much as was necessary for defraying the expense of coinage, and the other necessary disbursements for management. For the value which remained, after this small deduction was made, it gave a credit in its books; and this credit was called *bank money*, which as it represented money exactly according to the standard of the mint, was always of the same real value, and intrinsically worth more than current money. It was at the same time enacted, that all bills drawn upon Amsterdam, or negotiated in that city, of the value of six hundred guilders and upwards, should be paid in bank money: an arrangement which at once removed all uncertainty in regard to the value of those bills. Every merchant, in consequence of this regulation, was obliged to keep an account with the bank, in order to pay his foreign bills of exchange, which necessarily occasioned a great demand for bank money.

From the above statement, it is obvious that bank money consists in the credit assigned to any one in the books of the bank, and representing the value of the current money originally deposited. It is always understood, however, that the amount of the credit may at any time be drawn from the bank, in good standard money; but as this money, when mixed with the common currency, would be of no higher

value than the latter might be in the market, and as it is actually of greater value, (by ten or twelve per cent. perhaps,) as transferable property at the bank, there is not only no motive for withdrawing from that establishment, but, on the contrary, there is a positive inducement to allow it to remain there. In consequence of these advantages attached to bank credits, it is believed that all the money originally deposited in the Bank of Amsterdam was permitted to rest in its coffers; no one ever imagining that he ought to demand payment of a debt, which he could at any time sell at a premium in the market.

Those deposits of coin, which the bank bound itself to restore at the rated amount in good standard money, constituted the original capital of the bank, or the whole value of what was represented by the new denomination of *bank money*. That capital was, however, soon after considerably extended, on the following principle: In order to facilitate the trade in bullion, the bank adopted the practice of giving credit in its books upon deposits of gold and silver bullion. This credit was generally about five per cent. below the mint price of such bullion. The bank granted at the same time what is called a *receipt*, or *receipt*, entitling the person who made the deposit, or the bearer, to take out the bullion again at any time within six months, upon transferring to the bank a quantity of bank money, equal to that for which credit had been given in its books when the deposit was made; and upon paying one-fourth per cent. for the keeping, if the deposit was in silver, and one-half per cent. if it was in gold; but at the same time declaring, that in default of such payment, upon the expiration of this term, the deposit should belong to the bank at the price it had been received, or for which credit had been given in the transfer books. What is thus paid for the keeping of the deposit, may be considered as a sort of warehouse rent; and why this rent should be more for gold than for silver, several different reasons have been assigned. The fineness of gold, it has been said, is more difficult to be ascertained than that of silver; and the latter was the standard metal of the state; greater encouragement was therefore given to such as wished to deposit it in their transactions with the bank.

As the history of the Bank of Amsterdam, since the revolutionary war with France, is involved in some obscurity; and as all observations on the details of its business, prior to that period, must now be extremely uninteresting even to the mercantile reader, we shall proceed no farther in our remarks in regard to banks of deposit. They originated, it has appeared, in the necessity of having, for commercial purposes, a fixed and determinate money, in which goods might be valued and bills paid; and their immediate object did not extend to the equally important uses of a representative circulation, in the form of promissory notes, and bills of exchange; a contrivance by which mercantile wealth and confidence have been rendered available, throughout the wide community of trading Europe, to a degree surpassing the most sanguine dreams of the most ardent projectors. These ends were effected by an improved system of banking, somewhat more modern than the other; of which the most remarkable instance is to be found in that magnificent establishment which bears the name of our own country.

BANK.

BANK.

The Bank of England was incorporated in the year 1694, by a charter under the great seal, and in pursuance of an act of parliament. In consideration of the privileges conferred upon it, a loan was advanced to government of £1,200,000. at a rate of interest, however, which proved at once the scarcity of money, and the instability of the new government. The Bank was to receive £96,000. a year, in name of annuity, and £4000. for expense of management; the whole amounting to about one per cent. on the capital of the loan.

Three years after, the Bank received authority to increase its stock, by the addition of somewhat more than a million, a measure which had become necessary for the support of public credit. Bank stock was selling at a discount of fifty per cent. and Bank notes had fallen one-fifth of their value. During the great recede of the silver, which was going on at this period, the Bank had thought proper to suspend payment of its notes, a circumstance which necessarily created alarm, and occasioned the depreciation which has just been noticed.

In the seventh year of Anne's reign, the credit of government had so much improved, that the Bank advanced £400,000. to the Exchequer, in addition to the former loan, without requiring any farther compensation than the annuity of £96,000. and a consideration for the expense of management. Before the accession of George I. the capital stock of the Bank was increased by various means to more than five millions and a half.

In the third year of the king last named, the Bank, by cancelling two millions of Exchequer bills, advanced a loan of that amount to the public; making the total sum due by government, £5,375,072. 17s. 10d. In pursuance of an act, passed in the 8th George I. the Bank purchased of the South Sea Company, stock to the amount of £4,000,000. : and in the year 1722, in consequence of the subscriptions which it had taken in for enshing it to make this purchase, its capital stock was increased by £9,400,000. At this time, therefore, the Bank had advanced to the public £9,375,072. 17s. 10d.; whilst its capital stock amounted only to £8,959,995. 14s. 8d. : and consequently it was on this occasion that the sum which the Bank had advanced to the government, and for which it received interest, first began to exceed its capital stock, or the sum for which it paid a dividend to the proprietors of Bank stock. In other words, it was now that the Bank began to have an undivided capital over and above its divided one; and it has continued to have such a capital, varying somewhat according to circumstances, down to the present day. In the year 1746, the several advances made to the public amounted in all to £11,686,800.; and the divided capital had been raised by different calls and subscriptions to £10,780,000. The state of these two sums continued nearly the same till the year 1800, when the Bank, in consideration of a renewal of its charter for twenty-one years, advanced to government a farther loan of £3,000,000. for six years, without interest. When it became payable in the year 1806, a discussion arose between the Bank directors and his Majesty's ministers, when the former agreed to allow the three millions to remain at the service of the public during the war, at the reduced interest of three per cent.

As, too, the Bank in its capacity of agent for government to the receiving and paying of dividends on the National Debt, has often in its possession a large portion of public money, it was suggested to the chancellor of the Exchequer in 1807, that some remuneration to the country was due on the part of the Bank, either in the shape of a loan without interest, or in the actual payment of a definitive sum. The former method was preferred; and the Bank, accordingly, in 1808, agreed to advance to government £3,000,000. without interest, until six months after the ratification of peace. This loan, together with the former one of the same amount, because due, of course, in the year 1814, at which time the one first borrowed was paid, and the liquidation of the other was postponed till after the meeting of parliament in 1816. The final arrangements on this head drew from the Bank into the Exchequer a permanent loan of £3,000,000. at three per cent. and another of £6,000,000. at four per cent.; increasing thus the debt of the public to the said establishment, from eleven millions to more than twenty; the amount, we believe, at which it now remains.

Before we proceed to state the nature of the business transacted at the Bank of England, and the principles on which it is conducted, we must advert for a moment to the suspension of cash payments in the year 1797, and the events connected with that occurrence. At that time a combination of unpropitious circumstances, and in particular the threatened invasion of the country, and the failure of some private banks in the north, occasioned so unprecedented a run upon the establishment in Threadneedle-street, as spread alarm at once among the body of directors, and the leading persons charged with the administration of public affairs. In order to check the increasing pressure, the managers of the Bank diminished the circulation of its notes, from eleven millions to between eight and nine; an expedient, however, which, so far from effecting the object meant to be served by it, only accelerated the evil, the apprehension of which had suggested its adoption. The run upon the Bank for specie was not in the slightest degree slackened; and such was the urgency of their situation, that the directors communicated to the chancellor of the Exchequer the reduced state of the coffers, and the absolute necessity of some specific measure to avert the bankruptcy of their establishment, and the complete ruin of public credit. The suspension of cash payments was the only remedy which the distressed condition of things at that time would admit; and accordingly, on Sunday, the 26th of February, an order in council was issued to that effect, which was soon after followed by an act of parliament confirming the restriction on cash payments; a stroke of policy which, as every one knows, continued to regulate the proceedings of the Bank till the year 1818. The steps which led to the resumption of cash payments; the progressive measures by which they were again introduced; the stipulations on the part of the Bank; and the securities demanded by the public; the fears which were expressed; the difficulties which were created; and the ease and safety with which the return to the ancient practice was ultimately effected, are still so recent and so well known, as not to require even the slightest recapitulation.

BANK.

BANK. A variety of opinions still subsists in regard to the necessity of the measure resorted to by Mr. Pitt and his colleagues, on the emergency we have just described; but assuredly, the success which attended it, both in averting an imminent calamity, and in restoring the confidence and vigour of the country at a most perilous epoch, form, in our estimation, the strongest encomiums on the wisdom whence it originated, and on the patriotism with which it was maintained in either house of parliament.

Besides the ordinary business of a banking establishment, such as discounting bills and circulating mercantile paper, the Bank of England enjoys a very extensive employment as the main agent of government in all money transactions; receiving and paying the interest due to the public creditors; giving currency to Exchequer bills and other national securities; advancing loans; and, in short, affording a ready instrument for conducting all the operations of finance. Nor are its services overlooked or scantily rewarded. On the contrary, the chief source of its profits arises from its connection with the state; and the wretched economy of the present day is constantly heard uttering complaints, that the Bank is paid for its labours with an excessive liberality. For example: it has an allowance of £300. per million on the whole amount of every loan which is paid into its office; and derives from every lottery contract a remuneration of one thousand pounds. For managing the public debt, again, a very large salary is granted. In the early part of last century, the allowance made to the Bank on this account was only £360. per million, a rate which was soon afterwards increased to £562. 10s. per million. In the year 1786, when the National Debt had amounted to £234,000,000. the allowance was reduced to £450. the million; at which it continued till 1807, when, in consequence of the immense increase of the public debt, it was finally reduced to £340. per million on the first £600,000,000. of debt, and to £300. per million on all exceeding that sum.

From these different sources of emolument the revenue of the Bank has received a very considerable increase; and the value of its stock has improved in proportion. In the year 1797, Bank stock was on sale at £126. whereas at present it brings £252. or exactly the double. At several periods in the interval it has indeed been somewhat higher, amounting, we believe, to between £280. and £290. a satisfactory proof of the constantly increasing prosperity of that national establishment.

From accounts laid before Parliament, and other documents, we are enabled to present to our readers the amount of Bank of England notes in circulation during somewhat more than a century, as exhibited in the following table. The sum total, it is to be observed, includes notes both above and under five pounds, as well as that species of Bank paper known by the name of Bank post-bills.

	£
1718	1,629,930
1730	4,294,900
1754	3,975,870
1763	6,889,680
1772	6,901,030
1783	6,707,540
1792	11,102,835

	£
1797	11,191,730
1798	13,334,762
1799	14,062,337
1800	15,011,932
1801	16,109,594
1802	17,054,454
1803	16,847,522
1804	17,345,030
1805	17,241,932
1806	17,135,400
1807	17,405,001
1808	17,534,580
1809	19,001,890
1810	22,730,285*
1811	23,547,595
1812	23,462,130
1813	24,067,000
1814	27,840,780
1815	27,319,410
1816	26,594,360
1817	28,374,000
1818	27,930,000
1819	24,816,380
1820	24,222,770
1821	23,001,597
1822 (second quarter)....	18,660,623

For an account of the expeditious and economical method in which banking business is carried on in London by the private bankers, in the daily settlement of their affairs with one another, as well as with the great establishment in Threadneedle-street, we must refer to Mr. Bonquet's *Observations on the Report of the Bullion Committee*. To save the expenditure of cash in making large payments, a meeting takes place every day in the city, at a fixed hour in the afternoon, where a clerk from every banking-house presents to the representatives of the other houses all the drafts upon them which have, in the course of the morning, been paid at his house, and receives notices from them, in his turn, of all the drafts on his establishment which have been paid at theirs. In this way a balance is struck among the several clerks; and it is only to meet this balance that it is necessary to provide notes or specie, instead of having to pay and repay the whole of the large sums with which they had debited and credited one another in the course of the day's transactions, during which, it is conjectured, that not less than five millions pass through their hands. Into these details, however, our limits forbid us to enter.

It is known to every reader, that the Bank of England has the exclusive privilege of issuing notes for the use of the metropolis, and consequently that all the private bankers in London are obliged to use its paper or specie in carrying on their business. To prevent, too, the establishment of any powerful rival even in the country, the Bank at an early period procured an act of parliament, restricting the number of partners in all private banks to six individuals; a provision the expediency of which has always created some doubt, and has more lately occasioned a good

* Till 1811, the above are extracted from the *Report of the Bullion Committee*, since that year from returns made to parliament. See Mr. Ricardo, on an "Economic Currency."

BANK. deal of discussion in the lower house of parliament. As the subject is likely to be resumed by the legislature, and some modification introduced in regard to the very questionable restriction just stated, we may be permitted to offer a few remarks tending to lay open the advantages of a more liberal system in favour of private banks; such in particular as are situated at some distance from the metropolis.

The greatest evil, it strikes us, attending the privilege at present enjoyed by the Bank of England, if privilege it ought to be called, is the weakness and insecurity of all country banks, necessarily arising from the limitation of their partnerships. Six men may indeed possess wealth enough to guarantee the commercial dealings of a whole province; and, in point of fact, it is admitted that some of the strongest banks in Great Britain do not consist of a larger number of partners. It must at the same time be conceded, that the greater the number of partners in a banking establishment, the greater is the security enjoyed by the public that it shall continue solvent; for as every partner is responsible to the full amount of his property, it requires not to be stated that the more numerous the holders of bank stock are, the greater, generally speaking, will be the wealth answerable for the bank issues and other engagements. Besides, it must be remembered, that the legal enactment under consideration, was avowedly intended to prevent the establishment of such banks as would in any way rival that in the metropolis, or divide with it the business and confidence of the country. It was to keep private banks in a state of comparative weakness and distrust, that the law was passed which limits the number of partners to six; there is therefore no need for reasoning on the tendency of the measure, as if it were hypothetical or contingent; its declared object being the very result against which the public have the most urgent of all reasons to guard themselves, namely, uncertainty and loss in their money transactions.

In a recent book, entitled a *Review of the Banking System in Britain*, there are a great many facts brought forward which deserve profound consideration. It is mentioned for instance, that within two years after the return of peace, no fewer than two hundred private banks, or nearly one-third of the whole number in existence, stopped payment; involving large districts of the most active and industrious parts of the kingdom in confusion and misery. The same was the case in Ireland, where the same system of restricted partnerships prevailed. It is impossible to estimate the extent of disappointment and actual suffering which followed upon the insolvency of the numerous banks in that country; in which, still more than in England, the credit of the merchant and agriculturist is suspended upon that of the firm which discounts their bills, and honours their drafts. In Scotland, on the contrary, during the trying period in question, although the people are noted for a speculative and adventurous disposition in matters of commerce, not one bank either failed or suspended payment. Indeed we are assured by the author of the tract mentioned above, that there is only one instance on record of a Scottish bank, issuing notes on its own account, having failed; and even in that case, as the property of the numerous partners exceeded greatly the amount of this banking debt, the public did not ultimately lose a single farthing.

We need hardly observe, that the main, if not the sole, cause of this strength and security in the Scottish banks is to be found in the unlimited number of their partners. In the three chartered banks of that country, known by the name of the *Bank of Scotland*, the *Royal Bank of Scotland*, and the *British Linen Company*, the several partners are responsible for the engagements of their respective houses to the amount only of their individual shares; but in all the other banks, whether in the capital, or in the provincial towns, the partners are responsible for the transactions of their representatives to the full extent of their whole fortunes, whether personal or heritable. Edinburgh alone has twelve banks, six of which issue notes; and in one of these the partners amount to upwards of six hundred. In another there are eighty-five partners; and it is stated, that in forming these companies, the principle kept in view is limitation in the amount of individual subscription, and a very considerable extension in the number of subscribers. For instance, in setting up a new bank on the Scottish plan, the object would be to secure six hundred persons who should subscribe £500, rather than six individuals who could advance 60,000 a-piece; for in the latter case, it is probable, the subscription would amount to nearly the whole fortune of the partners; whereas in the other, it is equally probable, that the sum advanced constituted but a small part of the wealth belonging to the subscribers. Suppose the six hundred persons were, on the average, worth £5000, each, the bank capital, ultimately available to the public, would not be less than £3,000,000; whilst in the supposed case of the six partners, each advancing his whole fortune of £50,000, the security to the holders of their paper would be limited to one-tenth of the above sum, that is, to £300,000.

The stability of the Scottish banks, founded on a system so different from that of the private banks in the southern part of the kingdom, is certainly not a little remarkable, and deserves all the attention which it has lately attracted. As the first point of consideration on this head, the legislature has recently removed from private banks, in Ireland, the restriction as to the number of partners, which still affects the same description of banks in England; and in the sister island accordingly, with the exception of Dublin, and we believe a few miles round it, banking establishments may now be formed, embracing as wide a range of partnership as convenience, strength, and expediency may suggest. Such, however, is the panic occasioned by the tremendous failures recently experienced in that country, that no encouragement is given to the formation of private banks even on the improved scheme which has been placed within their reach. The great commercial city of Limerick has, since that period of dismay, been without any bank whatever; and its merchants are said to be still under the necessity of sending their bills for discount to Dublin, a distance of eighty-five miles, and receiving at considerable risk and expense, the proceeds in Bank of Ireland notes. The same effect has been produced, in some parts of this country, by the insecurity and repeated failures of our private banks. In the county of Lanesater, for instance, containing nearly a million of inhabitants, there is at present no issuing bank at all; and so strong is the prejudice of the people there, against the establishment of any such house, that there is no immediate prospect

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of overcoming this reluctance, and reconciling them to the use of local notes, how strongly soever they may be guaranteed by wealth and prudence.

The fluctuation, too, in the number of our country banks, year after year, furnishes at once a proof of their instability, and a measure of the disturbance and jarring which they have hitherto introduced into the movements of commerce. In 1812 there were licensed 761; and in 1817 there were only 576. In 1814, Lincolnshire possessed thirty-three banks, which in two years after were reduced to nine. In Leicestershire, there were in 1814 no fewer than thirteen such establishments, whereas the following year the number was reduced to eight; and similar variations occurred in most other counties. During the same period, that is, from 1811 to 1818, the fluctuation in Scotland was hardly perceptible, and seems to have been confined to what are called agencies, or branches of the principal banks, established occasionally and for temporary purposes, in remote country towns. It appears that in the first of the years now stated, the number of banks north of the Tweed licensed to issue notes was 137, which, in 1819, was only reduced to 128; the number of partners in the former year being 1374, and in the latter year 1473. The partners in the three chartered banks are said to be numerous; but independently of them, we find that the unchartered companies in Scotland consist of nearly as many partners as the whole provincial banks in England put together; and it is somewhat remarkable, that although in these last copartnerships six individuals are legally allowed, the average number in them does not appear to exceed three in each.

We pretend not to know all the reasons for which it seems good to the legislature of the country to continue the restriction already so often mentioned in this article. The Bank of England, so powerful and so rich, no longer needs, if it ever needed, to be recommended to public confidence by a privilege which, whatever may have been its operation in its own favour, has proved extremely prejudicial to all the inferior establishments throughout the kingdom. As an instrument of financial operations in the hands of government, it is no doubt expedient that this great copartnership should enjoy suitable protection against all undue competition in the metropolis of the empire; and, for this reason, we would deprecate all interference with the Bank of England in the city of London and the immediate neighbourhood. Bank of England notes alone should be issued in this great mart and centre of trade. But in the country generally, and particularly in the large manufacturing and shipping towns in the northern counties, as the Bank of England cannot conveniently minister to the wants of the merchant, and

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suit itself to the varying exigencies of trade, so its privileges should cease, and give way to arrangements suggested by local necessity, and which would soon be effected by individual enterprise. In short, let the restriction expire in every place where it exists only to do mischief; but, in order to prevent any sudden recoil, let the relaxation be confined, if thought necessary, in the first instance, to the counties in the north and west, at least sixty miles distant from London. The example of Scotland has proved completely, that private banks may be instituted on principles which will render them as stable and secure as the Bank of England itself: and whether the manifold advantages attending such establishments should be denied to the richest, the most commercial, and, in every respect, the most important part of the united kingdom, is a question that cannot admit of much discussion, nor of a doubtful determination.

We had intended to introduce a sketch of the Bank of Ireland, as also of the National Bank of France; but the former of these is a complete counterpart of our own great establishment in Threadneedle-street; and the other, so far as we can learn, has nothing peculiar in its constitution, or mode of transacting the details of business. The Bank at Dublin enjoyed, as long as it was enforced on this side of the water, the exemption from the necessity of paying her notes in specie; and she was also bolstered up till very lately, with the dubious power of restricting all other banks to a copartnership of six. Both these tokens of legislative favour are now withdrawn, without having to any degree diminished her popularity, or lessened the value of her stock. She is placed under the management of a governor, a deputy governor, and fifteen directors; eight of whom form a court for the despatch of business. They are eligible every year; and it is provided that one-third at least shall be annually changed.

We had almost forgot to mention, that the Bank of England is likewise under the direction of a governor, a deputy governor, and twenty-four directors, who are annually elected by the general court. Thirteen, or more, compose a court for the management of the company's affairs; subject of course to a review of the court of proprietors.

For the sake of those who are desirous of more minute information on the details of banking than is consistent with our plan to bring forward, we refer to the great work of Adam Smith, *On the Wealth of Nations*; Thornton, *On the Paper Credit of Great Britain*; Bosanquet's *Observations on the Report of the Bullion Committee*; Ricardo, on an *Economical and Secure Currency*; and the *Review of the Banking System of Britain*.

BANKRUPT. The definition of a Bankrupt given by Blackstone, is, perhaps, as accurate and comprehensive as any that could be offered. A Bankrupt, according to him, is "a trader, who secretes himself, or does certain other acts, tending to defraud his creditors." Bankruptcy, owing its existence wholly

to the enactments of the legislature, the several acts which are held in law to constitute it, are, of course, to be learned from the statutes which, at various times, have been passed on the subject. The earliest of these was passed in the 54th and 55th of Henry VIII. An ampler statute followed in the 13th of Elizabeth; but

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its provisions were subsequently incorporated in an act of the first year of James I.; and a statute of the twenty-first of the same reign, further completed the code of Bankrupt law. The acts, any of which subject a trader to the operation of this law, are numerous: such are, amongst others, the departing from the realm,—the “keeping house,” as it is technically called, that is to say, secreting himself at home, to avoid the demands of creditors,—the making an assignment of his property, in order to render it unavailable to the discharge of his debts, &c. The general principle of Bankruptcy, as collected from all these acts, is to secure for the best benefit of creditors, the property of an insolvent trader, who shall have manifested an intention of defrauding them. This code of laws is designed for the protection of trade. In order, therefore, to subject a man to their operation, it is necessary that he should be actually and *bona fide*, a trader; not one who casually and incidentally may have had transactions in the way of buying and selling, but a person who seeks his livelihood merely by traffic. The earlier acts of the legislature seem to have been directed penally against the Bankrupt, whom they treat as an offender, making no provision for his ulterior benefit or security. This is in a spirit which has governed the policy of all half-enlightened legislatures. The Roman law of the twelve tables, “*de debitorie in partes secundo*,” is, it may be hoped and believed, to be understood only of a division of his property. See on this point the learned disquisition of Dr. Taylor. It is, however, well known, that, by the laws of that country, an insolvent was liable to stripes and banishment. And, by the laws of Pegu, as cited in a passage from the *Universal History*, by Blackstone, book ii. c. 31., the creditor may sell the person of his insolvent debtor, and his family, and even violate the person of his wife. Such merciless mockeries of justice, indeed, never disgraced our statute-book; and the increasing liberality of views, which commerce so well fosters, has taught the framers of our later laws to consider themselves as legislating for the general interests of trade, without any vindictive impulse against the unfortunate Bankrupt, for whose future support and advantage they have not neglected to make provision.

When a trader has committed an act of Bankruptcy, if any creditor to the amount of £100., any two to the amount of £150., or any three, or more, to the amount of £200., petition the lord chancellor to that intent, a commission issues under the great seal, to certain commissioners, whose duty it is to ascertain, by examination on oath, the debts and property of the Bankrupt; and, after making a due and reasonable allowance for his support, to divide the residue amongst the creditors, in exact proportion to their several demands. *Assignees* are chosen, by the majority of creditors, to whom all the real and personal property is assigned, and in whom it becomes legally vested, for the benefit of the creditors.

If, when the dividend has been made, the Bankrupt can obtain, from such a proportion of his creditors as *qualify*, four-fifths of his debt, a certificate of his having honestly surrendered himself and his property, and in all things conformed to the Bankrupt laws, he is entitled to an allowance out of his effects, whereby he may be enabled again to pursue some line of trade, with advantage to himself and the community: and

the granting this certificate operates as a bar to any debts which he owed at the time of his Bankruptcy, whether proved before the commissioners or not.

A Bankrupt refusing to surrender his person to the commissioners, or to disclose and deliver up all his property, is, by an enactment of the 5th of George II. made guilty of felony, without benefit of clergy. The commissioners have, moreover, a summary power of committing him, if he refuse to answer their interrogatories.

BANKSIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Tetrandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character. Common receptacle elongated, squamose; corolla of four petals; stamina inserted into the limb. Capsule of two valves, two-seeded; seeds winged.

A genus of New Holland, containing many species. For a full account of this genus the reader is referred to Brown in *Transactions of the Linnean Society*, x. p. 302, and to the same author in the *Hortus Kewensis*, l. p. 213.

BANN, a river of Ireland, which descends from the north side of the mountains of Mourne, and flows towards the north-west into Lough Neagh: issuing from the northern extremity of that lake, it passes Coleraine, and enters the sea a few miles east of Lough Foyle. Its length, including the lough, is about seventy miles; and, with the canal of Newry, which joins it to the Irish sea, it peninsulates the north-east portion of Ireland.

BANNER, } Fr. *banniere*; It. *banda*, *bandiera*;
Ba'NNER, } Ger. *bannier*; Sue. *banner*; Dutch,
Ba'NNER, } *bannier*. In A. S. *ban-segn* is the en-
Ba'NNEROL. } sign, or banner. Wægnar derives it
from C. R. *ban*, *exerces*. *Ilbe* and *lye* from
bandro, *signum*; *bandjan*, *significare*. The *banner*,
band-roll, or *ban-segn*, is, perhaps, merely the *band-
roll*, or *bond-sign*, the sign of union; the flag or
standard under which men are united or *banded* for
some common purpose.

Constantyne þis understod, heþere þei he wece,

A croiz, in stude of ys baner, ys men bi fore hym bere.

R. Glouceter, p. 86.

Almerie his banere spread, & oþer bannys nam,

Mikelie biot þei schel of folk þat þei gon to.

R. Bruns, p. 117.

þo banerettis ilhose fro Douer to Durham were.

Id. p. 361.

The red statue of Mars with speer and targe

So shoon in his white baner large,

That all the felles pitteren up and down.

Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. 978.

If she be freuler, and well arised,

He saith his baner is dispheild.

To clepe in gnostes by the weie,

Gower. Con. Am. book v.

And surely to tel you the trouth, this is his verye final intent and
purpose, and the very mark that he sholdeth at, as a speciall poynte
and foundation of all Ludlow's heretie, wherof this man is one of
the baner berers. Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 297.

The king and the queene his mother, with the adolce and con-
sont of the kinges counsaile, sent a bishop and two knyghtes
banerettes, with two notable clerkes, to myr John of Hertsouth,
prynging him to be a meane that they lord, the yong king of
England, might have in mariage the yongest daughter of the erle
of Hertsouth his brother, named Philip.

Grafton. Chronicles, l. 330.

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BANNER. Beside this, on every side of the chariot went CCC. persons
holding long torches, and hordes bearing banners, &c.
BANNER-ET. *Heath. King Henry V.*

And Hampshire next, in the same colours bore
Three lost peasant, th' arms of Beris hold,
Who through world the most famous was of yore.
A silver tower, Dorset's red banners bears:
The Cornish men two greenish had for theirs.

Drapton. Battle of Agincourt.

—The guns wide ope's wood,
That with extended wings a banner'd host,
Under spread ensigns marching might pass through
With horse and chariots rankt in loose array.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book ii.

The scarves and the banners about these did manifoldly dis-
swade use from believing that a vassal of too great a barthen.
Shakespeare. All's Well that Ends Well, fol. 278.

He (the duke of Somerset) made banners, which is a dignity
above a knight, and next to a baron: and these were the last that
from that time to this did ever receive this dignity.

Baker, an. 1547. C. vi.

Then, letting his arise like a short thrall,
He got to him object his halcyon crime,
And to revile, and rate, and revocate call,
And, lastly, to despoil of knightly bannerall.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book vi. c. vii.

Where'er the British banners are display'd,
The suppliant nations shall implore our aid;
Till, thus compass'd, the greater evils confound
Themselves oblig'd, and succour'd by the less.

Taylor. To Sir H. Machworth.

—Great Anne, weighing th' events of war
Momentous, in her prudent heart, these chose,
Three, Churchill! to direct the nice extremes
Her banner'd legions.

J. Philips. Blenheim.

Having received a message of civility from the negro chief, he
(Don Diego d'Alambré) landed, and chose a rising ground, pro-
per for his intended fortress, on which he placed a banner with
the arms of Portugal, and took possession in the name of his
master. *Jakson. Introduction to the World Displayed.*

War has its charms terrible. Far and wide
When stands th' embattled host in banner'd pride;
Poli off, too rashly glows with fond delight
The youthful bravest, and asks the future fight.

Watson. On the Birth of the Prince of Wales.

BANNERET, a knight created on the field of battle by
the ceremony of cutting off the points of his standard,
and reducing it to a square banner. Bannerets are
spoken of under various names, as *equites vexilliferi*,
verillarii, *bannerarii*, *bannerii*, *benderarii*. Some anti-
quaries have been willing to carry their origin in
England as far back as Conan, the lieutenant of
Maximus, who commanded the Roman legions in
England under Gratian, a. d. 363. He divided Eng-
land into forty cantons, and in each fixed forty knights,
to whom he gave the power of assembling under their
several banners as many effective men as were found
in their respective districts. Without quite contend-
ing for so high an antiquity, the rank may unquestion-
ably be traced back to the time of Edward I. and it was
conferred on the most deserving warriors by the Black
Prince and his father, for services in the fields of Poitiers
and Cressy. Bloomst has asserted, that the Bannerets
were anciently called by summons to parliament,
which however seems somewhat too rashly hazarded;
Gwillim alludes to the same opinion, adding cautiously,
"but whether this be a truth, or opinion only, I leave
others to dispute." Is France the order was hereditary,
with us only for life, though, at this day, there are
many distinguished families, who, as the descendants
of Bannerets, continue to use the supporters which

were granted to their knightly ancestors. This how-
ever, is probably an unwarranted assumption, which,
though it might now be invidious to dispute it, origi-
nally crept in through inadvertence on the part of the
heralds in their visitations; for there seems no better
reason why the descendants of Bannerets should lay
claim to such a distinction, than there would be if the
same pretension were advanced by those who could
trace up to an ancestor who was knight of the Bath. In
either case the honour must be deemed strictly per-
sonal, and conveying no privilege or distinction to
others beyond the original grantee.

"The ceremony of their creation is most noble:
the king (or his general, which is rare) at the head
of his army drawn up into a battalion, after a victory,
under the royal standard displayed, attended with all
the field officers and nobles of the court, receives the
knight, led between two renowned knights or valiant
men at arms, having his pennon, or guidon of arms, in
his hand, and before them the heralds, who proclaim
his valiant achievements, for which he deserves to be
made a knight banneret, and to display his banner in
the field. Then the king (or general) says unto him
'Advances thy, Banneret,' and cauceth the point of his
pennon to be rent off, and the new knight having the
trumpets before him sounding, the nobles and officers
accompanying him is remitted to his test, where they
are nobly entertained." Gwillim *Antiqua Honorum*,
175.

The esteem in which this honour was held by
James I. was so considerable, that at the time of the
creation of the order of baronet, when he was willing
to confer on his new dignity every possible considera-
tion, he still reserved to bannerets (if made by the
king's hand under his royal standard in open war) their
precedency before baronets, being the only rank in the
state so distinguished.

The words in the original patent for the creation of
baronets are these: *Quod cupient locum, &c. præ
omnibus militibus, &c. Illis militibus Banneretis ten-
tamento exceptis quos sub vexillis regis, in exercitu
regali, in aperto bello et ipso rege personaliter præ-
sente, explicito, et non aliter creati contigerit.* Gwillim
says, that "the last whom he could trace as having
received this distinction was Sir John Smith, so created
by King Charles at Edge Hill, for having, in that
engagement, rescued the king's standard from the
rebels." This Sir John Smith fell afterwards on the
royal side at Alresford. An attempt however was
made to revive the order by George III. after Lord
Duncan's victory at Camperdown, and Sir Henry
Trollope was created under the royal standard on the
king's visit to the North; but as this involved some
heraldic difficulties on points of precedency, and there
was some apprehension of jealousy on the part of
baronets, the practice was not persisted in.

It seems extraordinary that Charles II. at the resto-
ration, should not have resorted to so obvious a mode
of rewarding many of those acts of chivalrous valour
which had distinguished the partisans of the royal
cause, during the civil wars. Mr. Evelyn mentions,
that the king at one time entertained the design of
instituting, for this purpose, an order of the Royal Oak;
and that such a scheme was matured is evident, as the
celebrated Thomas Simcoe actually engraved the badge
for the new order. The king, however, for reasons
not now easily to be divined, dropped this intention,

BANNER. and instead of bestowing badges of personal distinction on such as had deserved well of his father and himself, augmented the order of baronets, and introduced among his new creations many whose fortunes were ill calculated to support an hereditary dignity.

BANNOCKBURN. In Switzerland the *baneret* seems to have been a civil officer like the *Gonfalonier* in some of the Italian republics. At *Leuvenne* the title (in German *senner*) was conferred on those magistrates, who, according to ancient custom, had the privilege of carrying the banner of the city at the confederation of the cantons.

BANNOCKBURN, a village on the northern bank of the river Bannock, in Stirlingshire, in Scotland, three miles south from Stirling. In it is a manufactory of cotton cloth, and an extensive colliery. The tartan used by the highland regiments is also manufactured here. But its celebrity is derived from the decisive battle fought in its neighbourhood on the 24th of June 1314, between Edward II. and Robert Bruce.

After the murder of Piers Gaveston, the apparent union of all parties enabled Edward to renew his favourite design of reducing Scotland, and he assembled his forces from all quarters, with the hope of striking a single and decisive blow. Gascony, Flanders, and other foreign countries furnished vassals or mercenaries. A number of half barbarous Irish and Welsh joined his ranks from a hope of plunder; and these, added to the existing military hands of England, formed an army, which, when it approached the northern frontiers, is said by the Scottish historians, perhaps with a little natural exaggeration, to have amounted to 100,000 men.

The castle of Stirling, which with Berwick were now the only fortresses remaining in the hands of the English, had been long besieged by Edward Bruce. De Mowbray, the governor, after a gallant defence, had promised to capitulate on a fixed day, unless he was relieved beforehand; and to prevent the approach of Edward's force for this purpose, Robert Bruce placed himself at the head of 30,000 men, to which were added about half as many more of the undisciplined rabble which in those times followed a march. Bruce had the choice of ground on which he was to give battle, and he selected it with all imaginable skill, and with due reference to the predominating strength of the hostile army. The Scotch were greatly inferior in cavalry. Bruce accordingly posted himself with a hill on his right flank, and a morass on his left. On the banks of the river Bannock, which skirted his front, he dug deep pits, sharp stakes were planted in these, and the whole were then carefully covered with turf and brushwood. The English occupied nearly the line of the present turnpike road from Stirling to Kilsyth, from the river at Bannockburn to St. Ninians; and the stone on which the king is said to have fixed his standard, is still to be seen. Towards evening the vanguard of horse approached the Scottish line. Robert was in front of his troops inspecting their ranks, and watching the movements of his adversary. An English knight of the family of Hereford, Henry de Bohun, recognised him by the crown which he wore upon his helmet. They engaged in single combat, and Bruce at the first blow cleft his antagonist to the chin with his battle-axe, in the sight of both armies. The English horse dismayed with the loss, fled precipitately to their main body.

On the next morning both armies were early under arms. The Scottish centre was commanded by Douglas and Walter the high steward; Randolph led the right, Edward Bruce the left; Robert himself took charge of the reserve, consisting of the men of Argyle, Carrick, and the islanders. In a valley to the rear, to the westward of a rising ground, now called Gillies hill, he disposed his baggage and camp followers. The English confident in numbers, elated by former successes, and burning to revenge the disgrace of the preceding evening, advanced to the attack. The van of archers and lance-men was commanded by Gilbert de Clare, earl of Gloucester, the king's nephew, and Humphry de Bohun, constable of England. Aymer de Valance, earl of Pembroke, and sir Giles de Argeatiae, two experienced generals, attended on the king in the main body. Maurice, abbot of Iochoffray, placing himself on a height, celebrated mass before the Scots. Then passing along the front bare-footed, and raising a crucifix in his hand, he briefly exhorted them to resist the invading tyrant and defend their liberty. As he spoke the armed men fell upon their knees, and Edward at first mistook the action for a token of submission. He was soon undeceived, and the engagement began with the uttermost fury.

The English archers at first pressed sorely upon the Scottish line, and Bruce, after severe loss, was compelled to advance with his reserve, and to detach the few horse which he could spare to take the enemy in flank. At the same moment the English cavalry, under the earl of Gloucester, hastening rapidly to the charge fell into the snare which had been prepared for them. The young earl, attempting to rally his followers, was thrown from his horse and cut to pieces. In this confusion, a circumstance, concerning which the historians do not distinctly inform us, whether it must be attributed to accident or to design, decided the fate of the battle. The camp followers who had been stationed with the baggage, ascended the neighbouring height, if not by Bruce's command, either to view the engagement, or from a hope of plunder. They presented to the astonished English the appearance of a strong reserve freshly entering the field; and panic struck at the unexpected sight the whole line wavered and gave way. The rout soon became general. De Argentine, who ranked with Robert Bruce, and the emperor Henry, as one of the chief worthies of his time, and who was well known for his prowess in many personal conflicts in the Holy Land, refused to fly, and rushing into the midst of the Scotch was instantly killed. Pembroke seeing the battle irretrievably lost, urged the king to quit the field. He was hotly pursued by Douglas, and, as it has been quaintly expressed by lord Hailes, fled so swiftly, that "*ne vel maligni locus concederetur*." The gates of Dunbar were opened to him by the earl of March, and so that town he found protection until he crossed the sea to Berwick. Many of the fugitives sought refuge in the rocks about Stirling castle, and many were drowned in the neighbouring rivers. The pursuit continued for ninety miles. A rich booty fell into the hands of the conquerors; and more than 400 prisoners of rank were captured, whose ransom increased the spoil.

On the side of the English, exclusive of the common men slain, whose number was never clearly ascertained, and on these occasions is always mag-

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nified, there fell twenty-seven barons and bannerets, forty knights and seven hundred esquires. The Welsh who served in their army were cruelly butchered by the peasants. The English who had been dispersed in the neighbourhood gave themselves up and obtained quarter. Stirling castle surrendered, and among the prizes of the victory was the privy seal of England. Perhaps the most remarkable prisoner who fell into the power of the conquerors, was a Carmelite friar, one William Baston, a poet, whom Edward, confidant of triumph, had brought with him as a spectator and chronicler of his glory. Bruce punished him by employing his muse on the opposite side, and compelling him to record the defeat of his royal patron. Pennant has preserved some of his lines. We do not know which of the two, the bard or his recorder, is answerable for the false quantity in them. The change of a single letter (*arcta* for *arcto*) remedies it, and for aught we can see, without any diminution of the sense.

Hic capiti; hic rapti; hic teriti; hic feriti; ecce dolores
Vox haust; an sonati; hic rati; hic hui; arcto modo res.
Hic arcti; hic necti; hic docti; hic nocti; late fugasti;
Hic latet; hic patet; hic premitt; hic gemit; hic superasti.

Such was the greatest overthrow which the English power had suffered since the Norman conquest. For the time it established the independence of Scotland, and fixed Bruce on the throne of that kingdom; while for many years so great was the terror of the Scottish arms, that no superiority of numbers could persuade the English to face them in the field. Of this decisive battle but few local memorials are now existing. Two stones placed in a garden at Keohouse mark the spot of the engagement between the cavalry of the hostile armies on the eve of the greater contest, and the field in which they stand is called Randolph's field. On a place called Broxburn, the stone supposed to have borne Bruce's standard is called the Bearstone. A field about a mile from the battle plain in which the English attempted to rally, is known by the name of the Bloody-field; and an English leader, Sir Ingram Unfraville, is still remembered in Ingram's creek.

More than 150 years after the battle of Bannockburn, a field within a mile of the same spot, the little Cangiout, on the bank of the Sauchieburn, witnessed the defeat of James III. by his nobles, among whom was his eldest son, the duke of Rothsay. James fell from his horse while attempting to escape, and was carried in a state of insensibility to a neighbouring mill, called Beaton's mill. There, laid carelessly in a corner, and covered with a coarse garment, he gradually regained his senses, and apprehensive of fatal consequences, he asked for a priest. The priest who shivered him, at the same moment, stabbed him to the heart. The scene of this enormity still exists in part in the wall of a dwelling house, which is a remnant of the old building.

BANQUET, s. } Fr. *banquet*; Ital. *banchetto*;
BANQUET, s. } Span. *banquete*, *banquetto*; Ger.
BANQUET, s. } and Dutch, *banquet*, Skinner and
BANQUET, s. } Wachter agree that it is from
BANQUETING. } *bank*, a bench or table; because
(*contra*) messmates sit or recline at the same bench or
table, to eat, feed or feast together.

Now applied to sumptuous and luxurious feasting,

And sometimes to that addition to a meal, now called a dessert.

The French king retained them very honorably, and pompously banqueted them, shewage to them goodly houses and marvellous pastimes. *Mal. Henry V. fol. 41.*

Not long after this it happened that certain of these great doctors had insulted Mr. Welsh, and his wife to a banquet, where they had talked at will and pleasure, vitiating their blindness, and ignorance without any resistance, or guile saying.

Tyndall's Works, B. 1.

Nether the doctors & chamber maisters the delicious bickertown, & very voluptuous me, take up any high degree here.

Cabine. Faunt Gullies Sermons.

It was heaving that the untidy days of a wicked king, should be pulsed with the death of a man of more holy living and godly conversation; and that the myddes of the excessive banqueting and courtlye delicacies, should be distayed with the cruell murthering of an innocent, and gyltless person.

Udell, Mark, esp. vi.

When Cyrus had espied Astyages and his fellows coming drunk from a banquet, laden with variety of follies and filthiness; with their legs falling then, their eyes red and staring, couched with a sweet cloud, and stoned by a doubled object, their tongues full of spunges, and their heads no wiser, he thought they were poysoned, and he had reason. *Taylor. Sermons xv. fol. 147.*

— There will not hence

Till I set on thee: thy rag'd impudence
Is so fast footed. Are there not beside
Other great banqueters, but you must ride
At another still with us? He nothing said,
But thought of ill enough, and shook his head.

Chapman. Homer's Odyssey, book xx.

No more shall I be tane unto the wake,
Nor wend a fishing to the winding lake;
No more shall I be taught, on silver strings
To learn the measures of our banqueters.

W. Browne. Britania's Pastorals, book ii. s. 4.

He himself would intercept your majesty
To come and see his bonely citadel,
And banquet with him ere thou leav'st the isle.

CALV. To banquet with him in his citadel?
I fear me, messenger, to feast my train
Within a town of war so lately pillaged,
Will be too costly and too troublesome.

Morison. Jew of Malta, act v.

The sun declin'd had shot his western ray,
When, tir'd with business of the solemn day,
I purpos'd to unband the evening hours,
And banquet private in the women's bowers.

Prior. Solomon, book ii.

The banquets of my votaries are never costly, but always delicious; for some eat or drink at them who are not invited by hunger and thirst.

Taylor, No. 37.

[It Christianity] allows us to see the world, provided we do not abuse it. It does not spread before us a delicious banquet, and then come with a "touch not, taste not, handle not."

Porteus. Lecture on St. Matthew, lect. vii.

In this place is a banquetting-room; which, though it stands remote from the sea, enjoys a prospect nothing inferior to that view; two apartments run round the back part of it, the windows whereof look upon the entrance of the villa, and into a very pleasant kitchen garden. *Melmoth. Pliny, let. xvii. book ii.*

BANSTICKLE, in Zoology, a name of the *Gasterosteus aculeatus*, or three-spined stickleback. See GASTROSTES.

BANTAM, a town in Java, (latitude 6° 4' S. longitude 106° 3' E.) once a flourishing capital, now a heap of ruins. Its harbour has been gradually choked up with alluvial soil from the surrounding hills, and hence arises the decline of the place. The air also has become so unhealthy that its inhabitants have been compelled to desert it.

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It was formerly an independent state, but was much shackled by the neighbourhood of the Dutch, in the province of Jacatra. The king of Bantam called in the assistance of the Dutch against the Portuguese in 1595; and, as a return for their aid, allowed them to build a factory; and the English, under Captain Lancaster, established one in 1603. This sovereign had a commercial navy of his own as late as the latter end of the seventeenth century, and sent an embassy to England in 1661, to request assistance against the Dutch, but without success; for the latter took his capital in the following year, and in 1683 entirely possessed themselves of the government; upon which the members of the English factory withdrew to Surat. Hamilton's *East India Gazetteer*; Thon's *Conquest of Java*.

BANTAM, or dwarf cock, in Zoology, a well known variety of the species *Phasianus gallus*. See PHASIANUS.

BANTER, s. } Not in our old lexicographers;
BANTER, s. } and of unsettled etymology. The
BANTERER, s. } application of the word appears to
be this: to play upon with light and humorous rail-
lery, mockery or ridicule,—by ascribing doubtful or
excessive merits or virtues;—by eliciting concealed
weaknesses, lurking follies.

For those that were his [A. Hodge's] acquaintance, knew him to be a most admirable philologist, a man of a great memory, and well vers'd in several sorts of learning; but being delighted to please himself in a jocular and bantering way among junior masters, could never be courted to set pen to paper for that purpose. Wood. *Fest. Oxon.* l. 275.

Which I have heard him [R. Grubby] several times very confidently report; yet he being a reputed banterer, I could never believe him, in that or any thing else. *Id.* l. 215.

Th' thus, malicious deity,
That thou hast banter'd wretched me;
Thou made me vainly lose my time,
Thou fool away my youthful prime.
Wish. *On loving one I never saw.*

Thoughtless atheists, and illiterate drunkards, call themselves free thinkers; and geometers, banterers, blunders, swimmers, and twenty new-born insects more, are, in their several species, the modern men of wit. Tatler, No. 12.

Where wit hath any mixture of railery, it is but calling it banter, and the work is done. This polite word of theirs was first borrowed from the buffies in White Friars, then fell among the footmen, and at last retired to the pedants, by whom it is applied as properly to the productions of wit, as if I should apply it to Sir Isaac Newton's mathematics; but if this bantering, as they call it, be so despicable a thing, whence comes it to pass they have such a perpetual itch towards it themselves.

Swift. *Tale of a Tub. Author's Apology.*

I knew a lady of excellent parts, who had got past thirty without having ever had the least notice of any such thing; she was so great a stranger to it that when she heard me and another talking of it, could scarce force herself thinking we bantered her.

Lack. *Conduct of the Understanding.*

Declining worth imperial wit supplies,
And Momo's triumphs, while Astrea flies.
No truth so sacred, banter cannot hit,
No fool so stupid, but he aims at wit.

Whitehead. *On Ridicule.*

BANTLING. *Jafans ante nuptias.* Serenius. A child born, or at least begotten, before the marriage of the parents. Perhaps *hina-telling*, or *bane-telling*. Now more generally applied to any infant.

That pretty Cupid, little god of love,
Whose impud wings with speckled plumes are dight,
Who woundeth men below, and gods above,
Raving at random with his father's flight:
Whilst lovely Venus stands to feed the aim,
Smiling to see her wanton bantering's game.

Drayton. *Pastorals*, ecl. 7.

A cradle, brother, and a basket,
(Granted as soon as e'er I ask it.)
A coat not of the smallest scantling,
Frocks, stockings, shoes, to grace the bantering.

Prior. *The Mice.*

In the very womb of this last sentence, pregnant, as it should seem, with a Hercules, there is formed a little bantering of the mortal race, a deperate, puny parenthesis, that totally frustrates our most sanguine views and expectations, and disgraces the whole generation. Burke. *On a Regicide Prince*

BANTRY, a town in the county of Cork in Ireland, on the east coast of a bay to which it gives its name. The bay is twenty-five miles long and about seven broad, with from ten to forty fathoms water. It affords a fine harbour, sometimes known by the name of Bearhaven; and it contains two small islands, called Bear and Whiddy. High mountains encompass it, and it is indented by numerous creeks and inlets. In 1689, an indecisive action took place here between an English squadron, under admiral Herbert, and a French armament which had been equipped to assist the Jacobites. In December 1796, a large French force, seven sail of the line, two frigates and seven transports, anchored in this bay. They had been equipped at Brest, and had been invited by the treasonable faction of united Irish. The inhabitants of the coast made every effort to prevent a landing; and the French commander discouraged by his reception, gave up his attempt; and after remaining four days in his anchorage, returned to Brest with the loss of seven of his fleet.

BANYAN TREE, a name of the *Ficus Indica*, or Indian fig-tree.

BAOBAB or BAWOAB, the name of the *Adansonia digitata*, Willd., sp. pl. This tree is the largest production of the whole vegetable kingdom. The trunk is not above twelve or fifteen feet high, but it is from sixty to eighty-five feet round. The lowest branches extend almost horizontally, and as they are about sixty feet in length, their own weight bends their extremities to the ground, and thus they form an hemispherical mass of verdure about one hundred and twenty, or one hundred and thirty feet in diameter. The central root penetrates far into the earth; the rest spread near the surface. The flowers are in proportion to the size of the tree; and are followed by an oblong fruit pointed at both ends, about ten inches long, and five or six broad, covered with a kind of greenish down, under which is a rind, hard, black and radiated. The fruit hangs to the tree by a pedicle two feet long, and one inch in diameter. It contains a whitish, spongy, juicy substance of an acid taste, and seeds of a brown colour of the shape of a kidney bean, which are called *gani*. The pulp by which the seeds are surrounded, is powdered when dry, and brought into Europe from the Levant, under the name of *ferra sigillata leuina*.

The kernel of the fruit contains a large proportion of alkali when burnt, and the negroes mix it with palm oil to make soap.

The bark of the tree is called *lala*; the negroes dry it in the shade, and then powder it; after which it is preserved in little cotton bags. Of this they put two or three pinches into their food; it is mucilaginous and

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is supposed to prevent excessive perspiration. This mulcinate of the bark, as well as the fresh fruit and dried leaves, is believed to be a powerful remedy against the epidemics of the country.

This tree is a native of the west coast of Africa, from the Niger to the kingdom of Belin.

BAPT.E. Athenian priests who celebrated the effeminate and abominable orgies of Cottyto or Bendis the Thracian Venus. The foul rites of this atrocious sect are no further stigmatized by Horace than as the *sacrum liberi Cupidinis* (Epos. xvii. 38.) Juvenal's indignation is of a more manly cast; and he assimilates the enormities which they committed under the "secret lamp," to the practice of the equally impure brotherhood which he so vigorously describes as polluting Rome in the reign of Domitian (Sat. 11.) The poet Enpolis is said to have satirized the priests of Cottyto in a comedy which bore their name *Baptæ*; and, in revenge, if we believe Suidas, to have been drowned by Alcibiades, to whom he particularly alluded. Cicero however (*ad Atticum*, l.) treats this account as a fable. The name *Baptæ* is obviously derived from *βαπτίζω*, as the commentators take care to inform us. We are however fortunately too ignorant of the particulars of their mysteries, to determine from what especial form in them the priests derived their title. The bitter jest of Alcibiades, when he perpetrated his supposed act of vengeance on the offending bard, depended upon this etymology. "Be thou one of the *Baptæ* in the sea, as thou hast made me one on the stage." More on the subject of Cottyto may be found in Syl. Girald. *de Dia* *swit. apulicam*, vi.

BAPTISIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Dicandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: calyx semi four-veined, bilabiate; corolla papilionaceous, petals nearly equal in length; vexillum reflected laterally; stamina deciduous; legume ventricose, pedicellate, many-seeded. *Hort. Kew.*

A genus closely allied to *Pedicularia*, containing four species. *Botanical Magazine*, 509. 1099. 1177.

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BAPTIZER.

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BAPTISMAL.

BAPTIST.

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BAPTIZATION.

And of Seynt Siluestre þe pope hym let baptize anon.

And he was (as ys in yorie) þur mead þe.

And he bi com in his baptizing bol of ys wo.

R. Gloucester, p. 86.

A church of Seynt Ioe þe baptist Constantin let were,
And clepde yt Constantiniane, for he was baptizid þere.

Id. Id.

If þou þe leod wilt yeld, þerof is to speke,

& si þen if þou wilt þi þy forsaþe & breke,

& takn our baptisme of fowle, as childre þing.

I wille gyf þe a resme, & do þe covenen hyng.

R. Brunne, p. 193.

Certes, if he be baptizid without penitence of his old gilt, he receiveth the marke of baptism, but not the grace, ne the remission of his sinnes, til he have very repentance.

Chaucer. *The Parson's Tale*.

For all his hole herte he lode
Upon Constance: & made he shulde,
For love of hir, if that she wolde,
Baptizene take, and Cristes faith
Beleeve. *Genec. Conf. Am.* book ii. fol. 33. c. 1.

Jon was in desert baptizynge and prechinge the baptym of pen-
nence into remission of synnes. *Wyclif. Mark*, chap. I.

John dyd baptize in the wilderness, and preach y^e baptisme of
repentance: for the remission of synnes. *Bible*, 1551.

In the daies Jon Baptist cam, and prechide in the desert of Iudee.
And seide do ye penance for the kyngdom of heuven schal nigh.
Wyclif. Mat. chap. iii.

In those dayes John the Baptist came & preached in y^e wilderness
of Jewry, saying, repent, the kingdom of heuven is at hande.
Bible, 1551.

Wherefore wilt John declaring constantly his own righteousness,
& setting forth y^e worthines of Christ, did refuse y^e office of a
baptizer, Christ by no sinister suspicion did steine his own innocencie,
which it belongeth to be knowne & beleued of all men.

Udell. *Mat.* esp. iii.

His baptizme gives virtus to ours. His last action (or rather
passion) was his baptizing with blood: his first was his baptizement
with water: both of them wash the world from their sin.

Mal. *Cost.* Christ's *Bap.*

But this thief did but then come to Christ, he knew him not
before; and his case was, as if a Turk or heathen should be con-
verted to Christianity, and be baptizid, and enter newly into the
covenant upon his death-bed: then God pardons all his sins. And
so God does to Christians when they are baptizid or first give up
their names to Christ by a voluntary confirmation of their baptismal
vow: but when they have once entered into the covenant, they must
perform what they promise, and to what they are obliged.

Taylor. *Sermon* vi. fol. 60.

Three days after, the governor's daughter Eleanor, wife of An-
nias Durr, one of the assistants, was delivered of a daughter in
Roxburgh, and the infant was christened there the Sunday following,
who, because she was the first Croonian or Christian born in that
country, was baptizid by the name of Virginia.

Gibb's *Life of Sir Walter Raleigh*, fol. vii.

Wondrous good man! whose labours may repel

The forces of sin, may stop the rage of hell;

Thou, like the baptist, from thy God was sent,

The crying voice, to bid the world repent.

Prior. *To Dr. Sherlock*.

This baptismal profession, which he ignorantly laugheth at, is
attested by fathers, by councils, by liturgies.

By *Brinkley's* *Schism* guarded, p. 205.

The great church, baptistery, and leaning tower, [at Pisa] are
very well worth seeing, and are built after the same fancy with the
cathedral of Siena.

Adeline's *Travels*.

Josephus informs us, that John exhorted the Jews not to come
to his baptism, without first preparing themselves for it by the
practice of virtue, by a strict adherence to the rules of equity and
justice in their dealings with one another, and by manifesting a
sincere piety towards God.

Porteus. *Lecture on St. Mat.* lect. xxxiii.

The clothing of the baptist was no less simple than his diet. His
raiment, we are told, was of camel's hair, with a leathern girdle
about his loins; the same coarse habit which the meener people
usually wear, and which sometimes even the rich assumed as a
garb of mourning.

Id. Id.

Philosophy, baptist's d

In the pure fountain of eternal love,

Has eyes indeed & view, and all she sees

As meant to indicate a God to man,

Gives him his praise, and forfeits not her own.

Cooper. *The Tash*, book iii.

BAPTISM.

BAPTISM. BAPTISM is the first, or initiatory, sacrament of the New Testament, being an ordinance appointed by our Lord Jesus Christ himself, whereby we are admitted members of that spiritual society of believers, which is called in the language of scripture, the "church of Christ."

Derivation. The word Baptism is derived from the Greek βαπτίζω, and means literally dipping or immersion: it is however used generally, as in *Mark* vii. 8, to express the washing of vessels, and by St. Paul, *Hebrews* ix. 10, with reference to the legal ablutions and washings prescribed by the law of Moses.

The use of water as an instrument of religious initiation, was not unknown to the Greeks before the time of Christ. We have the authority of Clemens Alexandrinus and Tertullian, for stating, that purification by water was the first ceremony performed at initiation into the Eleusinian mysteries; and Hesychius renders the word ἱεραπνοῦς or the waterer, by ἱεραπνοῦς τῶν Ελευσινίων, the priest, whose office at the Eleusinian mysteries was that of purifying. Whether this rite was derived from some ancient patriarchal tradition prevalent in Egypt, from which country the mysteries were introduced into Greece, or rather owed its origin to mere human invention, it is impossible satisfactorily to conjecture. Thus much may be observed, that purification by water seems an emblem, so naturally fitted to express that mental purity, with which we ought to approach the Deity, that it scarcely requires the supposition of a divine tradition, to account for its being adopted as a religious ceremony, amongst people unenlightened by revelation.

Baptism was also used by the Jews together with circumcision to the admission of proselytes. The Jews considering that themselves had been admitted into the Mosaic covenant, by circumcision, by Baptism, (when they washed their clothes and sanctified themselves previous to receiving the law at Mount Sinai,) and by sacrifice, required the same rites to be observed by proselytes. A woman proselyte they admitted by Baptism and sacrifice: In cases where the proselyte had children, they not only circumcised, but also baptized them. They called the Baptism of a proselyte his new birth or regeneration. Wall in his work on *Infant Baptism*, thus draws a parallel between Jewish and Christian baptism.

Parallel between Jewish and Christian Baptism.

1. The Jews required of proselytes a renunciation of idolatry and to believe in Jehovah.

2. The Jews interrogated the proselyte, while standing in the water.

3. The Jews baptized the infant children of proselytes.

4. The Jews required for an infant proselyte, that either his father, or the church of the place, or three grave persons, should answer for the child.

5. A Jewish proselyte was said to be born again, when baptized.

1. The Christians required to renounce the devil and all his works, and to believe in the Trinity.

2. The Christian put interrogatories on the catechumen who had to enter the water, when he about to be answered in the consecration.

3. The Christians baptized infants.

4. The Christians observed a similar custom.

5. Our Saviour and the Apostles call Baptism, regeneration or being born again.

6. The Jews told the proselyte that he was now clean and holy.

7. The Jews declared the baptized to be under the wings of the Divine Majesty or Shechinah.

8. At the paschal season, the Jews baptized proselytes that they might eat the pasover.

9. The Jews had their proselytes of the Gate.

6. The same term is used in the New Testament: the baptized Christians are called the Saints, the holy, the sanctified; "sanctified with the washing of water."

7. Among Christians this was shown by the gift of the Holy Ghost: to this end the laying on of hands was used, a custom probably taken from the Jewish church.

8. The Christians at Easter administered Baptism in a solemn manner.

9. The Christians had their catechumens or competentes.

BAPTISM.

If it be asked upon what authority this parallel is drawn, we answer upon the best authority next to scripture, that can be had respecting Jewish antiquity, that of the Babylonian Talmud and the writings of Maimonides. The Talmudists and the Rabbins may be wretched expositors of the law committed to the keeping of the people of God; but this circumstance will not invalidate an historical testimony which asserts the existence of a particular custom at the time when their writings were composed. The Talmud was completed at the termination of the fifth century, and the laws there recorded, relating to proselyte Baptism, must be taken as an evidence of facts then existing. We cannot but regard the information thus obtained, as a proof of a custom long established in the Jewish church, either prior to, or coeval with, the promulgation of the gospel, which throws much light upon the adoption of Baptism, by our Lord, as one of the sacraments of his church; but if, on the other hand, we should suppose that Baptism was a ceremony unknown to the Jews till after the time of Christ, we must come to this most strange conclusion, that the Jews took into their religion the distinguishing sacrament of the Christian dispensation, and imitated the religious rites of that people, whom they most detested and abhorred.

Let us proceed, now, to consider the nature of that baptism which was administered by John the Baptist in his character of forerunner of the Messiah. That John John's baptism in obedience to the Divine command, is evident from his own words, "he that sent me to baptize with water." (*John* i. 33.) The object of this Baptism was to prepare the way for the coming of the Saviour, by teaching the necessity of repentance, and directing the people to look for the presence of the Messiah. We do not find that any surprise was expressed by the Jewish nation at the practice of this rite by John; on the contrary, they seem, from some source or other, to have been led to expect that a general Baptism would take place at the coming of Messiah. "Why baptizest thou them if thou be not Christ, neither Elias, nor that prophet?" was the reply of the persons sent from the sanhedrin to question John, "who art thou?" It is not improbable that the Jews at that time did interpret the passage of the Red sea, and the overshadowing cloud allegorically, as a Baptism of initiation: in compliance with which tradition St. Paul addressed the church at Corinth with the remarkable

Authorities in proof of Jewish Baptism.

how received by the Jews.

BAPTISM.

passage, 1 Cor. x. 1. in which he affirmed the Baptism of Christ to be typified by the Passage of the Red sea.—“Moreover, brethren, I would not have you ignorant that all our fathers were under the cloud, and all passed through the sea, and were all baptized unto Moses in the cloud and in the sea.” It is evident that vast multitudes of Jews must have been baptized by John; when we find “that all men moved in their hearts whether he were the Christ,”—that the Pharisees and Sadducees came to his baptism; that soldiers besought his counsel; that the publicans and harlots flocked to his teaching, we cannot doubt that the rite of baptism was generally received by all who anxiously expected the deliverance of their nation, under the government of the Messiah. John prophesied also of Christ’s Baptism, distinctly declaring that his Baptism was only initiatory to a rite of more holy institution and greater efficacy. “I indeed baptize you with water unto repentance, but there standeth one among you whom ye know not; he shall baptize you with the Holy Ghost and with fire.” The Baptism of John was intended not only to prepare the people for the Messiah’s advent, but also to be the means of announcing publicly that important event, when the Messiah coming with the rest of the people to the river Jordan to receive John’s Baptism, should be greeted, in the presence of admiring multitudes, with the voice from heaven, declaring, “This is my beloved Son, in whom I am well pleased—hear him.”

Purpose of John’s Baptism.

Christian Baptism.

We come now to the more immediate subject of this article, Christian Baptism. We shall notice first: the original institution of this sacrament; the necessity and the benefit of receiving it. Secondly: the persons to whom it may be administered, and the persons authorised to administer it. Thirdly: the essential parts of Baptism. Fourthly: the additions made by the authority of the church to the form of administering Baptism, and the ceremonies that have been at different periods of the Christian church observed in the administration of this sacrament.

Instituted by Christ.

1. Baptism was instituted by our Lord himself, as the means of admission into his church, when he gave this direction to his disciples after his resurrection (*Matt. xvi. 15, 16*): “Go ye and teach all nations, baptizing them in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost. He that believeth and is baptized shall be saved; he that believeth not shall be damned.” It corresponds as the sacrament of initiation to the rite of circumcision in the Jewish church, being the badge and mark whereby Christians are discerned from those who are not Christian. The analogy between Baptism and circumcision appeared so forcibly to the church, under the government of St. Cyprrian, that it was doubted by some in his time, and his opinion was requested, whether Baptism ought not to be delayed till the eighth day after the birth of a child, in order that the resemblance between the Jewish and Christian sacrament might be strictly preserved. Nor is it without reason that the church has in all ages held this opinion, that circumcision was the type of Baptism: no words can point out the analogy between more strongly than those of St. Paul, *Col. ii. 11*: “In whom ye are circumcised with the circumcision made without hands, in putting off the body of the sins of the flesh by the circumcision of Christ (by Christian Baptism) buried with him in baptism.” With such high authority for comparing

these two sacraments together as that of the apostle, BAPTISM. It is not wonderful that the church has deemed those arguments valid for the Baptism of infants, which are drawn from the practice of administering circumcision to infants, ordained in the law of Moses. That Baptism must be received by all who believe, is evident from the words of the institution, “he that believeth and is baptized shall be saved.” The early fathers of the Christian church were very strong in their expressions even of the danger incurred by infants who died unbaptized: perhaps they were too severe. Whether it be possible for a man to be saved without Baptism, our church no where decides. The words of Scripture seem to be on the side of the absolute necessity. Upon this point we may quote the words of Hooker. “If Christ himself, which giveth salvation, do require Baptism, it is not for us that look for salvation to sound and examine him whether unbaptized men may be saved; but seriously to do what is required, and religiously to fear the danger which may grow by the want thereof.” It is here proper to remark, that the necessity of receiving Baptism was anciently considered to rest not only upon the words of institution, but also upon the meaning of our Saviour’s discourse with Nicodemus respecting regeneration—(*John iii. 5*). “Verily, verily, I say unto thee, except a man be born again of water and of the Spirit, he cannot enter into the kingdom of God.” If these words, as all the fathers of the church supposed, speak of the rite of external Baptism, the necessity of Baptism to salvation is most evident. The early Christian writers, following the language of St. Paul, who terms Baptism the laver of regeneration, always used Baptism and regeneration as convertible terms. It was the bold temper of Calvin that first suggested an interpretation of the words of our Saviour, applied to an internal change of the heart, and not to the outward ordinance of Baptism: he confessed his interpretation to be new; and yet there are multitudes of persons who are ready to accept Calvin’s authority upon this point, in opposition to the united voices of the writers of the Christian church for fifteen centuries before his appearance on the stage of polemical divinity. It is not our purpose in a work like this to enter upon controversial discussions; but it would have been improper to have passed unnoticed this remarkable fact, with relation to the injury done to the authority of this sacrament, by the admission of Calvin’s interpretation. Interpretations unnecessarily strained, or diverted from their received and obvious meaning, are productive of injuries to the cause of religion, which the commentator scarcely dreams of. It is the observation of Wall, vol. ii. ch. 11, “that though Calvin did write many things in defence of infant Baptism, he has done more prejudice to the cause by withdrawing, as far as in him lay, the strength of this text, which the ancient Christians used as the chief ground of it, than he has ever done good to it by all his new hypotheses and arguments.” But Baptism is necessary, not only by virtue of God’s command, but also for the many benefits which we receive in it. This sacrament is the means and instrument whereby we receive remission of sins. Saint Peter baptized the converted Jews on the day of Pentecost for the remission of sins; and Ananias exhorted Paul, “Arise, and be baptized, and wash away thy sins.” It produces in us “a death unto sin,” whereby we mortify and

Necessity of receiving Baptism.

Anciently enforced from our Lord’s converse with Nicodemus.

Calvin’s interpretation of this passage.

The benefits derived from Baptism.

Corresponds to circumcision.

BAPTISM destroy, through the help of the Spirit, the sinful affections of our corrupt nature; and being born anew unto righteousness, are enabled to do the will of God.

2. *Of the persons to whom Baptism may be administered.* The Christian church admits equally to this sacrament, persons of either sex, adults or infants. This statement naturally directs us to notice the sect of Christians who deny the validity of infant Baptism. We shall defer the history and statement of the argument to the article PEDOBAPTIST; it will here suffice to observe, that there is no church in the world, the Baptists excepted, that does not admit of infant Baptism; and that if the divine authority of the custom has any difficulty of proof, it arises from the question never having been agitated in the annals of Christianity until the period of the Reformation, and that, under circumstances most favorable to the rise of the discussion, had there been in the midst of the fathers of the church any doubt upon the subject. We may here remark, that the service found in the *Common Prayer* for the Baptism of such as are of riper years, was added at the review on the restoration of Charles II., as described in the preface to the *Common Prayer*, in consequence of the growth of Anabaptists, whose principles having gained strength during the preceding century, it was necessary to have a form fitted for the administration of Baptism to adults.

We must not omit to notice that administration of Baptism which was in use in the first centuries after Christ, called clinical Baptism. By clinical Baptism is meant Baptism administered to a person on his death-bed: mention is made of this custom by Cyrillus and Eusebius; by Epiphanius, (in *Heret. Corinth.*) and by other writers of the fourth and fifth centuries. The necessity of so baptizing occurred, when a beathen in his last sickness was converted to Christianity; but it more frequently happened in consequence of the prevalence of a superstitious notion, that Baptism itself washed away all the sins of their past life; and therefore many persons, convinced of the truth of Christianity, delayed to receive it till their last sickness, hoping thereby to die released from the guilt of sin, and to secure their admission into heaven. Against this error we find the fathers of the church, Gregory, Nyssen, Nazianzen, and Chrysostom, inveighing in powerful language. Two of the most remarkable instances of this superstition are found in the emperor Constantine and his son Constantius, who were both baptized on their death-bed. The sincerity of a submission to the self-denying principles of our religion, thus wrung from the convert under fear of death, must have been doubtful: it was therefore decreed by the council of Neocesarea, A.D. 350, and of Laodicea, 363, that no clinic should ever be admitted to the order of a presbyter.

With respect to the persons in whom is vested the office of administering Baptism, we have to observe, that the church has always committed to the clergy the right of admitting persons to this sacrament: it belongs to the bishops and presbyters as a part of their office; but though the deacons have, by the example of Philip, a divine authority for performing this office, the exercise of it by that order appears to have been limited, by the discipline of the church, out of respect to the higher orders of the clergy, to cases of urgent necessity, in which a priest is not present. This submission of the

deacon to his superior, is intimated in the service of ordering deacons, used in the church of England, where the deacon is empowered to baptize in the absence of the priest. Upon the subject of lay-baptism we may be allowed a little to enlarge. Tertullian admits the validity of this sacrament when administered by laymen in cases of urgent necessity; so does the council of Elberis, A.D. 305; and also Jerome. The antiquity of the opinion is confessed by Calvin, *Instit.* l. iv. c. xv. § 90. Basil, however, seems to have held the contrary notion; and the apostolic *Const.* cap. x. l. iv. forbids laymen to baptize. Whether Baptism by laymen be valid or no, is a most important question. Those who are inclined to take up the consideration of the argument, should keep this in mind, that it is one thing to dispute the ecclesiastical right of a layman to baptize, and another to deny the spiritual validity of a sacrament so administered. Upon this point, as well as upon that of Baptism by women, we cannot do better than refer our readers to the arguments of the judicious Hooker, in the fifth book of the *Ecclesiastical Policy*, which, if they be accepted as the sentiments of the most learned clergy of the church of England, will afford a most convincing proof that our church is as free from superstition, as she is from an intolerant spirit. Baptism by a layman is at this time unknown in the church of England; yet, it may be interesting to our readers to notice some of the ancient canons made, during the thirteenth century in England, by the Pope's legate, connected with this point, it will shew to us how far more blessed is the state of our religion in this present age, when there is no occasion, by reason of the absence of spiritual guides, to have recourse to the laity for admitting children into covenant with God. In the constitution of Edmund, archbishop of Canterbury A.D. 1236. 26. H. 3. there is this direction:—

"Item interroget sacerdos laicum diligenter, cum sit necessitate baptizaverit puerum: quid dixerit, etiam quid fecerit. Et si diligenter precedente inquisitione factis sibi fide plena, invenierit laicum distincte et in forma ecclesie baptizasse, sive in Latino, sive in Gallico, sive in Anglico, approbet factum. Si vero baptizatus fuerit puer a laico, precedentia et subsequencia versionem explentur vel supplicantur à sacerdote."— "When a layman has upon urgent necessity baptized a child, the priest shall inquire diligently with what words and acts it was performed; and if upon diligent inquiry he find, and is well persuaded that the layman did distinctly, and according to the forms of the church, whether in Latin, French, or English, baptize the child, he shall confirm the proceeding: but in this case the rites preceding and following the immersion shall be supplied by a priest."

By another constitution of the same archbishop, orders should have water ready at hand to baptize the child, if necessity required. The legate constitutions of Otho, in the following year, gave farther order, that laymen should be instructed how to baptize, which was again enforced in 1560, by the constitution of another legate, Othobon. It would be difficult to say, whether this earnest desire to prevent any child dying unbaptized, was owing more to superstition, than to a professed policy on the part of the clergy, who made a belief in the extreme necessity of Baptism, one means of preserving the people in the profession of

Baptism of such as are of riper years.

Clinical Baptism.

The right of the clergy to administer Baptism.

Lay-baptism.

its validity considered.

Ancient practice of it in England.

Legatine constitution.

their design.

BAPTISM. Christianity. It would seem that lay-baptism became very prevalent in consequence of these constitutions; for we find, in 1379, a constitution of arch. Peckham, in a provincial synod held at Reading, enjoining that Baptism by laymen shall not be repeated; and in cases where it appears doubtful, whether the child has been baptized or not, that the form should be used, which is still preserved in our *Liturgy*. "If thou art not already baptized, I baptize thee, &c." These references to the ancient constitutions of the church of England subsequent to the church of Rome, will elucidate the history of the form of private Baptism now existing in the *Common Prayer-book*. In the *Liturgy* of Edward VI. there is internal evidence that the form of private Baptism was intended for the use of the laity as well as of the clergy, in cases of necessity, where the life of the child was in danger. In the articles drawn up by the convocation, A. D. 1575, the twelfth article contained a solution of a doubt described as having arisen, whether the form of private Baptism might be used by laymen or no. The convocation decided in the negative: but this article, though existing in the MS. was never printed, and the doubt remained till the conference at Hampton Court, in the first year of James I. at which time the form was altered so as expressly to exclude lay-baptism. As the form now stands, instead of being called private Baptism, it might be more correctly termed, "the office for receiving publicly into the church persons baptized at home by the minister:" from this we conclude that lay-baptism is now excluded from the church, there existing no necessity for it; but that the church does not say that lay-baptism is *no* Baptism.

3. *The essential parts of Baptism*, considered with reference to the outward administration of it, are water and the words of institution—"I baptize thee in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost." The Baptists contend not only that

Immersion. water, but immersion in water, is necessary for the perfection of Baptism. We readily admit, that the literal meaning of the word *Baptism* is immersion, and that the desire of resorting again to the most ancient practice of the church, at immersing the body, which has been expressed by many divines, is well worthy of being considered. The origin of sprinkling, with water instead of dipping, must be derived from regard to health: that necessity, as in cases of persons desiring to be baptized on their death-bed, and of weakly children, would justify the use of a small quantity of water, no charitable person can doubt; and, further, there is a strong probability, that when the jailor was baptized, (*Acts*, xvi. 33.) immersion was not practised: but if in any case Baptism is admitted to be valid where immersion is not used, it proves that immersion is not an essential part of it. In England, the custom of sprinkling has in great measure arisen from the principles laid down in the *Directory*, 1644, when the Presbyterian power had gained the ascendancy over the church. Many centuries elapsed before sprinkling became prevalent, for dipping was common at the Reformation; and many more must pass before the custom of immersion could be restored. It is essential to Baptism that it be administered "in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost. A Baptism not administered in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost, or administered without water, our church

considers to be *no* Baptism; and in such cases she would command the person to be baptized according to our Saviour's words. In St. Basil's time there were some who contended on the authority of passages in the *Acts of the Apostles*, li. 38; viii. 16; xx. 48; xix. 5: and *Romans*, vi. 3: *Galatians*, iii. 27; that Baptism ought to be administered in the name of Christ alone. If any one is not contented with supposing, that being baptized in the name of the Lord Jesus, implies also the being baptized according to the form which he ordained, he will find a good solution of the difficulty in the following extract from *Lightfoot's Harmony of the New Testament*, upon *Acts* ii.—"Three thousand converted, are baptized in the name of the Lord Jesus, ver. 38, which no whit disagreeeth from the command, Baptize in the name of the Father and of the Son, &c. *Matt.* xxviii. 19. For the form of Baptism in those first days of the gospel, of which the *New Testament* giveth the story, may be considered under a three-fold condition.—1. John the Baptist baptized in the name of Messiah, or Christ, that was then ready to come; but that Jesus of Nazareth was he, he himself knew not till he had run a good part of his course, *John*, i. 31. 2. The disciples baptizing the Jews, baptized them in the name of Jesus, upon this reason, because the great point of controversy then in the nation about Messiah, was, whether Jesus of Nazareth were he or no. All the nation acknowledged a Messiah, but the most of them abominated that Jesus of Nazareth should be thought to be; therefore those that by the preaching of the gospel came to acknowledge him to be Messiah, were now baptized in his name, as the critical badge of their embracing the true Messiah. But, 3. Among the Gentiles where that question was not moot, they baptized in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost. And so that baptizing in the name of Jesus was for a season, for the settling of the evidence of his being Messiah; and when that was thoroughly established, then it was used no more: but Baptism was in the name of the Father, and of the Son, &c. Of the same cognizance were those extraordinary gifts of the Spirit, evidences of Jesus his being the Messiah, and means of conveying the gospel through the world; and when both these were well established then those gifts ceased for ever."—See also his *Sermon on Matt.* xxviii. 19, where it is proved that John baptized in the name of Messiah now coming.

This sacrament can be received only once; such Baptism has been the universal consent of the church; her only once belief in the single administration of Baptism is expressed in the article of the *Nicene creed*.—"I believe in one Baptism for the remission of sins." The cases which appear to the contrary are derived from the re-baptizing of persons who had been baptized by heretics; but those who administered Baptism in these circumstances, denied altogether the validity of heretical Baptism; that it was *no* Baptism, and that they who had received it were in fact not baptized.

4. *Concerning the additions made by the authority of the church to the form of administering Baptism, and the ceremonies that have at various times been used.*

In the rites of Baptism according to the church of England, we find only two institutions, of purely human origin, namely that of sponsors, and signing with the cross.

History of the form of private Baptism in the *Common Prayer*

Immersion.

Origin of sprinkling.

derived from the Presbyterian.

BAPTISM. Of Baptism in the name of Christ alone.

Lightfoot's opinion.

BAPTISM.

1. *Sponsors or godfathers*, who are called in the ancient writings of the church *patrini* and *διδόχοι* or *susceptores*. The earliest mention of sponsors is made by Tertullian; perhaps it is doubtful whether during the three or four first centuries, the office of answering for the children to be baptized, pertained to the *patrini* or *susceptores*, whom we now term godfathers. The term sponsor used by Tertullian would certainly imply this duty. Cyril of Alexandria, A. D. 412, mentions the susceptor saying, *Amen*, for the child baptized; but it really is of no great moment whether we are enabled or no to trace our present custom to the earliest ages of Christianity—thus much is evident, that from as early a period as the second century, there were attendants upon the children baptized, whose distinct office it was to receive them from the hand of the priest; and since renunciation of sin and profession of faith were made from the earliest periods by adults, it is highly probable that these acts were, in the case of infants, performed by the sponsors or *patrini*. The institution as now used in our church is perfectly free from superstition, indeed it seems but a becoming act of reverence to the Almighty Giver of all good, that for infants who cannot promise for themselves, nor thank him for the great blessings contained in this sacrament, some public acknowledgment should be made, in their name, of the faith and obedience which God demands. To give the name at Baptism, probably, arose from the Jewish custom of naming the child at circumcision.

2. *The sign of the cross*. There is evidence for the use of this custom as early as the third century. Much resistance was made, at the time subsequent to the Reformation, by the Puritans, against the preservation of this rite. Whatever ground there might be at that time for the desire of abolishing it, in consequence of its superstitious use, none now exists. It is a ceremony instructive to those who are present at Baptism. In the thirtieth canon, the practice of it, as if it tended to the perfection of Baptism, is distinctly disclaimed; and to the use of it no person can object, who is not prepared to go the whole length of affirming that the church has no power to decree a ceremony, and that whatever form has been once superstitiously employed is for ever polluted and unlawful. Other customs there were also which are now in disuse, or preserved only in the Roman Catholic church, viz.

1. *Trine immersion* or dipping three times. In the Prayer-book of Edward VI. this form was prescribed, but was afterwards omitted; it was used as early as the third or fourth century.

2. *Chrism* or unction, with plain oil before Baptism, and with unguent after Baptism, is mentioned by Tertullian, Cyprian, Cyril and Chrysostom.

3. *Milk and honey* is mentioned by Tertullian as given to persons after Baptism; some learned men have derived this ceremony from Jewish customs at proselyte Baptism; it seems to have been discontinued after a few centuries.

4. *Exorcism* was used in the fourth century, and was at that time nothing more than as the word implies, putting the baptized upon his oath, and declaring to him his obligation to renounce sin. This ceremony abounds with corruption in the church of Rome.

5. *Candles* were lighted after Baptism, and placed in the hand of the person baptized, as early as the fourth century, as an emblem of the illumination of the spirit.

6. *The chrisom* so called in the English church, was a white garment or surplice, put on immediately after Baptism.

7. *Salt* was not given to the baptized earlier than the eighth century—nor

8. The ears touched with *spittle* till the ninth.

9. Easter and Pentecost were considered *solenus times* for the administration of Baptism, from a period as early as the second and third centuries.

Heretics respecting Baptism during the first five centuries after Christ.

2d Century. Marcion allowed Baptism to be repeated thrice; he affirmed that none but virgins, widows, or celibates were fit subjects for Baptism, and permitted women to baptize. The Montanists baptized the dead. The Valentinians, instead of baptizing in the name of the Father, &c. used a mystical form in the name of the Unknown Father of all things, in the Truth the Father of all things, in him that came down on Jesus, in the union and redemption and communion of powers. They used not water but poured a mixture of oil and water on the head, and then anointed the persons so baptized.

3d Century. The Manichees affirmed that Baptism by water was not necessary to salvation, and accordingly they did not baptize their converts.

4th Century. Arius baptized in the name of the Son only.

5th Century. Pelagius affirmed that infants were baptized for other reasons, and not because of original sin.

Heretics respecting baptism.

BAPTIST.

Baptists,

BAPTIST, the name by which a sect of dissenters from the church of England is at present distinguished; the leading principle of whose separation is, the belief that baptism ought not to be administered to infants, but to persons capable of believing and understanding the religion into which they are baptized. They further hold, that immersion in water is necessary to complete baptism. The Baptists are sometimes termed Anti-pedobaptists, to express the ground of their variance from those Christians who maintain infant baptism,

and who are classed in this controversy under the term Pedobaptist.

Since all Christians agree, that the true religion is that which prevailed in the times of Christ and his apostles, it naturally follows that each sect endeavours to prove the existence of its doctrines, and the reception of them by the church during the times of what is termed primitive Christianity. Nor have the Baptists been wanting in their endeavours to support their opinions by the evidence of antiquity. They assert

are Antip
pedobaptists.

BAPTIST.

Assert their
claim to
antiquity.

that infant baptism was unknown before the third century; that it got footing during the fourth and fifth, and prevailed generally till the Reformation. The grounds of this statement will be hereafter considered under the article *Pædobaptism*; we are here only to state the principal assertions made for the antiquity of the Baptist sect. They further maintain, that during the dark ages and prior to the Reformation, traces are to be met with of what they consider pure baptism: that the ancient British church before the arrival of Austin did not baptize infants; that Bruno and Berengarius in the eleventh century, the Waldenses, the Lollards, and the Wickliffites were opposed to infant baptism; and in compliance with these opinions, they take to themselves the honour of inscribing amongst the patrons of the Baptist sect, William Sawtre the first Lollard martyr in England, who was burnt (1401) in the reign of Henry the fourth.

The truth of these facts will be hereafter examined; it is, however, certain that, at an early period of the Reformation, and before the horrible attempts of the Anabaptists at Munster, disputations were held at Zurich, Bale and Berne upon infant baptism. Anabaptism is said to have taken its rise at that period at Zurich. But we must beware of confounding the Baptist with the Anabaptist sect. The term Anabaptist is one of reproach, and the wild and visionary doctrines held by them, on the subject of civil government, are distinctly disclaimed by the Baptists, who even on the subject of baptism differ from the German Anabaptists, who repeated adult baptism, and used sprinkling instead of immersion. The Anabaptist notions were so contrary to the mild spirit of Christianity, that we cannot wonder that the Baptists were desirous to separate themselves from all connection with that odious sect: we think however that the least candid of them will confess, that it is a difficult task to separate the Baptists from the Anabaptists, for some years after the Reformation in England. That many of those who were persecuted for Anabaptism, during the reign of Elizabeth were pure Baptists, is highly probable; but it must be acknowledged that among the opposers of infant baptism, were too frequently found those who held opinions which the temporal authorities justly considered as incentives to anarchy. Towards the latter part of the reign of Elizabeth, the powers of the Star Chamber and the High Commission, had almost destroyed dissent: the Baptists fled the country, and settled principally in Holland: the existence of this sect then became more evident. At Amsterdam, a Baptist church of English refugees was founded by Mr. Smyth, who had been a beneficed clergyman of the church of England, and having become attached to the Brownist sect, had seceded from the church. Mr. Smyth seems to have held sentiments on the subject of predestination and election, which would be termed Arminian; whether Smyth baptized himself and proceeded to administer baptism to his congregation, or whether he joined with others in restoring, according to a certain form, the pure baptism as he considered it, after it was lost, is a point disputed, although perhaps of no great moment. In the formation of this congregation by Smyth, we have the earliest evidence of the existence of regular Baptist churches, even though the previous prevalence of pure Baptist principles be acknowledged. Smyth died soon after these proceedings, somewhere about the year 1610, and was succeeded in

his charge by Thomas Helwisse, who shortly after returned to England with his congregation, and settled in London; their motive for leaving Holland is said to have been this, that they did not believe themselves justified in living abroad for the purpose of avoiding persecution. The severities exercised by king James the first, at this time, against the Puritans and Baptists, who were still considered Anabaptists, brought forth some writings in defence and explanation of the principles of the Baptists. From the return of the congregation formed at Amsterdam by Smyth and Helwisse, and their subsequent disclaimer of the false notions of the Anabaptists in a petition to the parliament in 1620, we may date the public acknowledgment of the Baptists as distinct from the Anabaptists, though for years after, even to the time when Bishop Taylor wrote his *Liberty of prophesying*, the deniers of infant baptism were still considered to maintain Anabaptist errors; a belief not altogether unjust, when we consider that the fifth monarchy men of Cromwell's time were chiefly Baptists. In the year 1623, the Baptists are described as carrying an external appearance of holiness, and as denying the doctrines of predestination, reprobation, final perseverance, &c. It is therefore probable that the Baptists of this time were what is now termed *General Baptists*. The year 1633 provides us with the earliest records remaining of the formation of a Particular Baptist church in London under Mr. Spilisbury. The persons who formed this congregation had separated themselves from one of the independent persuasions. Upon their separation, being desirous to procure baptism, and probably having some idea remaining, that the right of administering sacraments descends in uninterrupted succession, they sent over to Holland one of their members to receive baptism, and bring over the ordinance to them: such care according to the present notions of the Baptists is unnecessary; and to an objection made, why did not these persons receive their baptism from some members of Helwisse's congregation, it is answered that Spilisbury's followers being Particular or Calvinistic Baptists, would not have any connection with those of the Arminian persuasion. Between these two denominations of Baptists, there never was much intercourse, nor is there at the present day. During the prevalence of the Presbyterian power, prior to the murder of Charles the first, the Baptists as well as the independents suffered much from the intolerant spirit of the Presbyterians. This drew from the Particular or Calvinistic Baptists, a publication of a confession of faith, wherein they wiped away the reproach of *Anabaptism*; professing, that their sentiments were in no wise hostile to regular government. This confession consisted of fifty-two articles: in the doctrinal part it is strictly Calvinistic, and is according to the independent discipline: by this confession they asserted their claim to toleration, as men disposed to live peaceably under a lawful government. At this time we find that the twofold division of the sect into Anabaptists who were opposed to worldly government, and Anabaptists who professed obedience to the civil magistrate, began to be acknowledged. In the short parliament called by Cromwell in 1653, and which was termed in derision, *Parliament of Barebone's* parliament, from Mr. Barebone a Baptist minister, who was conspicuous in that assembly, the Baptists appear to have had some influence; but the assembly being

BAPTIST.
It resorted to
England

disclaimers
of the Anabap-
tism.

General
Baptists.

A Particu-
lar Baptist
church
formed in
London.

Anabap-
tism again
disclaimed.

Twofold
division of
Anabaptists

Anabap-
tists, not
the same as
the Baptists.

Difficulty of
reporting
the Baptists
from the
Anabaptists.

Baptist
congrega-
tion at Am-
sterdam in
1609.

BAPTIST. found, as Cromwell probably intended it should be, unequal to the management of public affairs, resigned its power in less than six months after it was convoked. We cannot wonder that, during this period, the nation in general regarded with suspicion every person to whom the title of Anabaptist might with any justice be applied; for amongst the Baptists were not only found those who most opposed themselves to the Protector's government, and who were decided promoters of republican principles; but others also who professed to believe the near approach of the reign of Christ with his saints upon earth, and who considered that they should be justified in promoting, by the sword, the establishment of what was called in reproach the fifth monarchy. In the year 1650, a conspiracy was formed by these fifth monarchy men, with Harrison the regicide at their head; but the vigilance of Cromwell defeated the plans formed for his destruction; the ringleader was seized and imprisoned, and continued in confinement till his death. Upon the restoration, the Baptists presented an address to the king, disclaiming Anabaptist principles, and accompanied with a confession of faith. It is probable that these persons were principally General Baptists. A second conspiracy of the fifth monarchy men, in 1661, against the king, brought forth from the Baptists another disavowal of Anabaptist principles, in an address presented to the king and signed chiefly by Particular Baptists. In the period between the restoration and the revolution in 1688, the Baptists suffered in common with their dissenting brethren, from the endeavours made to reduce the people to conformity with the church; but since that period they appear to have suffered little or no molestation. The Particular Baptists held a general assembly in London in 1689: at this time they seem publicly to have professed their distinguishing character of belief in the Calvinistic doctrines of personal election and final perseverance. They have since held similar meetings; but the chief place of their discourse is at Bristol. The Particular Baptists have never had any material dispute amongst their members, except upon a point which is also still agitated amongst the General Baptists, that of mixed communion. The question is this, whether persons baptized in Infancy, but not baptized when come to full age, may be admitted to partake the sacrament of the Lord in their congregation. The teachers of both denominations are much divided in opinion, and frequent pamphlets have been written on both sides. It is not for us to express any opinion upon this point; the practice of mixed communion if carried to any extent, would seem to be an engine for propagating the general views entertained by Baptists on the subject of religion; but not the most likely method of teaching the necessity of adult baptism, which we conceive them sincerely to hold. Amongst the General Baptists, for some few years after the revolution, much difference existed, owing to the prevalence of Armin principles, which were first professed by Matthew Coffin, whose followers were termed Coffinites. Some however of the Particular Baptist churches have become Socinian, and so have the greater part of those societies of General Baptists which existed at the end of the seventeenth century; a consequence which some of the members attribute to the neglect of inculcating strongly the pure Calvinistic principles. The Baptists, General and Particular, have a firm of church govern-

ment under bishops whom they term messengers, BAPTIST. priests whom they term elders, and ministering brethren or deacons. Their churches are congregational, not parochial nor confined to districts. They are also independent; that is each congregation may prescribe rules for itself, and is not obliged to submit itself to the general assembly. The meetings of the members of the different congregations are held for the purpose of mutual advice, and not for the general government of the whole body. The General Baptists are so called from their professing the Arminian doctrine of universal redemption. The Particular Baptists on the other hand, follow the Calvinistic doctrine of personal or particular election.

BAPTISTERY, a building, wherein the sacrament of baptism is administered, distinct from the church. These edifices are either octagonal or circular, surmounted with a dome; and as the font is generally placed near the entrance of the church, to typify the initiation of the new Christian, so is the Baptistery situated in the approach to the western or principal gate, for a similar reason. They are of very high antiquity, for one was prepared for the ceremonial of the baptism of Clovis; and as, in the earlier periods of church history, this rite was celebrated only at the great festivals of Easter and Whitsuntide, it became necessary that considerable space should be afforded to accommodate the numbers that partook of the ceremonial. However numerous the churches might be in the more considerable cities of Italy, still there was only one general Baptistery to which all resorted, and which was always dedicated, with propriety, to the Baptist. The church to which the Baptistery was attached naturally assumed a pre-eminence, considering the other churches as dependent upon it. In the eastern empire they were termed *fontes*, or places of illumination, the ceremony of initiation into the Christian church being considered as giving a new light to the catechumens. The church of Santa Sophia, at Constantinople, had a most spacious Baptistery attached to it, in which one of the councils of the church assembled. The most ancient of the Baptisteries of Rome is that of the Lateran, in which some antiquaries have been willing to discover the remains of the original within the precincts of the imperial palace. The Baptistery of Pisa, both externally and in the interior, has deservedly excited the admiration of travellers, and is particularly alluded to by Addison in his *Travels*. That of Florence must ever prove an object of peculiar attraction on account of the beauty of its gates, with the bas-reliefs of which Michael Angelo was so enraptured, that he exclaimed they were deserving to be the portals of Paradise.

Those of our countrymen to whom these wonders of Italy are inaccessible, may form a tolerably correct idea of the Italian Baptistery from Ely cathedral. The octagon in that church, at the intersection of the transept and nave, recalls very faithfully to the recollection of the traveller the Baptisteries beyond the Alps; but it does not appear that any building devoted expressly to this purpose, was ever erected in Great Britain.

This kingdom, however, may boast of many very extraordinary fonts highly interesting to the ecclesiastical antiquary. That of Bridekirk in Cumberland, can boast even a Danish origin; and that which was recently removed in the spirit of modern improvement

Fifth monarchy men among the Baptists.

Address to Charles II.

General assembly of Particular Baptists.

Disputes upon mixed communion.

Coffinites.

BAPTIST. — BAPTISTERY. Church government of the Baptists.

Distinction into General and Particular Baptists.

RAP-
TISTERY.
—
BAR.

from the church of St. Peter in the East, Oxford, exhibited proofs of an antiquity almost as early. These, however, will more properly be treated of under the article FORTY.

That singular inscription so commonly found on fonts, occurs also on the walls of many Baptistries: NION ANOMHMATA MH MONAN OVIN.

The perverse ingenuity of the monks was often exercised in acrostics and chronograms; but this line exhibits certainly the happiest instance of that which in the language of these puns triflers is called amphibolism, the words being the same whether we begin to read from the first letter or from the last.

BAR, v. } Our English verb to bar is the Gothic
BAR, n. } and Anglo-Saxon *beorgan, beorgan, beorgan*,
BA'RUH. } *beorgan*; which means, to defend, keep
safe, to protect, to arm, to guard, in secure, to fortify,
to strengthen. Tooke, ii. 181.

Barred in Chaucer may be merely striped or crossed in the form of bars. See TO BARR.

To bar, is also used, to go guard against; prevent.
Curious harness * * * covered with precious cloth and rich,
barred and plaid of gold and silver.

Chaucer. *The Prioress Tale*.

For where by law each one of free estate

Should personally be heard ere judgement pass,

They bar'd him this, where through destroy'd he was.

Mr. for Mag. p. 275.

Then thus Jesus being in the temple, there came the hynde and lame, whom the bar'd from entering into the temple. But the temple of Jesus receiveth all which make speke unto health.

Udall. *Mathew*, cap. xxi.

The Frenchmen ditched, trenched, and paled their bulwarks for fear of afterclipses: But the Englishmen had their ports only barred and ported.

Hall. *King Henry V.* fol. 68.

And no befell, by adventure or cas,

That through a window thicks of many a barre

Of yowen gret, and assure as any spere,

He cast his eyes upon Emelie.

Chaucer. *The Knight's Tale*, v. 1079.

I remember me of a theefe once cast at Newgate, that cut a purse at the barre when he should be hang'd on the morrow.

Sir Thomas More's *Works*, fol. 93.

He brake the barres, and through the timber peeres

So large a hole wherby they might diserve

The house, the court, the secret chambers eke

Of Priamus, and susanct kings of Troy.

Shewp. *Æneis*, book ii.

Ye sit like prie's here bar'd with doors and chains,

And yet no care perpetual care restraines.

Breton. *Of True Liberty*

Vio. I'll do my best

To weep your lady: yet a barrell of silks,

Who are I was, myselfe would be his wife.

Shakespeare. *Twelfth Night*, fol. 227.

—With us (methinks) Fate deale so,

As with the Jew's guide God did; he did show

Him the rich land, but bar'd his way in.

Our showness is our punishment and sin.

Donne's *Letters*.

Cladon the lad

Who whilome had

The garland given for throwing best the barre,

I know not by what chance or luckie stars

Was chosen late

To be the mate

Unto our lady of our glaucous May.

W. Brown. *The Shepherd's Pipe*.

For the isthmus or bar of Peloponnesus which separateth the sea Ægium from the sea Ionium, both cease and joyne the firm land of the rest of Greece with the Presche an island of Peloponnesus.

North. *Plutarch*, fol. 814.

BAR.

— With emulation fir'd
They strain to lead the field, top the bar'd gate,
O'er the deep ditch exulting, bound and bruch
The cherry-twining hedge.

Somerville. *The Chase*, book ii.

I do not speak wholly for my own sake in this point; for pul-
mistry and astrology will bring me in greater gains than these my
papers; so that I am only in the condition of a lawyer who leaves
the bar for chamber practice.

Taylor, No. 101.

Even temporal gifts are dispersed with a very even hand; for if,
having injudicious fancy and vulgar opinion, we rightly prize
things, we compare the conveniences and inconveniences of each
state, it will be hard to judge, which hath the advantage.

Burrow. *Sermon* xxxviii. vol. iii. 221.

The folded gates would bar my progress now,

But that the host of this enclos'd denance,

Communicative of the good he owns,

Admits me to a share, the grilles eye

Consists no wrong, nor wastes what it enjoys.

Cooper. *The Task*, book i.

Our dying friends are pioneers, to smooth

Our rugged pass to death; to break those bars

Of terror and abhorrence Nature throws

Across our obstructed way.

Young. *The Complaint*, Night iii.

Relax, sweet girl, your wearied mind,

And to hear the poet talk,

Gentlest creature of your kind,

Lay aside your sponge and chalk,

Cense the bar-bell, nor refuse

To hear the jargon of the muse. Smart. *Bell'd iv.*

Nor less amuse'd have I quiescent watch'd

The scoty films that play upon the bars,

Prodigious, and forbidding, in the view

Of superstition, prophesying still,

Though still decry'd, some stranger's near approach.

Cooper. *The Task*, book iv.

Main. But what is more, madam, the young gentleman, as you
passed by in your present dress, ask'd me if you were the bar-
maid? He mistook you for the bar-maid, madam!

Goldsmith. *She stoops to conquer*, act iii.

Bar has various significations in different sciences, but all deducible from its primary meaning. Though more fully described in our separate Treatises they may be briefly noticed here. In Law, Bar is that place in criminal courts parted off by a bar or railing at which the accused is placed. In civil courts it is that place at which the counsellors plead, and within which certain privileged persons (as king's counsel, &c.) are entitled to sit, as a mark of distinction. Bar is (Lat. *barra*, Fr. *barre*) also in Low, a plea or peremptory exception of a defendant which destroys a plaintiff's action. Thus perpetual bar overthrows the action entirely. Temporary bar suspends it for the present. Ordinary bar, or bar to a common intentment, usually affects the declaration of the plaintiff. Special bar arises from some special circumstance in the case. In bar at large the defendant does not traverse the plaintiff's title by pleading, nor confess, nor avoid it, but makes to himself a title in his bar. Bar material is a sort of special bar on some particular matter.

Bar, in Heraldry, is an honourable ordinary, consisting of two horizontal lines drawn across the escutcheon. It differs from the fess inasmuch as it occupies a fifth part of the field instead of a third; it is not limited to any particular part of the escutcheon; and it is never borne single. The chief is half the bar, five of them may be borne in one field. The barrulet is half the chief, and can only be borne in couples.

Bar, in Music, is a perpendicular line dividing the strain into equal portions of time. At the end of a

BAR.
BARA-
THURUM

strain the bar is doubled. When dotted on one side, it shows that the strain on that side is to be repeated. When dotted on both sides, that the strain on both these sides is to be repeated. *Bars* are said to have been introduced into music in the latter part of the sixteenth century; but it is not easy to comprehend how music could ever be correctly read without them.

BAR, in Geography, is a chain of rocks, or a heap of mud or sand formed at the mouth of a river or harbour, and impeding the navigation, unless at high water.

BARABA, a steppe in the province of Tomsk in Siberia, lying between the rivers Irtsik and Ob, and the Altai mountains. It extends from north to south 200 versts, and about 400 from east to west. It abounds in lakes. Birch, brushwood, and scanty grass is to be found scattered over it, but the greater part is desert. The empress Catharine built numerous villages, and endeavoured to people this district, but without success. Its borders lie 234½ miles S. E. from St. Petersburg.

BARANYA, a county of Hungary, on the west bank of the Danube, bounded on the north by Tolna, south by Slavonia, and west by Schameg. It takes its name from a ruined castle, and is one of the richest provinces in the kingdom, abounding in grain, fruit, wine, cattle, and game. The chief town is Funfkirchen, besides which there are seven market towns and a great number of villages, with a population of about 140,000 individuals. These are chiefly composed of Hungarians, Germans, Rascians and Croats, with a few Jews. In religion they are partly Catholics, partly Protestants, and partly of the Greek church. In manners and customs they bear a great resemblance to the other inhabitants of Hungary. There is also a district called the circle of Baranya, which includes three towns, and about sixty villages; forming a part of the above county.

BARATHRUM, from *βασις* or *βασις* according to Festus, a deep pit belonging to the Athenian tribe Hippothontis, which in early times was used as a place of capital punishment. Suidas informs us that sharp stakes were disposed in different parts of it, *ἀνεγχετο γὰρ ὅτι καὶ ἐν αὐτῇ*; upon these the criminal was thrown headlong, and left to perish miserably. By the advice of an oracle this punishment was abolished, and the pit was filled up, (*Schol. in Plat. Aristoph.* 431.) but the name, like that of Bastle in modern times, was affixed to most other prisons. The mythological legend fabled, that Cybele, irritated because one of her Phrygian priests had been consigned to this dungeon, sent a famine upon Attira, which did not cease till she had been appeased by the destruction of the place of his execution. Into this horrible pit the Athenians, with a bitter mockery, threw the ambassadors of Darius, when they came to demand earth and water, as tokens of submission, in the name of their royal master. (*Hærod. vi. 138.*) Xenophon, in his *Hæcæta* i. mentions a traitor to whom those convicted of treason against the Athenian people were led to execution. In the *Life of Aristotle*, Plutarch relates, that on occasion of a difference of opinion between that great man and Themistocles on an affair of state, the former declared that Athens never could be secure till both his rival and himself were thrown into the Barathrum. On the same authority, as well as that of Cornelius Nepos, Valerius Maximus, and

Justin, it has been supposed that Miltiades was committed to the Barathrum, and that he died there. Bayle, however, (art. *Cimon*) has shown that Herodotus is silent upon this point; and he has produced a passage from the *Gorgias* of Plato, which proves that the Prytnes did not allow this unjust decree to be put in execution.

The Romans adopted the same usage for their prisoners; and hence Isidorus (xiii. 9.) has given an amusing etymology of the word. *Barathrum voraturus quasi toro argo*. Plutarch, in his *Life of Marius*, relates that Jugurtha perished by famine in this confinement. The account is not confirmed by Sallust, who only states that Sylla sent the captive king in chains to Rome. The word was naturalized in the Romance language, and is used by the best authorities for any thing which ingulphs with insatiable appetite. Martial and Plautus have employed it in describing courtizans. Horace applies it to a glutton, and a spendthrift.

After all, a Hebrew derivation has been found for the word, בְּרִית a well, and בְּרִית a lake, and it is thought to signify a subterraneous cavity.

BARB, v. } Fr. *barber*; Dutch, *barberen*; Lat.
BARB, n. } *barba*, (of unsettled etymology)
BARBATED, } beard. The noun *barb*, is applied to
BARBED, } the jags or reversed points of an arrow
BARBS, v. } or hook; to certain equipments, capar-
BARBAR, n. } nisms, armour, or trappings of a horse
BARBY. } or man. See BARB. *Barbel* is applied
to a certain covering or protection for the head.
Barb, in the citation below from Chaucer, is said,
by Mr. Tyrwhitt, to mean a hood or muller, which
covered the lower part of the face and shoulders.

To *barb*, is also to cut close, to shear, to shave, to mow.

About the time of prime came to the barriers of the lives, the duke of Hertford mounted on a white corrier *barbed with blue and grey velvet embroidered sumptuously with swans and antelopes of goldsmiths' work, armed at all points.*

Hist. King Henry IV. fol. 3.

Their quickness [the lord of Kilamza and his company] and swiftness did more prejudice to their enemies, than their great barbed horses did hurt or damage to the humble Irishmen.

Grafton. King Henry V. ann. 6.

In faith quod your frend I thynke mynct Poule ment not so. For
the bad wibes beare in his tyme little better than grace widows be
nowe. For they bee yet as scurrill as a *harders* chayre, and
never take but one at once.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 230. c. ii.

For of a surterie the duke strake the kyng on the brow right under the defence of y^e hedpiece on the very crowne scull or basinet-piece whereunto the border for power and defence is charnel'd.

Ibid., King Henry VIII, fol. 133,

But let be this, and tell me how ye fare,
Do way your harbe, and shew your face bare
Do way your boke, rise up and let vs daunce
And let vs done to May some observance.

Chaucer, *Troilus and Criseide*, book ii, fol. 158, c. iii.

Two manner of arrowes heades, sayth Pollux, was used in olde time. The one he calleth *sympax*, describinge it thus, havinge two pointes or *barbes*, lookinge backwarde to the steele and the featherys, which surely we call in Englyshe a brode arrowe head, or a sandowe tayl.

Roger Aschem, Tarophiles.

Thanked they were from the senat, and presents were sent to unto them; to wit, a chaine of gold weighing two pounds; certain golden cope of foure pounds weight, a brave courser *herb'd* and trapped, and an horseman's armour.

Holland. Living. fol. 1179.

BARA-
THUM,
—
BARB.

BARB.

Who works for war, now thrive by his trade.
The green hill and the battle-as green.
The curious bricker fits his well-tuning bow,
And his barb'd arrow, which he sets to show.
Dryden. The Battle of Agincourt.

ENO. Upon her heading, Anthony sent to her,
Invited her to supper: she replied,
It should be better, he became her guest:
Which she entrusted, our courteous Anthony,
Whom were the word of no woman hard spoke,
Being barbed'd ten times o'er, goes to the feast.
Shakespeare. Anthony and Cleopatra, fol. 347.

The next thing that all people of the world agreed in, was to entertain barbers, but it was late first ere they were in any request at Rome. The first that entered into Italy came out of Sicily, and it was in the 454 years after the foundation of Rome. Brought in they were by P. Ticius Mera, as Varro doth report: for before-time they served out their hair. The first that was shaven every day was Scipio Africanus: and after him cometh Augustus the emperor, who evermore used the razor.
Holland. Plinie, l. 190.

Civilis upon a barbarous vow when first he entered warre with the Romans, suffered his yellow haire to grow long without barbing, and now, as upon accomplishment thereof caused it to be cut, when the slaughter of the legions was performed.
Sauvle, Tacitus, History, book iv.

Watermen brawl, cutlers sing; but why must a barber be for ever a politician, a musician, an anatomist, a poet, and a physician. The learned Yonius says, his barber us'd to comb his head in lambskins.
Tatler, No. 34.

I cannot lay so much stress on a plate and description, given by Plot, of a dart uncommonly barbed.

Warton. History of Kildington, p. 63.

To make a fine gentleman, several trades are required, but chiefly a barber; you have undoubtedly heard of the Jewish champion, whose strength lay in his hair; one would think that the English were for plucking all wisdom there; to appear wise, nothing more is requisite here than for a man to borrow hair from the heads of all his neighbours, and clip it like a bush on his own.
Goldsmit. Citizens of the World.

— Oh, he has all disgrac'd
His high born ancestry! But I'll forget him,
Haste, Evellin, barb my knotty spear,
Blad fast this trusty scilchen to my thigh!
My bow, my target.
Mason. Caractacus.

With line of silk, with hook of barbed steel,
Beneath this osken ambrage let us lay,
And from the water's crystal bosom steal
Upon the grassy bank the finny prey.
Thomson. An Hymn to May.

Straight as above the surface of the flood
They watoos rise, or arg'd by hunger leap.
Then fix, with gentle twist, the barbed hook.
Thomson. The Seasons. Spring.

BARB; a horse from Barbary.

But why should you who still succeed,
Whether with graceful art you lead
The fiery barb, or with as graceful motion tread
In shining bolts, where all agree
To give the highest praise to thee.
Lowndes. Verses to, on his Retirement.

BARB, in Zoology, the common name of the Columba Numidus of Moore.

BARBE, or BARB, in Zoology, a name given to that famous species of the Equus caballus brought from Barbary. See EQUUS.

The Barbans form a separate company in the city of London. This company, formerly called Barbersurgeons, was incorporated by Edward IV., 1461, in the parish of the Saints Cosme and Damiane, brethren, physicians and martyrs. In this company was vested the superintendence of all persons practising chirurgery, the inspection of instruments, medicaments, &c.

The two professions being jealous of each other split into separate companies. They were again united by an act of 32 Henry VIII. in which the separate arts are guarded against each other, no barber being permitted to practice surgery farther than the drawing of teeth; and no surgeon being permitted to shave a head, even in cases of dissection, under a penalty of forty shillings. In 1745 they were again finally separated. In the court room of the hall of the Barbers' company, in Monkwell-street, is a celebrated picture, by Holbein, of Henry VIII. delivering their charter to the Barber-surgeons' company. This picture was engraved by Barrow, in 1736. It was borrowed by James I. whose letter on that occasion is still preserved by the company. The letter vouches that the painting is "both like him and well done." In the minute book of the court of assistants, appears the following singular entry, dated July 13, 1587: "Yt ys agreed that yf any bodie w^{ch} shall at anye tyme here after happen to be brought to ð hall for the intent to be wrought upon by thanatomistes of ð compaign, shall revyve or come to lyfe agayne, as of late hath ben seene, the charges about the same bodie so reviving, shall be borne, levied and susteyned by such pson or psons who shall happen to brynge home the bodie. And further shall alidre suche order or fyne as this howse shall award."

BARBADOES, the most windward of the West India islands, and one of the principal of those belonging to Great Britain. Its first discovery is attributed to the Portuguese, who accidentally fell in with it in their voyages to or from Brazil. It was then wholly destitute of inhabitants; and, as the Portuguese were too intent upon acquiring the riches of the continent to pay much attention to this insulated spot, they merely left a breed of hogs upon it, for the benefit of such of their countrymen as might in future touch there. It was first made known to the English by the crew of a vessel from London to Surinam, in 1605, which obtained refreshment from the provision made by the Portuguese. Finding it uninhabited, they took possession of it by erecting a cross on the spot where James Town was afterwards built, with this inscription, "James king of England and this island." The report which these navigators made respecting the country, on their return, induced the earl of Marlborough to obtain a grant of the island from James I. In consequence of this, about thirty settlers arrived there in 1624, and laid the foundation of James Town. Barbadoes then passed as private property into the hands of several individuals, and enjoying freedom of trade, it soon became a flourishing colony. During the civil wars of Charles I. the emigration to this island was so great, that in 1650 the white population was estimated at 20,000. Various legal contentions then took place for the property of the island, which were finally terminated by its being vested in the crown, on condition of the inhabitants agreeing to pay a duty of four and a half per cent. upon all the produce of the island exported to any part of the world. This regulation is still in force.

From its advanced position, Barbadoes must always continue to be an important station, in the communication between the Columbian archipelago and Europe. Its general appearance is different from most of the other West India islands, the inhabitants of which think it low and level; but this is only true

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in comparison with some of the others, particularly Grenada, St. Vincent, and St. Lucia, the towering summits of which pierce the clouds. At a distance, Barbadoes presents a brown and nearly uniform surface; but on a nearer approach the prospect improves, and the scenery becomes more diversified and agreeable. The ground rises in almost regular and singular ridges from the shore to the interior. These are rugged acclivities of about 100 feet each, separated by plains or terraces of nearly half a mile in breadth, and as they are highly cultivated, they form a strong contrast with the black rocky precipices by which they are bounded. This kind of elevation continues to the highest part of the island, but is occasionally varied by bold promontories, projecting over deep ravines covered with dark foliage.

Barbadoes is generally considered by the planters as an old island, having its fertility diminished by long cultivation; and its produce is, therefore, thought to be less in proportion to the quantity of land, than that afforded by some others of the Caribbean chain. It contains various kinds of soil, chiefly resting upon a basis of calcareous rock, which appears to be formed of madripores, and other marine concretions. In some places the soil is composed of a deep black mould; red earth is also found, of the same kind as in Jamaica, and some of the other islands; while in others the surface consists of a species of light white earth, which is chiefly indurated argil, bleached by exposure to the atmosphere. This variety of soil adapts it to an equal diversity of produce, independently of which, Barbadoes must be considered as an important possession, as its situation renders it the key to the West Indies; its fine bay affords an excellent rendezvous for our shipping; and the salubrity of its climate exceeds that of the other islands. In consequence of being more cleared, and more generally cultivated than the rest of the Caribbean group, the breezes are less interrupted, the temperature is more uniform, and the climate more healthy. The whole of it is exposed to the influence of the trade winds, which impart a freshness to the air, that causes it to be considered as the Montpellier of the West Indies; so that it is not uncommon to make a voyage from the other islands to Barbadoes for the recovery of health. Its inhabitants, however, are subject to a distressing malady, which appears in the form of an elephantiasis; and is so peculiar to that island, that it has obtained the appellation of the Barbadoes disease. Being situated to the windward of all the other islands, it receives the steady breeze from the wide Atlantic in all its purity. When Dr. Pinckard was there, he found the heat less inconvenient than he expected. In the harbor, and placed in the shade, the thermometer seldom rose higher than 64°, and never exceeded 86°. The seasons by no means correspond with the ideas we generally attach to the terms wet and dry, by which it is common to designate them. Many days together seldom pass, at any period of the year, without being more or less refreshed by showers; though these are light, compared with such as fall during the period of their greater frequency, when the clouds seem to pour forth their contents in streams. Being situated in the thirteenth degree of latitude, little variation is experienced, either in the temperature of the seasons, or the length of the days. As the sun traverses nearly a vertical course, the softness of twilight is almost

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unknown, for he sinks rapidly below the horizon, and night suddenly throws its dark veil over every object. Here too, the seasons are never interrupted by the torpidity of winter; but then they know not the re-animating pleasures of spring.

According to Mr. Edwards, the length of Barbadoes is twenty-one miles, and its breadth fourteen; and from the returns to the British parliament, in 1811, it appears that the population of its different parishes was then as follows, viz.

Parishes.	Whites.	Free colour.	Slaves.
St. Michael	5405	1551	19,198
Christ Church . . .	1570	66	9,234
St. Philip	1510	212	9,662
St. John	1148	887	58
St. Joseph	1066	77	3,104
St. Andrew	571	165	3,249
St. Lucy	1043	34	3,282
St. Peter	1356	325	5,725
St. James	708	33	4,295
St. Thomas	773	31	4,003
St. George	1139	113	5,428
	16,289	3,392	69,258

The whole population of the island was, therefore, 81,939, which is a comparative population exceeding that of any country in Europe. From this statement, it appears that there had been a remarkable sameness in the number of slaves, during a period of thirty years, from 1781 to 1811; for it was affirmed by Mr. Wilberforce, in the House of commons, in the course of the debates on the slave trade, that in the former of these years there were 63,248 slaves on the island; in 1786, the number was 62,115; in 1811 they were only 143 more than this last number.

Barbadoes is generally supposed to have attained its acme of prosperity more than a century ago, and various documents have been brought forward to substantiate this opinion. We do not, however, consider the subject of sufficient importance to general readers to justify us in their repetition. There is one difference between the population of Barbadoes and that of most of the other West India islands, which deserves to be noticed. Here, between the great planters and the people of colour, there is a numerous class of inhabitants, who are descended from the original settlers, and who have no precise knowledge when their ancestors arrived at the island. They consequently consider it as their country, and only abode, and do not therefore, like the planters or the negroes, look back to early associations, and other scenes, as constituting their primitive home.

BARBAREA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Tetradymnia*, order *Silicula*. Generic character. *Silicula* tetragono-acniphila. Cotyledons accumbent. Seeds in one series. Calyx erect. Glandulae between the shorter filaments. Browne in *Hort. Kew.* vol. iv. 109. This genus, as at present constituted, contains two species, both natives of Britania, which were formerly referred to the genus *Erysimum*.

1. *B. vulgaris* (E. *barbarea*, Linn.) inferior leaves lyrate; terminal lobe round; superior obovate, dentate.

Bitter, winter-cress, or yellow rocket. Flowers May—August. *English Botany*, 443.

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BARBAREA.

BARBA-REA. 2. *B. præcox* (*E. præcox*, Linn.) inferior leaves lyrate; superior pinnatifid; divisions linear-oblong, very entire.

BAR-BARY. Early winter-cross. Flowers April–October. *English Botany*, 1129.

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Gr. βαρβαρος; Lat. *barbarus*; of uncertain etymology. Applied by the Greeks to all foreign nations.

A *barbarian* is now applied to one who is rude, fierce, cruel; not improved or polished by the arts of civilization.

To *barbarize*, is to reduce to a state of barbarism, to make, or cause to be made, fierce, cruel, uncivilized.

Brothers I say that she knows that oft I purpose to come to you and I am left in this time that I have seen fruit in place as in others folk to Greeks and to *barbarians* to wise men and to naive men I am doctor.

Wicif. Romanus, chap. i.

But if I know not the virtue of a rola, I shall be to him to whom I shall speak a *barber*; and that speak to me shall be a *barber*.

Id. 1 *Corinth.* chap. xiv.

Now were the Corinthians proud only by reason of their wealth, but also because they were learned in the Grecian philosophy, and therefore despised they such, as were not learned therein, as rude and *barbarous*.

Idell. Argument 1 *Corin.*

After which of an humble & low mind he confesseth his rudeness and *barbarousness* in language, but yet knowledge and learning which he upon him, that they apply in him for this study any lack.

Id. The *Argument*, 2 *Corinth.*

O thou thing

Which I'll not call a creature of thy place,
Least *barbarous* (making me the precedent)

Should a like language use to all degrees,
And memento distinguishment learn out,
Betwixt the prince and beggar.

Shakespeare. Winter's Tale, fol. 292. c. i.

Some of the power Spaniards that we had taken (who notwithstanding had the same allowance that our own men had) would come and cross of us for the love of God, but so much water as they could hold in the hollow of their hand; and they had it notwithstanding our great extremities, to teach them some humanity in stead of their accustomed *barbarity*, both to us and other nations heretofore.

Hacklitt. Voyages, &c. The *Hon. Eric* of Camb.

The breast his golden darts not pierce'd, shall feel
The sharp impression of more cruel steel,
And thou, coward'st, which are the stronger prove,
The fetters of *barbarians*, or of love.

Shakespeare. Fortinbras *Edin.*

Thou senary valiant one, thou art here but to thresh Trojans, and thou art fought and sold among those of any wit, like a *barbarian* slave.

Shakespeare. Troilus and Cressida, fol. 84.

High upon a throne of royal state, which far
Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,
Or where the gorgeous east with richest hand
Show'd on her kings *barbaric* pearl and gold
Satan exalted sat, by merit rais'd
To that bad eminence.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book ii.

Blest pow'r's forbid, thy tender life
Should bleed upon a *barbarous* knife,
Or some base hand have power to raise
Thy bristled chaste cubit; and uncase
A soul kept there so sweet; O no,
Wise Heaven will never harvest us.

Crowe. A Hymn to Saint Teresa.

So that we may behold dyes young gentle men, whose
vanth can speak one hole sentence in true Latine, but that was
is, have all leynge in derision, and in shorne thereof, wit of
witnesse speake the most *barbarous* that they can imagine.

Syr T. Eliot. Courtier, p. 45.

Which things surely, if God hold not his help over our
and plucke us from them, will bringe us to a more Turkishness,
and more brutelike blind *barbarousness*, as calling ill things good,
and good things ill.

Ascham. Tetrastichus.

One of them fired a pistol at him (Archib. Sharp) which burnt
his coat and gown, but did not go into his body: upon this they
fancied he had a magical secret to secure him against a shot; and
they drew him out of his coach and murdered him *barbarously*,
repeating their strokes till they were sure he was quite dead.

Barnet. Owen, li. 36.

While man, with raging drink inflam'd,
Is far more savage and untam'd;
Supplies his loss of wit and sense
With *barbarousness* and insolence.

Butler. Satire upon Drunkenness.

But those murderers were not wanting to him; for he went even
through this last trial, unshaken; and submitted his royal head to
the stroke of the executioner, with as much tranquillity and unshak-
ness, as he had borne lesser *barbarities*.

Atterbury. Sermon on the Martyr of King Charles I.

And when the height
Of Ilion had reach'd the fatal shore
From Grecian valour, with *barbaric* spoil,
To his high fate proportion'd, he return'd,
Unmark'd with hostile wound, though round him Mars
With tedious rage oft made the battle burn.

Frontin. Hist. Rom. book xi.

At length the scholastic system grew so corrupt, and at the same
time so enormous in magnitude, that it became an insupportable in-
convenience to the understanding, and contributed not a little to
perpetuate the ignorance and *barbarism* of those times.

Beattie. On Truth, part iii. ch. i.

Pyrrhus, seeing the Romans march their army with some art
and skill, said with surprise, these *barbarians* have nothing *bar-
barous* in their discipline.

Seneca. On Refinement in the Arts.

We shall be *barbarized* on both sides of the water, if we do not
see one another new and then. We shall sink into early, brutish
Johns, and you will degenerate into wild Irish.

Burke. Letter to Sir C. Dingley.

BARBARY.

Boundaries BARBARY, in *Modern Geography*, the whole of northern Africa from the Atlantic to the frontiers of Egypt. Geographers have differed respecting the exact limits of this country; some excluding Tripoli and every thing to the south of Mount Atlas; others take it, and it will be so taken in this article, in a more extensive sense, as bounded by the sea on the north and west, by the Sahara or Great Desert on the south, and by Egypt on the east. Its utmost extent is nearly 2000 geographical miles; its greatest breadth cannot be more than 9 degrees or 540 geographical miles. Mount Atlas and its different branches, beginning

about lat. 30° N. and long. 10° W. stretches northwards to Aye's hill opposite to Gibraltar, and thence eastward, gradually diminishing till it is lost in the sandy deserts of Barkah. (See *BARBAM*.)

It is this chain of mountains in fact which has given its modern name to northern Africa; for the inhabitants of Mount Atlas are called by the Arabs *Barbers*, (see *BARBER*.) and their country Al-Barberiyah; and as geographical knowledge was derived in the dark ages, like most other sciences, from the Arabs, many of their terms and denominations were then introduced, and are still used by Europeans.

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The whole of this region is now divided into four independent states: The empire of Morocco, and the regencies of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli; and to those heads we shall refer the reader for a more particular account of each, premising, in this place, only such circumstances as are common to all.

1. Climate.

I. The climate is to general temperate and salubrious; modified, of course, by local differences of elevation, drought, moisture, shade or exposure to the sun. The western extremity of Mount Atlas is the most elevated, and consequently the coolest region; but the difference of temperature between the northern and southern side of that chain is excessive; an extremely dry soil, and winds passing over scorching plains of sand, raise the heat of the atmosphere to a much higher degree than would be occasioned by the difference of latitude alone. Thus it is that we find the range of the thermometer from 5° to 80° of Fahrenheit, on the north, and from 30° to 130° on the south side of the mountains. When the shade, or wind from the desert, blows for any length of time, the ground is almost on fire, the inhabitants are obliged to withdraw to subterranean retreats, and to pour water profusely over their chambers in order to make them habitable during the night. September is the month during which these winds occur—from that month till March there are frequent rains, but seldom violent ones; and the winter, in most parts of Barbary, is a very delightful season. Long continued droughts are the extremes which they have most to dread.

2. Soil.

II. The soil in a large an extent of country, must necessarily vary a great deal, but its general character is that of richness and fertility. The valleys and the country between the mountains and the sea, are luxuriant and productive; but water becomes more scarce as we proceed eastwards; the hills gradually diminish in height, expanding, as it were, into extensive plains; and the soil is converted into an arid sand never covered with any vegetable clothing, except for a short period after the close of the winter's rains.

3. Vegetable production.

III. This variety of soil and climate would enable the inhabitants of Barbary to provide themselves with every production of temperate or tropical regions, had they skill or industry proportionate to their natural advantages; but of improvements in agriculture they have no notion; and their industry is constantly checked by the pressure of a government the most shortsighted and iniquitous. Burned stubble, and the litter of the cattle turned out upon the fallows, is the only manure which is ever laid on their fields. Their ploughing is done by a wooden plough drawn by a single yoke of oxen, going over not more than one acre in a whole day, and making a furrow about six inches deep. Two bushels and a half per acre is the ordinary allowance, and 1200 per cent. the ordinary return. Sometimes one hehn will bear two or more ears. Asiatic customs came into Barbary with the Arabs, if they were not already established there before their arrival; and the ox is driven round the circular threshing floor, to tread out the corn, which is afterwards winnowed by being thrown up against the wind, just as it was in Judea three thousand years ago, (*Gen.* xxv. 4. *Is.* xxx. 24.) and is to this day in that and the neighbouring countries. The grain is deposited in large subterraneous magazines called *matifars*, containing at least 500 bushels each. Precautions are of course taken to prevent the admis-

sion of wet; and it is said that the grain can be thus preserved without damage for several years. In horticulture the Barbareques are still farther behindhand. A confused assemblage of fruit-trees and potherbs, without order, or beauty, is the utmost at which they aim in their finest gardens.

The common kinds of grain, maize, and different species of millet (*Sorghum*) pulse, vetches, lentils, and cerevances (*Barbancoz*, *Chick-peas*, *Cicer arictinum*), are the chief produce of their farms. Oats are not used; but, as in western Asia, barley and chopped straw are substituted for them and for hay. Hemp, flax, cotton, and tobacco, make up the remainder of their field-produce. Their gardens, in addition to the common European fruits, supply them with figs, melons, oranges, lemons and limes. Vineyards and olive-yards on the plains and declivities, and our common forest trees, corks and evergreen oaks in the woods, constitute the principal riches of the vegetable world in this part of Africa; but there are some inferior kinds of fruit, such as the jujube, lote-tree (*Zayphaus Lotea*), Elimgous, Argan, (*Elaeodendron Arg.*), *Diopappus Lotus*, *Celtis Australis*, and corneal cherry (*Cornus mascula*), are common among us, which abound in most parts of the Barbary States. Some gum resins, such as galbanum, opopanax, masticum, and sandarac, the produce of the Arbr, or *Juniperus communis*, and medicinal herbs, such as wormwood, (stupidly called wormseed by some of our commercial writers,) *prisa-root* (*Iris germanica*, *Florentina*) colicchio, or *Columbina*, &c. are natives of this part of Africa.

IV. Salt, in various forms, is found in almost the whole of north Africa, especially in the southern countries bordering upon the Great Desert. In many places it completely impregnates the earth; and the water of the springs and pools, when evaporated, leaves a thick crust of saline matter: in others it appears in large solid masses. Springs containing other mineral substances, particularly sulphur, are frequent; and many of them are hot. The marbles of Numidia were celebrated by the ancients, and so mountainous a country, as most part of Barbary is, cannot be deficient in stone. Timber, we are told by travellers in that country, is almost the only material used for building; but this usage arises, not from any want of stone, but from its extreme hardness, which renders it difficult to be worked, and from want of roads or vehicles fit for conveying heavy loads to Constantinople. The case is exactly the same at Constantinople, which is surrounded with rock and marble, but miserably built of timber, because the difficulty and expense of quarrying and removing the stone exceeds all calculation. Iron, lead, copper, silver, antimony, and a mixture of antimony, lead and gold, are found in the mountainous districts; but none of these metals are worked to any considerable extent.

V. For an account of the animals commonly found in Barbary, we must refer the reader to the art. *ALGERIA*. Besides those mentioned there, several different kinds of deer may be named as peculiar to North Africa. One of these is the Fishal or *Lepus* of Dr. Shaw, called *Amoud* by Mr. Jackson (*Antelope Lerwa*.) Others are the *Sisib* or Barbary squirrel (*Sciurus Grulus*) a luxury to the natives; the Jerboa, and several of the monkey tribe.

VI. The seas and rivers have abundance of fish; the most common are red and grey mullets, bream, and

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4. Minerals

5. Animals.

6. Fishes.

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ehovies, sardines, herrings, mackarel, cod, skate, soles, plaice, turbot and turtle. The rivers, besides the barbel and eel, have an excellent kind of fish called shebel (*Shdül, Clupea albon*). Shell fish is scarce and bad on the coasts of Barbary, but shrimps, prawns and crabs are not very uncommon.

7. Reptiles.

VII. We may mention the tortoise among the useful or harmless reptiles of this country; but it is never brought to table by the Barbareques. Besides the scorpion and horned viper (*Crotalus*), of which the wound is extremely dangerous, if not fatal, the locusts do infinite mischief to the young crops, as has been already observed in the article *ALOISINS*. (See also *GAYLARD*, in *Entomology*.) The gnats or mosquitos, are somewhat larger and far more annoying than ours are. Among the harmless insects, may be mentioned innumerable moths, butterflies, dragon flies and beetles, many of them ornamented with various and brilliant colours. One is remarkable for a long proboscis, with which it pierces the unbelittled plant (*fashük*), which produces gum ammoniac, and this insect is therefore called *didbîn fashük*, "the ammoniac beetle."

8. Inhabitants.

VIII. The population of this country is certainly not so considerable as it would be under a better government; the actual numbers, as far as they can be determined by any probable conjecture, will be given in the separate account of each state. The inhabitants of Barbary are derived from five distinct races; 1. the Brébers or Berbers, the aboriginal occupants; 2. the kabbles or tribes of wandering Arabs; 3. the Turks; 4. the Jews; and 5. the Negroes. Of the first, and, in many respects, the most remarkable of these races, a more particular account will be found under the article *BARBARA*. The second are the descendants of those tribes who emigrated from Asia, soon after the conquest of Africa by the Moslems. A great portion of the stationary inhabitants are also of Arab origin; descendants of those whom war, commerce, or political engagements brought into the conquered country. There are no families of the third race to the west of Algiers; but it forms an important, though not a very considerable, part of the whole population. The Turks are in fact the rulers of the country, and the most wealthy and powerful of its inhabitants. Ever since this country was subject to the Forte, Turkish troops and officers have occupied the fortresses, and Turkish governors, appointed by the Grand Signior, formerly had the exclusive possession of all public commands and emoluments. Their descendants, called *kül-dghils*, or "sons of slaves," form the class of which we are now speaking. They still retain the respect and influence which their connection with the Ottomans originally gave, and are looked upon by the troops, who are recruited from Turkey, in the light of fellow-countrymen. The Jews, the fourth race mentioned above, are numerous, though much persecuted. Attachment to their native soil, and the inconveniences of seeking for an asylum at a distance from their relations, still tie down these wretched men to a colony, where they are the victims of endless degradations and hardships. A very large proportion of them are emigrants, whom bigotry has expelled at different times from Spain and Portugal. They are here, as every where, an industrious, frugal people; and are so much superior to the Moors in useful knowledge, that their assistance is almost indispensable for the collection of the taxes, the management of commercial business, or even the

commonest pecuniary transactions. The Negroes, the last race named, are either in a state of actual slavery, or descendants from emancipated slaves, occupying a separate quarter of the town, and considered, though true believers, as beings of an inferior order. In Morocco, their condition is more advantageous; for some of the emperors raised large armies of Negroes, and by putting arms into their hands, gave them more importance than they before possessed. Besides which, the intermixture of the different races has been more common there than farther east; and that circumstance has contributed to moderate the contemptuous feeling with which they are beheld by most Mahometans.

A small number of Christians, as merchants, and many as slaves, are resident in Barbary. The latter have every thing to suffer which fanaticism, in its worst form, can suggest. But even in this country, its stronghold, fanaticism has for some time been upon the decline. In the eastern states, Christians are tolerated nearly as much as in Turkey. Morocco, Tunis, and Tripoli have for some years abandoned their piratical expeditions; and the severe lesson which Algiers received by the bombardment of 1816, induced that state to give up a system which was the cause of so much individual misery, and so long the disgrace of Europe.

IX. The government of every Mohammedan state is, of course, must be essentially despotic, as the *Korda* is not only a religious code, but also a civil one, enjoining an almost unlimited obedience to the sovereign. Mussulmen must be more advanced in general knowledge than they have ever been yet, before they can suppose any laws to be salutary which are not derived from Mahomet; but though they neither possess, nor will devise, any permanent institution in order to secure their personal rights, some circumstances have arisen, which operate as a check upon the sultan's authority. The fear of a numerous and insubordinate soldiery, the influence of the expounders of the law, and a combination of the great officers of the state, have all occasionally exercised a powerful control over the despot's will. This has generally happened in the three regencies, where the Dey or Regent, is usually displaced, or raised to the throne, by the intrigues of his council. In Morocco, where an hereditary sovereignty has always existed, the case is different; and several of its Emperors were the most ferocious, as well as the most uncontrolled tyrants. The form of government is nearly the same in each of the three regencies, as may be seen in the article on *ALGAIAS*.

X. The forms and administration of justice must be essentially the same in every Mohammedan country, in which civilisation is sufficiently advanced to require any intermeddling agents between the sovereign and the subject. The *kâdî* or judge decides all the causes brought before him according to the precepts of the *Korda*, as explained by the orthodox doctor, to whose sect he belongs. But there is in many cases an appeal to the sultan himself, whose sentence is final. As the *kâdîs* are appointed by the reigning sovereign, they must be entirely at his mercy; and in a military government, it is evident that the chief who has the supreme command of the troops, will always be able to enforce his orders in spite of law and justice. This is more particularly the case where execution immediately follows conviction; where no time is allowed for an appeal; and where the government is a party in

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10. Police

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the cause. Trials are always expeditiously conducted in Mohammedan countries; but in these states, it is probable that even the simple forms of Mohammedan law are often dispensed with:—especially where the confiscation of property is to be the result. The spirit of peculation and self-interest pervade every department of a Musselman government; and no where is that more extensively the case than in Barbary. Hence arises a constant struggle between the ministers and their sovereign, anxious to see who can cajole and defraud most successfully, while the latter is ever on the watch for an opportunity of detecting frauds and delinquencies, in order to profit by the seizure of the offender's property. Hence also that dread of being thought rich, that anxiety to appear a pauper, which are universally found with slight modifications, from the Caspian to the Atlantic. The suspicion, meanness, and dissimulation, with all their frightful train of concomitant vices, which disgrace so many of all ranks, in these ill-fated countries, may be all traced to the same source.

11. Punish-
ments.

XI. The *Korān* is at best a very bad code, but even this is far from being scrupulously observed in Barbary. The punishments prescribed by it are neither various nor cruel; and strangulation is the common mode by which criminals are put to death in other Mohammedan countries; but here almost every contrivance has been adopted by which the torments of the sufferer can be prolonged or rendered more acute, and a more narrative of the cruelties which are continually practised, as the punishment of crimes in these states, is enough to fill every feeling mind with horror and disgust.

12. Fanati-
cism.

XII. The grovelling ignorance produced by such a system of cruelty and oppression, is well calculated to cherish fanaticism; and no where does it now rule with a more absolute sway. The populace are the dupes, and the higher classes the slaves, of a numerous body of men called *Morāhīs* (corruptly written and pronounced by most Europeans *Marabouts*;) some of whom are sincere in their professions, but the greater number are most arrant hypocrites, making a lucrative trade of their assumed sanctity. By affecting a scrupulous observance of the *Korān*, a continual repetition of favourite texts, and other common artifices, they gain the reputation of extraordinary sanctity, and soon persuade the people to believe them the favourites of heaven. Some pretend to possess miraculous powers; many practise the arts of divination, and all deal in charms, from the sale of which they derive considerable profits. The greater part wander about through the country, professing to live on charity, (they call themselves *derwishes* or *fakirs*, i. e. poor men;) and doing far more mischief than the mendicants in English countries. In Asia these men are kept under some restraint by the government, and the superior knowledge of the higher classes; but in Barbary they are almost uncontrolled. At the great festivals they give an entire loose to their religious phrenzy, heightened probably by large doses of opium, and the excesses in which they then indulge are truly horrible. Mr. Lyon (*Trevel, ii.*) saw a man thrust his hand into the side of a living ass, tear out his bowels, and devour them! Idiots and madmen are considered as half-inspired, and are therefore looked upon with veneration, and allowed to do all the mischief which their bewildered imagination suggests.

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Such a sanctity may well be considered as hereditary, and claimed for several generations. The tombs of those saints are also held in extreme veneration, and are almost as much the objects of pilgrimage as the shrines of martyrs once were among the Christian inhabitants of Africa. They are often asylums for the vilest criminals. The pilgrimage to Mecca is generally performed by those who can undertake it, and the pilgrims are much respected; but in charity, one of the cardinal virtues of the Musselman, the Barbareques are very deficient. Who indeed can venture to be charitable, when his charity discovers his wealth, and points him out to the government as a proper subject for confiscation?

XIII. In such a country learning cannot flourish, 13. Learn- and a more illiterate people than those of Barbary can hardly be found. The natives of Morocco stand highest in the scale of literature; the study of the *Korān*, which their religion requires, of poetry for which they have a taste, and of the history of their country, on which they have several works, is not unusual among the higher classes. Their excessive bigotry has generally withheld them from familiar intercourse with Europeans, and thence arose the very low estimate of their literary acquirements which travellers have commonly made. In those branches of knowledge which they do cultivate, they appear indeed to be much behind the Asiatics, and are probably daily sinking deeper in ignorance, as they have few if any literary institutions. Their dialect is very corrupt; and even in the despatches addressed to foreign courts, terms occur which a genuine Arab would scorn to use. The language of the populace is full of words borrowed from the Berber and other dialects; they also pronounce some letters very differently from the Asiatics, and have a system of phraseology entirely their own, approaching more to the Syriac than to the pure Arabic, but probably derived from their intercourse with Spain. Their mode of forming the Arabic letters is also as different from that of the eastern Arabs, as the German text is from the Latin character; but their books are generally more carefully transcribed than those of the Egyptians and Asiatics. This character, it may be observed, extends no further westward than Bagherrat in the interior, (Burckhardt's *Nubia*, 461.) and Tripoli on the coast; and as the inhabitants of Meli or Malta use it, (see Bowdich's *Ashantee*;) it is plain from what quarter they derived their knowledge of Arabic.

14. Arts.

XIV. The mechanic arts are in the same degraded state; there is scarcely any subdivision of labour, and manufactories, on an extensive scale, are unknown. Building is that in which they excel. Tahish, a sort of artificial stone, and a very hard and durable cement, are among the few things they make, which are worthy of attention. The former is a mixture of lime, sand, and pebbles, put into a wooden frame of the proper size and shape, and beat down with square rammers: the latter, a compound of sand, wood-ashes, and lime, beaten together for three days and nights without intermission, and frequently sprinkled with oil and water. Another cement used by them, is made of tow, lime, and oil. Both these compositions acquire great hardness in a short time, and are impenetrable to water. Whether they would stand severe frosts may fairly be questioned. A Moorish town is an ugly likeness of those in Asia, having all their defects, and none of their beauties. The public buildings are many of them solid, but seldom can

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boast of any thing like elegance or lightness. The minarets, so tapering and airy, on the Turkish mosques, are clumsy, square, surmounts on the other side of the Mediterranean. The houses are built round one or more square courts, with scarcely any windows opening to the street; the lower part is used as stables or out-houses; the upper stories for the apartments of the family. There is an open corridor in each story, with which the staircases from below, and all the chambers, communicate. In the houses of the wealthy, the court is paved with marble, or coloured tiles, and sometimes has a fountain in the centre. An awning, stretched across from side to side, converts this court into an agreeable saloon, and in warm weather company is received there. The ordinary houses seldom have more than one story, about sixteen feet high, with a single apartment on each side of the court; as the windows are small, and the rooms seldom have a thorough draught of air, the heat and want of light are insufferable. Boarded ceilings, diversified by painted lattice-work, walls covered half-way down with gilt and painted wainscoting, hangings of different coloured cloths, or tiger-skins, filling the interval between the wainscot and the floor, looking-glasses, clocks, or arms arranged in fanciful patterns, are the different articles of ornament or furniture with which their best rooms are decked. Fire-places are not wanted; a charcoal fire, in an earthen chafin-dish, placed in one corner of the court, serves to cook the dinner. Mattresses on the floor, with large cushions, are placed against the walls, as seats by day, and beds by night; and a raised platform at one end of the room, (the *divan* of the Turkish houses in the East) is frequently used as a place for the beds. The catalogue of their household utensils is almost as thrifty as the inventory of their furniture: a few pewter plates, spoons and basins, wooden bowls, earthen pots, and iron ladles, nearly complete the list; but some China plates for show, and a tea equipage, must not be forgotten, because the common use of tea is one of the few customs in which the western are entirely different from the eastern Arabs. The roofs of their houses are generally flat, and are much used by the female part of the family in the cool of the day. The rich have often a small additional building, called *iliyyah*, for the accommodation of strangers. It is like another house on a small scale, and is occasionally placed over the gateway at the entrance, exactly answering to the upper chamber of the ancient Jews, so often mentioned in the *Bible*. The houses are usually white-washed outside, which gives their towns a neat and cheerful appearance at a distance. The villages,—almost always in the neighbourhood of towns,—are an assemblage of wretched hovels, surrounded with tall hedges.

15. Diet.

XV. The same economy prevails in their diet as in their other domestic arrangements. The first and most indispensable article is *cuscush*, a paste made of coarse flour, granulated by being squeezed through a colander, and answering all the purposes of *sensolivo* among the Italians. This is put into a perforated pan, like the upper part of our steam-kettles, and boiled in the steam rising from the pot below, to which the meat, vegetables, &c. are cooked. It is served up mixed with soup, milk, butter, honey, spices, or any other seasoning. Bread, fruits, and vegetables, form a large part of the food of this

abstemious people. Their principal need is immediately after sun-set; they seat themselves on mats in a circle, having previously washed their hands, a precaution the more necessary, as their fingers serve instead of knives and forks; and they then proceed to tear scraps of meat from the dish placed in the middle, roll them up into little balls, with *cuscush*, and toss them into their mouths, which they do with singular dexterity. Those who attend to the spirit of Mahomet's laws, wash their hands, face, and beard, again after dinner; while others, contented with looking to the letter only, think it sufficient to wipe their greasy fingers on the woolly heads of their black slaves. Their mode of making tea is somewhat different from ours: tansy, mint, and a plentiful allowance of sugar, are put into the pot at once, which is filled up with boiling water; when sufficiently brewed, it is slipped out of small china cups, just as the *Asiaties* sip their coffee. But the greatest luxury in Barbary is the use of *majûn*, and smoking *hashishah*: the first is an electuary, made of honey, spices, and hemp leaves; the other, those leaves dried, pounded, and smoked instead of tobacco. A teaspoonful of the one, or a few puffs of the other, are enough to produce complete intoxication. The seeds of the *Palma Christi* are also said to be used by them for the same purposes.

XVI. The dress of the Moors is rather cumbersome, 16. Dress. and consists of more articles than seem necessary in so warm a country. The men wear a red woollen skullcap, named after Fez, where it is manufactured, and a white shawl twisted round the head; linen and woollen trowsers, a cotton, or silk stir; a tunic called *kafân*, with or without sleeves, having rows of buttons down the front, kept close to the body by a sash folded round the waist; and a pair of yellow slippers. A strip of velvet passed over the right shoulder suspends the sabre; and the dagger is stuck into the folds of the sash. Thus far they agree very nearly with their brethren in Asia; but another part of their dress is peculiar to Africa, that is, the *hâyle*, or plaid, for it nearly corresponds with that ancient piece of apparel; it is a cotton, silk or woollen cloth, five or six yards long, and about two broad, loosely folded round the head and body. Besides this, they often use the *burnus* as an outer covering; that is, a short, hooded tunic, without sleeves, made of very thick, coarse baine, such as is common among the seamen of the Mediterranean. Heads shorn, save in a single lock, long beards, rings on their fingers, and a string of beads to play with, are as common among the Moors as among the *Asiaties*. The Jews are restricted to the use of black for their outer garments; lepers are distinguished by a straw hat; and the form of a turban generally declares the wearer's rank and profession. It is singular, that when the body and the houses are so frequently washed, the clothes should be neglected; but the natives of Barbary seldom think it necessary to change or cleanse their habiliments.

XVII. Jealousy seems to be a predominant feature 17. Cha- in the character of the Moors; and to it may be ascribed the extreme seclusion of their women: none but those of the lowest orders are ever seen walking in the streets. They have good complexions, black eyes and hair, are middle sized, but too much inclined to corpulence. Their beauty is seldom such as would

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phese Europeans; for expression of countenance is scarcely ever to be met with. Their habits are necessarily sedentary, and some pains are taken to fatten them; for plumpness is the great criteria of beauty among the Moors. Their nuder dress nearly resembles that of the men; exposure of the neck and bosom being almost the only difference. Two broad straps, attached to their girdles, pass over the shoulders, and are crossed upon the breast. Their hair is tressed and braided as in the east, and a handkerchief is tied close round the head, as is often done by the peasants in France. They wear earrings from the upper, as well as lower parts of the ears, and gold and silver rings upon their ancles. Their slippers are always red, and usually embroidered. Veils and hâyes, and sometimes straw hats, form a part of their dress when out of doors. The married Jewesses have an uncommon degree of liberty, and are not obliged to wear veils. They wear petticoats of green embroidered cloth, instead of drawers. A black stripe down the forehead, along the nose, chin, and throat, is considered as a great improvement of their beauty. This is very conspicuous in the plate of the Tripolitan costume, given by Captain Lyon, (p. 7.) In the use of hânah, for giving a red tint to their hair and fingers, and sùbbum, (al-cob) to blacken the inside of their eyelids, they entirely agree with the Asiatics.

18. Ceremonies.

XVIII. Some days before marriage, the bride is visited by her female friends, and the bridegroom is paraded through the streets on horseback, attended by his associates, and a band of music; they express their joy by shewing feats of horsemanship, and firing off their pieces, shouting and racing as if mad. On the wedding-day, the bride is carried through the town in a sort of sedan-chair, fixed on the back of a mule or camel; (see pl. at p. 299, in Captain Lyon's *Travels*;) and covered with silk or linen. A large body of her relations and friends escort her, thus eased up, to the house of her intended husband. Their torches, drums, and musketry, are less dazzling and noisy than those of the bridegroom, who ought, according to the rites of etiquette in Barbary, to reach his door nearly at the same time as they do. The company retire, and he is left alone with his wife, whose veil he then removes for the first time. Their laws, and other ceremonies respecting marriage, are such as all other Mohammedans observe, (see ISLAM.) In their forms of civility, and the intercourse of society, the Barbareques greatly resemble other Mohammedans, but they are on the whole less polished. They often receive their friends in the streets, having mats spread before their doors, on which they seat themselves in a circle, placing their servants outside, to prevent intrusions. The greatest compliment that can be paid to a visitor, is the introduction of tea, a refreshment which has, in Barbary, nearly superseded the use of coffee. This mode of visiting gives little inconvenience to either party, and is well suited to the indolent habits of the Moors. It also gratifies that trifling curiosity which they are fond of indulging, and their vanity, which makes them delight in displaying their acquirements. Inquiries after their neighbour's occupations, and boasting accounts of their own feats of horsemanship, or among the tálils, (i. e. the learned) texts and scraps of theology pompously dealt out, are the favourite topics of conversa-

tion. In their temperance, the Moors are not so phlegmatic as the Turks; they have therefore more gesticulation, as well as a greater variety of intonation and emphasis; but their exclamation is peculiarly harsh and shrill; and, to an European ear, the Arabic is as unpleasant in the mouth of a Moor, as it is bearable in that of a Syrian.

XIX. The amusements fashionable in Barbary are 19. Sports. all in excess; either those indolent ones just described, or the most violent exercises, such as playing with the jerid, (see JEAN,) leap-frog, foot-ball, and a few more such games, were probably imported from Spain; but one is quite peculiar to themselves: it consists of a sort of mock fight; parties of horsemen ride full speed at each other, discharge their pieces, then wheel round and retreat. This is much like the game with the jerid; but to improve it they ride full gallop towards a wall, apprehending it as near as possible; then stop short and fire; but instead of chasing a wall for this purpose, they often chase a friend; for they think they cannot do him a greater honour, than by galloping up and discharging their muskets full in his face. (*Hist. Marocque*, 112; note.) Their love of music is rather a less savage taste, and their lively airs are said to be simple and beautiful; but their serious ones are heavy and tedious. Their treatment of their horses is cruel and injudicious; and among the peculiarities of their horse equipage, the bridle may be mentioned. It has a thong attached to the rein, which serves as a whip. Their spur is a long spike, loosely attached to the foot, which must be carefully kept from the horse's side, if his rider does not wish to do him a serious injury. They are fond of field sports; and far from being sufficiently scrupulous to think of the law of Mahomet when game is in the way. One of their modes of sporting is said to be the concealing themselves in a canvass case, painted like a lion or a leopard, with holes to push the musket through, as soon as a bird gets up. Sometimes the whole country assembles to hunt lions and tigers; and then the chase must bear a strong resemblance to the great hunting parties of the ancients.

XX. Cloths of wool, cotton, and silk, woven by the 20. Trade women, and said to be woven solely by the fingers; and man- coarse linen; carpeting almost as good as that of factories. Turkey; mats of the palmetto (*Chamerops*); swords and gun-barrels of Biscayan iron, well tempered by peculiar waters, found in some districts; bad gunpowder; excellent morocco leather; are the articles they manufacture. Trade must necessarily be at a low ebb, in a country in which there are no roads, no wheel-carriages, little personal security, and an irregular, oppressive government. The inland traffic is principally carried on at fairs from time to time; and the caravans of pilgrims to and from Mecca contribute to keep up the foreign trade, which without them would soon sink into nothing. (The best authorities for this country are Shaw's *Travels*, 2 vols. 1738; Chénier's *Recherches Historiques sur les Maures*, 3 vols. 1787; Finet, *Voy. en Barbarie*, 1799; Lemprière's *Tour*, 1791; St. Olan, *Relation de Maroc*, 1695; Braithwaite's *Revolutions in Morocco*, 1739; Lussacot Addison's *Account of Mar.* 1672; Phnanti's *Algiers*, 1816; Jackson's *Account of Morocco*, 1809.) See MOROCCO, ALGERIA, TUNIS, and TRIPOLI.

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BARBEL. The barbel is so called, says Gesner, by reason of the barb, or wattle at his mouth, which are under his nose or chops. Walton's *Angler*.
It is the vulgar name of the *Cyprinus barbus*.

—The Jewish slave

Six thousand pieces for a barbel gave;

A sentence for each pound it weigh'd, so they

Gave out, that bear great things, but greater say.

Diss. Imitation of Juvenal, sat. iv.

BARBICAN. Fr. and Ital. *barbacane*; Sp. *barbacano*. A casemate; or a hole in a rampart or town wall to shoot out at; or some also hold it to be, a sentry, ecout-house, or hole. Cotgrave. Thwaites asks, may it not be *barb-beacon*? Spelman derives it from Sax. *burge-kenning*. *Urbis seu propugnaculi specula*. Others ascribe it to Arabic origio.

In which meane tyme, the earle with his company made bulwerkes, and *barbarians* storne the towre, and the cylie, and caste dykes & trenches in some places of the cylie, and fortified it wondrously.

Fulgen. Ann. 1566. Hen. III.

To Robert Ufford, earle of Suffolke, hee at that time wote the mayor of Barce-cort in the parish of Seynt Giles without Cripple-gate of London, commonly called to this daie the *Barbican*, because in old time the same had been a *barge-kenning*, or watch tower for the cylie.

Sever. Ann. 1556. Ed. 3.

But this cleansing furthered the time, and caused them to get it sooner then they should have done if the earth had been still; but their fault latest was to raise the defenses of the barbicans, and then come at their pleasure, and enter into the *barbican*, as they have done. *Hutchins. Voyage, &c. The Coast of Rhodes.*

BARBONI, in Zoology, a name given to the *Mullus barbatus*, or red surmullet. See **MULLUS**.

BARBUDA, the most northern of the Caribbean chain, and one of those called the *Virgin Isles*. It is situated east of Tortola, and in the same latitude with Cuba, and twelve leagues north-east of Antigua. Its length is about twenty miles, and breadth twelve, with a population of nearly 1500 individuals, a great part of whom are slaves. Much of it is covered with a fertile soil which yields most of the vegetable products of this climate, among which are cotton, pepper, tobacco, indigo, ginger, and sugar, with various herbs and roots, besides supporting more than the usual proportion of cattle. Several kinds of snakes are found in Barbuda. Some of them are venomous, among which, one with a flat head has been mentioned, whose bite causes almost instant death. Barbuda is in possession of the English, but has no harbour, the want of which is partially supplied by a well sheltered road on the west side of the island. Certain revenues arising from Barbuda belonged to the Codrington family, and with the income from some other plantations, were bequeathed to the Society for propagating the Gospel. It lies between 17° and 18° N. latitude, and between 61° and 62° W. longitude.

BARCELONA, a celebrated city of Spain, and the capital of Catalonia, stands on the shores of the Mediterranean, and flourishes from its extensive commercial relations. It may, with propriety, be reckoned the second city in Spain in reference to population, while it is indisputably one of the first in extent, industry, commerce and opulence. It was founded by the Carthaginians, who called it *Barcino*, after their general of that name. From them it passed to the Romans, and then successively to the Goths, the Moors, and the French. Subsequently it had sovereigns of its own in the courts of Barcelona, till it was annexed to the kingdom of Arragon, and afterwards, with it, united

to the Spanish monarchy. Barcelona is a fortified city, and includes what are called the upper and lower towns, besides the contiguous town of Barceloneta, which altogether comprise a population of about 110,000 individuals. Manufactures and commerce form the chief support of these multitudes. Among the former objects of industry, are silk, linen, and woollen cloths, hats, lace, ribbands, stockings, and soap. Muskets, swords, and other small arms are also made here in large quantities; in addition to which there are several works in steel and brass. The annual value of the cotton goods alone, made at Barcelona, has been stated at £249,000. Though these give employment to a great number of its inhabitants, Barcelona depends more upon its commercial, than its manufacturing, establishments for its prosperity and opulence; and it is therefore to these that its chief enterprise is directed. Catalonia is generally acknowledged to be the most industrious province in Spain, and this city is its grand emporium. Its situation on the shore of the Mediterranean is favourable to its intercourse with all the ports of that sea, but to these its transactions are by no means confined. No sooner had the trade to the transatlantic colonies of Spain (with the exception of Mexico) been declared open to all Spanish subjects, in 1778, than the enterprising merchants of Barcelona availed themselves of this privilege, and took an active share in the commerce of the western world. So prompt, indeed, was their activity on this occasion, that the very year in which the licence was granted no less than twenty-three ships left the port for that destination, freighted with Spanish merchandise, valued at £85,000, and foreign goods to the amount of £25,000. Ten years afterwards this commerce had increased so rapidly that the exports were estimated at £400,000; and the value of the return cargoes at nearly £450,000. The whole annual amount of its commercial transactions, including both imports and exports, has also been stated at £1,700,000. The principal exports consist of its various manufactures, wine, brandy, and other products of that part of the country. Its imports include French and Italian goods, corn from various places, rice from America, timber, hemp and iron from the Baltic; steel from England and Syria; wax from Barbary; linen, copper and brass from Germany. Another extensive article of its import is the salt fish from Newfoundland, the chief trade for which is with England. The harbour is extensive, but difficult of entrance. The number of ships which arrived at Barcelona in 1803, before its commerce was impeded by the late peninsular war, has been stated at 1333, 927 of which were Spanish, and the remainder belonged to other nations. The Barcelonians have various institutions for the promotion of literature, arts and sciences; among which are academies for jurisprudence, natural philosophy, medicine, history, and the fine arts. Many parts of the town are well built, and its principal edifices display those characteristics of architectural splendour which are the usual concomitants of opulence. Some of the churches, colleges, convents, and hospitals, the exchange and other buildings, deserve the attention of the lover of the arts for their numerous and chaste decorations. Barcelona is the seat of a captain-general, a governor, and a royal audiencia; and there too the archives of the kingdom of Arragon are preserved. A cannon

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foundry is also established in its royal arsenal. This city, as well as many other of the principal places in the peninsula felt the effects of the late struggle. In 1808 the French made themselves masters of it by a stratagem. Having arrived before its walls with an army of about 10,000 men, on the 13th of February, they requested permission to halt and refresh themselves on their way to Valencia, in consequence of which the gates were opened, and they were received as friends. Three days afterwards they assembled on the parade as though intending to pursue their route; but they soon filed off in two divisions, the one to the citadel, and the other to the fort of Montjuic, which stands upon a contiguous eminence, and commands the town. Both places were immediately summoned to surrender, and were given up by their commanders. From that time Barcelona remained in the hands of the French till 1814, when their troops were withdrawn from Catalonia to oppose the allied forces, who then began to threaten the very capital of that country whose hostile armies had lately occupied almost every metropolis of continental Europe. The latitude of Barcelona is about $41^{\circ} 33' N.$ and its longitude $2^{\circ} 10' E.$

BARCELONA, a province in South America, which formed a part of the late government of Cumana. It constituted one of the three provinces into which that government was divided, and was bounded by Cumana proper on the west, Caracas on the east, and the Orinoco on the south, which separates it from Guiana. It now forms a part of the government of Columbia. It is partly composed of vast plains, which joining to those of Caracas, stretch to a great distance. There are vast savannas affording excellent pasturage, which were some years ago stocked with numerous herds of cattle. These had multiplied so rapidly that the inhabitants of this province sometimes killed eight or nine hundred thousand in a single year. They were also noted for their skill in curing the beef, with which they supplied several of the adjoining islands. Various circumstances, however, have now diminished the number; and the supply at present is little more than adequate to the domestic consumption. This province contains several salt pits from which an abundance of this useful fossil is also obtained with little trouble.

BARCELONA, N.W., a city of South America, the capital of the above province, situated on a plain, on the left bank of the river Neveri, and about half a league from the sea. It was founded by the Spaniards in 1634, but can boast of few advantages either in its plan or mode of construction. Its unpaved streets are extremely muddy during the wet, and dusty in the dry seasons. The population is stated at 12,000 or 14,000, about half of whom are people of colour. Agriculture is in general neglected in this province, and nearly the whole of the population is engaged in trade, especially in a species of contraband commerce with Trinidad and several of the other islands. Barcelona has long been considered as the grand emporium of this traffic, and from it the goods were dispersed through several of the other provinces both by sea and land. Being now released from the shackles of Spanish policy, its trade is more free, and a few years will, doubtless, render Barcelona more flourishing and opulent than while subject to the late peninsular edicts. Latitude $10^{\circ} 10' S.$ and longitude $64^{\circ} 47' W.$

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BARCELONETTA, a small and new town in Spain, in the province of Catalonia, in the immediate vicinity of Barcelona, to which it is sometimes considered as a suburb. It stands on the south-east of that city, between the harbour and the lighthouse, and was built on a piece of waste ground, about the middle of the last century, under the auspices of the Marquis de la Mina, the captain-general of Catalonia. It consists of a square, laid out into twenty-four streets, composed of brick houses, all built upon the same plan, which gives it a neat, though somewhat dull and monotonous appearance. The number of houses is stated at 600, and that of the inhabitants at 10,000, the major part of whom are soldiers, sailors and persons otherwise connected with the navy. The church is a handsome structure, in the form of a Greek cross, and considerable expense has been bestowed upon its decoration.

BARDS. } The kind of song which the Bards
Ba'adick, } sung is called *barditus*, by Tacitus in his
Ba'adish, } *Germania*; and *barditus* is derived by
Ba'adolin. } Wachter from Ger. *baries*, pugnare.
The Bards, then, were the composers of the war song, the song of battle; and their task was *marium accendere cantu*, "the martial carnage make in breistis rym." Du Cange says, that *bardie*, is to send forth the cry of the stag; whence it has been supposed that Bards were so called because they imitated the noise or bellowing of a stag.

And [the Germans] have certain verses, by singing of which, calling it *barditus*, they incourage their people, and by the same song foretell the fortune of the future battle; for they both strike a fear into others, and are themselves striken with fear, according to the measure and tone of the battle; moving rather no harmonic of valour than voices; and do affect principally a certain roughness of the voice, and a broken confused murmur, by putting their targets before their mouths, to the end their voice by the reverberation might sound bigger and fuller.

Grævius. Tacitus. Germania.

Then you that valiant souls, and slain in war
Do celebrate with praise that never dies,
You bards securely sing your elegies.

Mag. Lucas, B. I. A. 8.

You too, ye bards! whom sacred rapture fire,
To chaunt your heroes to your country's lyre;
Who consecrate, in your immortal strain,
Brave patriot souls in righteous battle slain;
Securely now the tuneful task renew,
And nobler themes in deathless songs pursue.

Rever. A. ch. xx. p. 22.

And indeed my jealousy hath oft vex'd me with particular insinuations of whatsoever occurs, bearing not a mark of most apparent truth, ever since I found so intolerable antichronisms, incredible reports, and *bardus* impostures, as well from ignorance as assumed liberty of invention in some of our authors.

Selden on Drayton's Polyolbion.

Her lips no living bard, I weat,
May say, how red, how round, how sweet;
Old Homer only could indite,
Their vagrant grace and soft delight:
They stand recorded in his book,
When Helen smil'd, and Hebe spoke.

Prior. Her Right Name.

— Their ashes flew
No marble tells us whither. With their names
No bard embalms and sanctifies his song:
And history, so warm on meaneer themes,
Is cold on this.

Cooper. The Task, book v.

Faith! let him 'scape, let love and fame survive,
With your kind sanction keep his scenes alive;
Try to approve (unless we will exempt)
Nor crush the *bard* in this hard attempt.

Cunningham. A Præface to Love and Fame.

¶ M

BARCELONETTA.
BARD.

BARD.

The Welsh, kept in awe as they were by the Romans, harassed by the Saxons, and eternally jealous of the attacks, the encroachments, and the neighbourhood of aliens, were on this account attached to their Celtic manners; this situation, and these circumstances, inspired them with a pride and an obstinacy for maintaining a national distinction, and for preserving their ancient usages, among which the bardic profession is so eminent.

Warton. History of English Poetry, vol. i.

A history of Bards would, in one sense, be a history of the rise of POETRY: for, under whatever different titles they may have been known, the early poets of every nation have in fact been Bards. The Demodocus of the Phœnician banquet, the Tyrtæus of the Spartan phalanx, the Scald of the Runie mythology, and the Minstrel of the Baronial castle, are all only so many varieties of the same genus. But as the name, at present under our consideration, has been more peculiarly appropriated to such cultivators of song as may be distinctly traced to Celtic origin, it is to these only that we shall confine ourselves in the brief notice of the Bards, which we are about to offer below.

Celtic Bards.

The information which remains to us, from classical sources, relative to the Celtic Bards, is but scanty and incidental; and it is to be collected only from a few detached passages of writers not immediately addressing themselves to this especial point. From the well-known verses of Lucan, (l. 447.) we learn that the memory of heroes slain in battle was preserved in the songs of the Bards; and it is obvious to suppose, that the first poetry of a warlike people would chiefly treat of war. Dindorus Siculus (v. 31.) tells us, in the words of Booth's translation, that "among them, (the Celts) they have poets (that sing melodious songs, whom they call Bards; who, to their musical instruments, (*παιὴ ἀργαυρὸν*), chant forth the praises of some, (*ἐπαινεῖν*) and the dispraises of others," (*βλασφημεῖν*). The closing expression of this passage induces a suspicion that satire was not unknown among them.

Their rank and honour.

A musician who followed in the suite of Bituitus, king of the Arverni, and sang his praises, is recorded by Appian, in his *Fragments on the Celtic Wars*; and though a phrase of Pseudo-Dionysius, cited by Athenæus, in a passage which it is not easy to translate literally, (vi. 11.) appears to assign no higher rank than that of parasites to the poetical encomiasts whom the Celtic chiefs, even during the times of war, led about in their train; yet Strabo sufficiently testifies the distinguished honours with which they were invested, and the respect, approaching to veneration, which attached to those whose hymns celebrated the attributes of the gods, and whose songs gave immortality to the deeds of heroes, (*ἀθάνατον ἐποίησαν τῶν ἡρώων ἔργα*) Nor must it be forgotten, that Pseudo-Dionysius himself, on another occasion, (Athenæus, iv. 12.) while describing the magnificence of Luernius, the father of Bituitus, has stated the rich largesse which he bestowed upon a Bard who, arriving late at a festival, had made him his theme: a largesse too splendid to have been thrown away upon one whom Valerius (*ad Annianum*, Marcell. xv. 9.) would reduce to the base level of buffoons and jesters. The Bard, when he had received the golden shower from the royal hand, was not deficient in courtly repayment. He struck his harp, and sang to it, "that beneath the tracks of the chariot wheels of Luernius, arose bounty and benevolence to mankind."

The *barditus*, or war-cry of the Germans, (Tacitus, Germ. 3.) by which they sought to increase the fury of their onset, and from the animation or the languor of which, they drew omens of the fortunes of the fight, without turning to any fanciful etymology from the cry of the elephant (*barrus*), or of the stag (*berdus*), though the perverse ingenuity of the commentators has attempted both, may rather be deduced from the name Bard itself. It was for the purpose of raising this war-cry, that the Bards were attached to the military train; not only as the chroniclers, but as the inspirers also of valour; as necessary attendants in the dubious hour of battle, no less than in the triumphant feast of victory.

BARD.

Barditus of the Germans.

Duty of the Bards in war.

It is not requisite in this place to trace the different settlements and dispersions of the Celts, nor to shew their intimate coexistence with the islands of Britain. Similar manners, for the most part, will be the result of similar situations: and Bards would doubtless have existed in the fastnesses of Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, (though perhaps under some other title,) even if the links, which unite these countries with Gaul and Germany, were cemented by less satisfactory evidence than that which in fact binds them together. The resemblance of languages is a strong proof of the affinity of nations; and without inquiring whether the term Bard is indigenous Welsh, or whether it records the name of the fifth king of the Celts, if we find that both among the Celts and the Welsh a distinct class of men was set aside, exercising the same functions, and bearing the same title, it is not too much to affirm that they spring from the same origin.

Strabo, in a part of the passage above referred to, points out the connection of the Bards with Druidism: but, at present, it is more in their poetical than in their religious ministry, that we wish to consider them. The first regulation of their ministry with which we meet, is in the days of Cadwalladr, the last king of Britain. This king, who died at Rome about the close of the seventh century, is said to have prohibited all performances in a certain key, which was grating to his ears, and to have fixed the key of *Gwynedd* (North Wales) as the only one which henceforward was to be used in the royal presence. (John David Rhys's *Welsh Grammar*.) Nearly 200 years after, Nennius, who wrote in the reign of king Merwyn, has catalogued some of the most excellent Bards who preceded him. Of these, three only are now extant; and the obscurity which hangs over the dictation of the contemporaries, Taliesin, Aneurin, and Llywarch, is too great to allow much knowledge to be drawn from their works. The infancy of Taliesin was attended with circumstances of no little marvel. He was discovered by Elphin, a prince, the son of Gwyddno Garanhir, wrapped in a leathern bag, and floating in a coracle on the waters of a lake. The fatherless and deserted child received protection and education from his royal benefactor, and repaid him by strains which are said to have won him from a settled melancholy, and to have contributed to the re-establishment of his shattered fortunes. Taliesin appears to have been deeply imbued with the druidical doctrine of metempsychosis; and the subjects as well as the language of his general poems, are far removed from ordinary conception. The forgeries to his name are very numerous; but they readily betray themselves, both by style and matter. He speaks of his

Connection between the Celtic and British Bards.

Cadwalladr, — Circiter A.D. 590.

A.D. 1600. Taliesin.

BARD. own residence, in a poem entitled *Aurlog Urien*, (Urien's present.) It was by Llyn Geirinoaydd, in the parish of Llan Rhydywyo, in Caernarvonshire; and he mentions also the fame of his celebrated contemporary Aneurin. This second Bard was little behind the first in rank, if we may judge from their names of honour. Taliesin bore that of *Pes Beirdd*, (head of the Bards,) Aneurin was known as *Mychdeirn Beirdd*, (monarch of the Bards.) In his chief poem, *Godeodin*, Aneurin records the wars of Mynyddawc Eiddin with the Saxons. On the fatal field of Cattraeth, three hundred and sixty of the noblest Britons, decked with golden chains, and moist with dew of Hydromel, were slain by their enemies; and the Bard himself, and two others only survived to tell the bravery and the misfortunes of their countrymen. Llywarch was related to Urien, prince of Cumberland; he speaks of his banishment by the Saxons to Powis, and of the feats of his twenty-four sons, who all likewise had merited the distinction of golden chains, and who all fell honourably in the cause of their country. It is to Llywarch that we owe the history of the real Arthur, upon the narrative of whose wars was afterwards ingrafted so much of splendid but incoherent fable.

Llywarch.
King Ar-
thur.

The *Æneid* first lent the groundwork of its story; and the British prince, in the progress of romance, was deduced from Troy, and allied to the Cæsars. To this were afterwards annexed the wonders of oriental enchantment; then the gallantry and the magnificence of chivalry; and the legend of the *Round Table*, and the illustrious champions who graced it, completed the brilliant tale. This legend we dare not affirm, yet we are loth to disbelieve: and it may be satisfactory to the lovers of Sir Tristram and Sir Lancelot to be told, that Mr. Morris, in his *Manuscripts of British Music*, has preserved the memory of a tune called *Gostegyr Hulen* (the Prelude of the Sult,) which, as tradition says, was always played when the saltcellar was placed on the board before the assembled knights.

Upon a basis thus narrow, the rude exploits of a barbarian prince, recorded by an unpolished chronicler, was gradually reared that gorgeous and stately fabric of imagination, which for ecstasies delighted the brave and the gay, and embraced in itself the literature of all that approached to civilisation in Europe. The similarity of their languages, and the close communication kept up between the inhabitants of Wales and Armorica, led to a continued intercourse of poetical lore. Hence, in the early French romances, we so often find the scene of adventure laid in Wales; and in return it may be observed, that many fictions have passed literally from the Troubadours into the tales and chronicles of the Welsh Bards. Wartoo remarks that instances are innumerable; and he cites two, which are to be found in the legends of both countries, *Le Court Mantel*, and the story of the *Giant's Coat*, which was composed of the beards of kings. (*Hist. of English Poetry*, diss. 1; *Oss. on Spenser*, 34.)

From the days of these chiefs of song till the tenth century, there appears a blank in the annals of bardism. The *Triads*, which are supposed to have been written about a.d. 650, are manifestly not a little inferior to the works of the preceding Bards. This "*Book of Tripletions*," as it is termed by Camden, is founded upon the druidical veneration for the number three; and in this respect it has a close resemblance to the still older poetry, the *Englyn Mihir*, (the warrior's

verse,) which throughout is written in three lined stanzas. In the most ancient histories, the narrative was divided into sections, containing three similar events. All men of note, whether famous or infamous, were classed together by threes; and sentences of three parts conveyed in the people the moral and natural philosophy of the druids.

Under the auspices of Howell Dda, in the middle of the tenth century, the reputation of the Bards increased. A code of laws was framed and delivered by this monarch, to regulate their duties, and to assure their privileges: and these institutions, which are still extant, sufficiently demonstrate the high respect which was paid to the masters of song. The code of Howell Dda was suggested and enforced by Bleddyn ap Cynwyn, prince of Powys; but it was chiefly by the subsequent revision of Gruffydd ap Cynan, a contemporary of the English Stephen, that the constitution of the Bards was finally adjusted. These several *Lleges Wallice* have been translated by Wotton: and we shall transcribe from them some of their most curious particulars.

The Bards were distributed into three classes, *Prydydd, Teuluar*, and *Clerer*, and a fixed stipend was allotted to each. Every three years, in a solemn assembly (*Eisteddfod*) of princes and chieftains, degrees of rank were conferred according to merit, and the victor in the contest of the Muses was presented with a golden or silver chain, as a badge of honour, and dignified by the title *Coderfurrdd*, betokening the nature of his prize. The congress was held at one of the royal seats, Aberffraw, in Anglesey, Mathrafal, in the land of Powys, or Dinewir, in Caernarvonshire.

Lleges Wal-
lice.

The *Bardd Teulu*, or as we may term him the poet Y Bardd laureate, was in rank the eighth officer of the king's Teulu household. On his inauguration he received from the hand of the monarch a harp, from which he promised never to part; and a chess-board, made of whalebone or ivory. It is thus all the interpreters have rendered the original expression; but we should rather substitute the vague and useful word *table*: or if backgammon (see the word) is admitted to be a game of Welsh origin, it may be supposed that the royal gift was a board for that pastime. The king provided his woollen clothing, and horse furniture; his linen was given him by the queen. He lodged with the controller of the household; and at the great festivals of Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide, his place at the king's table was next that high officer, who gave him his harp, and whose garment he claimed as his fee. His laud was held free. If he accompanied a foray, the finest beifer was his booty; but for this he was to occupy the post of dangerous honour; for in case the detachment was engaged with an enemy, he was to sing at its head the praises of the British monarchy. In times of peace his person received extraordinary protection; whoever struck him, paid a fine fourfold that which would atone for a blow to another: a slight injury offered to him might be compensated by six cows and 120 pence; but his blood could be washed out by no less a payment than 126 cows. This fine for murder was termed *gerwith*. The marriage fine (*merch-Gobr*), of his daughter was 120 pence; her nuptial present (*coryll argyffru*) 30 shillings; her portion, three pounds. In a concert with other Bards he always received double pay; and

BARD. In all cases his songs had precedence, unless a *Cadeir-fardd* was present. There seem, however, to have been precautions taken against the possibility of his falling into that vice, which Horace has especially assigned to the mns of the Muses. Least he should be tempted to proceed *ad oco usque ad mala*, it was particularly enjoined, that if he sang in the apartment of the princess after she had retired from table, it was to be in a low voice, that he might not disturb the performances in the hall. All these regulations are sufficiently clear; but we know not how to explain the one which follows. If the *Bardd Teulu* asked a favour of the king, he was obliged to play one of his own compositions; if of a nobleman, three such; but an unfortunate plebeian was doomed to have all the bard's "tediousness" bestowed upon him; he was compelled to listen till the performer rested upon his elbow, or fell asleep from weariness.

Three classes of Bards. Poets. Players on the *crwth*.

The laws of Gryffydd recognise a triple distribution of the Bards. The first who were Bards *xar' i'f'x'x'*, were makers or poets; the second were the players on the harp or *crwth*, the music of which Pwyl, though a Welshman born, has unwittingly admitted to be derived from the Irish. "Gryffydd ap Conan, who being on the one side an Irishman, by his mother and grandfather, and also borne in Ireland, brought over with him out of that country, divers cunning musicians into Wales, who derived in a manner all the instrumental music that is now there used, as appeareth as well by the books written of the same, as also by the names of the tunes and measures used among them to this day." (191.) Pennant is indignant at the charge of imitation, and strives to show, that even if the *crwth* was borrowed, it came through the Romans from the Greeks. (*Tour in Wales*, ii, 88.)

Dalcianid.

The lowest order called *Dalcianid*, accompanied the music of others by their voices. However inferior to the two former ranks, their science was not inconsiderable. They tuned and understood the harp; they were conversant with the twenty-four measures of instrumental music, and the twenty-four modes of metrical composition. Reading and writing were their accomplishments necessary for them, and by these they were obliged to correct any bad song which had suffered from careless transcription. The crowning duties required from them were, expertness in the mysteries of *cheironomy*; for all sorts of fowl were entrusted to their carving; and at a royal wedding, their post was to wait on the bride.

In order to prevent the degradation of a class of men so highly the objects of royal munificence and protection, the laws of Gryffydd forbade a Bard from following any other occupation. They enjoined also most strictly "of what basest behaviour and conversation they ought to be; no make bates, no vagabonds, no ale house hunters, no drunkards, no brawlers, no women hunters, no thieves, nor companions of such. In which things if they offend, everie man by the said statute is made an officer, and authorized to arrest and punish them, yea and take from them all that they have about them. They are also in the same statute forbidden to enter into any man's house, or to make any song of any man without special licence of the party himselfe." (Powel, *Id.*)

There was besides these three gradations, a supplementary performer, scarcely to be honoured with the title of Bard, the *Dalcianid pen poeten*, (the singer to

the club.) If the guests at a feast permitted his introduction, he first acted as a menial servant to any genuine Bard who was present, and then having obtained leave of this professor, he stood in the middle of the hall and sang, beating time and playing a symphony with his clab.

BARD.

One of the most magnificent festivals on record in the Cambrian history, was celebrated by Rhys, prince of South Wales, at Christmas in the year 1176. In the hall of the castle of Aberteifi, in honour of the completion of which the banquet was proclaimed, all the bards of the principality were arranged on seats. The summons, like those issued by the *Sybarites*, had been delivered a year and a day before the meeting; and the numerous strangers who had been attracted by the splendour of the preparations, were previously entertained by trials of strength and exercises at arms. The contest of the Bards for pre-eminence was long and arduous; and those of the household of Rhys himself were highly distinguished. But the judge of the court assigned the prize to the Bards of North Wales; and received as his fee from the victor a mighty drinking horn, a golden ring, and the cushion of his chair of dignity.

The order of Bards was more than once rendered illustrious by the admission of princes. In a Welsh *History of the Lords of Glamorgan*, Robert, duke of Normandy is said to have chafed some of his twenty-eight years of dreary captivity in Cardiff castle, by the study of Welsh poetry, and to have attained such proficiency in the art, as justified his regular enrolment among its professors. A poem composed by Owain Cyveiliog, prince of Powys, about the year 1167, is still extant. It does not appear that themes of softer passion were yet known to the Cambrian muses; but the praises of wine readily succeed, and come in next degree to those of war. The hall of Owain, which was ever supported by the smiles of his enemies, and the gates of which were ever open, gloried in the azure horn *Hirlas*, whose gloss was like the wave of the sea. The princely bard instructs his cup-bearer, and it is at no less a peril than that of his head, to fill this celebrated horn to Tador, the eagle of battle, and Morciddig the encourager of songs; and the illustrious owner of the cup which furnished mead for heroes, did not disdain himself to record its bounties. To this list of royal bards may be added Owen of Venedotia, and Llewellyn the last king of Wales.

The period between Gryffydd ap Cynan and Llewellyn, is esteemed the Augustan age of Welsh poetry; and the reader will find in Llywyl's *Archæologia*, an almost interminable catalogue of writers who flourished during this interval. The misfortunes of Llewellyn for a while silenced the harp; nevertheless we believe this silence to have resulted more from the threats of the conqueror, than from any absolute infliction of punishment. However little we may be inclined to admit, on general principles, the subtleties of "Historic doubts," yet we cannot discover any satisfactory evidence upon which to found the unjustly accredited tale of the massacre of the Welsh Bards by Edward I. The story rests, in the first instance, upon a vague tradition. A passage in Sir John Wynne's *History of the House of Guedyr*, stands singly as a written testimony; and this, although it is of comparatively modern date, (Sir John Wynne was born in 1553,) and the author of it cites no elder authority,

a. o. 1176.
Feast of Rhys.

Princes enrolled as Bards.

Edward I.

Doubts on the truth of the story of the massacre of the Bards.

BARD. has been transcribed, by every subsequent writer, as if it was a complete and substantial proof of the cruelty of the invading monarch. The noble lyric of our English Pindar has contributed to establish the charge; and posterity may perhaps refer to the *Bard* of Gray as incontrovertible evidence of a fact, for which authentic history presents no voucher whatsoever.

Sir John Wynne after quoting a poem of the date 1440, thus proceeds: "This is the most ancient song I can find, which is addressed to any of my ancestors since the reign of Edward I. who caused our Bards all to be banished by martial law, as stirrers up of the people to sedition: whose example being followed by the governors of Wales until Henry IV. his time, was the utter destruction of that sort of men. Since then this kind of people were at some further liberty to sing, and to keep pelegrees, as in ancient times they were wont: since which we have some light of antiquity by their songs and writings. From the reign of Edward I. to Henry IV. there is therefore no certainty or very little of things done, other than what is to be found in the prince's records, which now by tossings the same from the Exchequer at Caerwron to the Tower, and to the offices in the Exchequer at London, as also by ill keeping and ordering of late days, are become a chaos and confusion with a total neglect of (such) method and order as would be needful for him who would be ascertained of the truth of things done from time to time." The destruction of Bardish poems to which obscure allusion is here made, is said to have taken place in the Tower of London; to which fortress the Welsh nobles, during their imprisonment after Llewellyn's fall, were permitted, as an indulgence, to remove their libraries. The circumstances are no where expressly stated; but the indignant anathema of a Bard of the fifteenth century, Gutto'r Glyn, has preserved the name of the enemy of the Muses, who is believed to have committed this second Alexandrian ravage.

*Llyfrau Cymru as Uffordd
I'r Tur Gwyn aethant ar godd;
Yseler odd Ysulan
Fwrw'r torri llyfrau IV tan.*

The books of Cambria and their remains
Went to the White Tower where they were burned:
Cursed was Ysulan's act
In throwing them in heaps into the flames.

It is not doubted that an order was issued by Edward I. to prohibit the circuits and meeting of the Bards; but the story of the destruction of their existing poems through his means, appears to be no less apocryphal than that of their massacre. Sir David Dalrymple has ably refuted it; and it is indeed disproved by the almost endless collection which Mr. Owen Jones has compiled of the Bardic poems between the reigns of Edward I. and Elizabeth. Mr. Jones's work was not completed after it had been transcribed between fifty and sixty volumes in quarto.

Owen Glendower. The gleam of liberty, which for a short time shone again over Wales, during the heroic struggle of Owen Glendower, awakened with it once more the slumbering energy of the Bards; and the ordinance which Edward passed to curb those spirits, which he is said to have found no less dangerous to his power and ambition, than Philip found the orators of Athens, was violated by more than one pinnegryt of the patriot prince. The names of Tolo Goch and Dwydd ap Gwilliam are

preserved to us as adorning these times. A statute of Henry IV. renewed the severities of the first conqueror, and spoke most contemptuously of its objects: yet Henry has escaped the obloquy, which has, with little desert, attached on this point to the memory of the prince in whose steps he trod. His decree runs thus: "*Item par eschier plusieurs diseuses et mescheifs quant edeneux devant ces heures en la terre de Gales, par plusieurs westours, rymours, ministrals et autres vacabondes, ordeynnez est et establi que nul westour, rymour, ministrals ne vacabonde soit aucunement sostenus en la terre de Gales, pour faire hymorthes ou collage sur la commune peuple illoques.* (4 Hen. IV. 27.) The Kymorthas and Collage (Cymorthu and Ciera) were assemblies and annual progresses authorized by the Bardic institution; and they were diligently suppressed during the reign of Henry of Lancaster. The policy of his successor was milder; and during his sway, and long afterwards, the Bards ceasing from the hazardous labours of framing national chronicles, confined themselves to the humbler task of compiling private genealogies. Each noble family maintained a resident poet, whose duties were to ascertain the lineage of his patron, and to hazon his descent in verse. Like the elder bards, whom David Rhys has happily styled *Parsennatic*, their business was to understand the pedigrees of kings and princes, and to be well versed in the works of Merlin Morfrynus, Merlin Ambrosius, and Taliesin: or as a yet earlier writer, Giraldus Cambrensis, puts it, "They ought to be able to trace their lords from Roderic the great to Belinus, thence to Sytirus, Ascanius and Eboens, and in the end lineally to Adam himself."

The production of the Bards of these times throw much light upon disputed points of antiquity, and they are records to which, for the most part, the historian may refer with security. One of the most solemn duties of the stipendiary poet, was to compose an epic-drama on any deceased branch of the family to which he was attached. The elegy was recited in the presence of the survivors, and it was valued in proportion to the richness of its heraldic lore, and its memorials of ancestral descent.

Elizabeth once again permitted the exercise of the occupation of the Bards. A commission dated in 1567, the ninth year of her reign, was long in the possession of the Mostyn family, and may be so still. In this she addresses herself to certain leading gentry of the principality, stating, that vagrant and idle persons, naming themselves minstrels, rymers and Bards, have grown up in intolerable multitude, causing shameless disorders, disquieting gentlemen in their habitations, discouraging and hindering of their living and preferment expert minstrels and musicians, "in tongue and cunning." The queen "wishing to put these people in order," appoints the aforementioned gentlemen her commissioners, and understanding that the hitherto accustomed place for executing this commission was Cayroes, in the county of Flint, and that William Mostyn and his ancestors had the gift and bestowing of the silver harp appertaining to that faculty, and that a year's warning, at least, was used to be given of the assembly, she directs proclamation to be made, that all who intend to maintain their living by name or colour of minstrel, rymers or Bards, within the five counties, should repair to Cayroes on the Monday after the feast of the blessed Trinity, 1568, there to show

Genealogical Bards.

Elizabeth.

BARD.

their learning. The judges were instructed to "admit such as were found worthy to exercise their sciences and faculties in decent order: appertaining to the degrees heretofore in use, giving straight monition to the rest to return to some honest labour, upon pain of being taken as sturdy and idle vagabonds."

An *Eisteddfod* was accordingly held at Cayres on the twenty-sixth of May following, and degrees were conferred on no less than fifty-five aspirants. The great prize, the silver harp, was adjudged to Simon ap Williams ap Sion; and it was a memorable triumph for the winner, for it was attained at the last congress of the Bards held under a royal commission.

Music and
prowess of
the Bards.

The music and measures of the Bards are subjects of no little intricacy, and a treatise on them by David Rhys, (*Constitutio seu Edicta antiquissima in unum Bardorum prescripta*, at the end of his *Cymbro Britannice Cymrevice lingue Institutiones*), does not much assist in unravelling the labyrinth. Their prosody depended much upon alliteration. Rhys, who flourished as a physician and grammarian about 1592, who had been educated at Oxford, and had graduated also at Siena, speaks of the great compass and variety of the poetry of Wales. He compares it to that of Italy, and he inserts a whole Italian poem marked in the manner of Welsh. An ode in Metastasio, commencing *Supra il Scatissimo*, is written in a very favourite Welsh measure, in which the end of the first line rhymes to the middle of the second, the end of the second to the middle of the third, and so on. But for the "alliterative and catenary" prosody to which no little mysticism belonged; for the *Euchyris*, *Cowiths* and *Oedels*, the first consisting of interchanged couplets of sixteen and fifteen feet each, called *Paldindries* and *Pensels*, the second of equal tetrameters, and the third of variety both in rhyme and quantity, we must refer our readers at once to the fountain head in Rhys: out with much hope that they will leave the learned leech much better informed than they approached him, but with a confidence that they will have read the profoundest work which has appeared on the science.

The Bardic instruments besides the harp, were the pipe and *crwth*. The latter, as we have before mentioned, is of disputed origin. It is supposed to be the ancestor of the violin. The *Crowdero* of Hudibras is well known; and in some parts of England a fiddler still retains the antiquated name of *crowder*. Mr. Jones in his *Dissertation on the Musical Instruments of the Welsh*, has given a minute description of the *crwth*; and Mr. Daines Barrington in transmitting a paper upon it to the Antiquarian society in the year 1770, affirms that its use was then almost wholly lost, since at that time there was but one person in the principality who could play upon it. Their music in general, as Schelen would persuade us in his *Illustrations of the Fourth Song of the Polydion* "especially affected the mind composing Dorianque." Nevertheless, if the account of it which he cites from an old writer be admitted, the concerts of the Dorians could not very widely differ from those which we proverbially attribute to the Dutch. "*Non uniformiter, ut alibi, sed multiplex, multaque modis et modulâ contentis emittunt adæo at turbæ concitatus quot videas capitis tot audias carmina, diuturnaque cocum varia, in suavis deinceps, rub R. mollis (quæ?) dulcedine blanda, consonantium et organicon convenientia melodiam.*" (*Musiciæ Heracleot, in vespertine.*)

BARD.

Degrees of
poetry and
music.

To the poetical faculty there were four degrees; five to the musical. If *Dysgybl gyspas* (the lowest disciple) or probationer for poetry was obliged to compose five species of *Euchyris*, before a chief of the faculty, who was to declare upon his conscience, that he was endowed with a true poetical genius. The probationer then commenced *Dysgybl Dysgybladd* (a disciple to be disciplined) the lowest degree of graduation. He was bound to compose in twelve different metres, and if he could not proceed at the next *Eisteddfod* he was degraded from the rank which he had already attained. The third was *Dysgybl Pencerddadd* (disciple for the *Pencerdd*, a chief faculty) a knowledge of "the propriety of expressions," and of twenty-one metres were required from him, on the same penalty. If competent, in three years more, he might attain the summit of the Welsh *Paranassus*, by becoming *Pencerdd* (chief of the faculty).

The *Pencerdd* or *Penbardd* (or chief of the faculty) was required to be accomplished in every branch of his art. He was decorated with the badge of the silver harp, or that of the golden or silver chain, which he wore on his shoulder, and being solemnly installed upon a throne of state, he was invested with his degree. The *Penbardds* were each allowed to take one pupil at a time; and these pupils were forbidden to follow the practice of *cler y dom* (dunghill bards) or any other species of vagabond musicians.

The common fee of a *Dysgybl dysgybladd* for his composition was 3s. 4d. a *Dysgybl pencerddadd*, and a *Penbardd* received 6s. 9d. and the last might claim in addition the garment of the master of the house.

The degrees in music, with the exception of the two lowest, were the same. These were, 1. *Dysgybl gyspas heb radd* (the lowest disciple without a degree), and *Dysgybl gyspas graddawl* (the lowest graduated disciple). Similar trials and proofs of attainment were required as among the Bards of song, and the *Pencerdd* (chief in this society) like the *Penbardd*, was thought to degrade himself by frequenting any but the houses of the gentry.

Since the days of Elizabeth, as we have before mentioned, no *Eisteddfod* has been held by royal commission. Individuals, however, from time to time have attempted the revival of Bardism, and societies have been formed for the protection and encouragement of Welsh literature. In 1818, many of the leading nobility and gentry of the principality instituted a society for the preservation of the remains of ancient British literature, poetical, historical, antiquarian, sacred and moral, and for the encouragement of the national music. The objects of the *Cambria society* are to catalogue all existing Welsh manuscripts; for which purpose an agent is employed to visit different libraries, to make such transcripts as appear necessary from the manuscripts; and to collect printed Welsh books. Annual meetings were likewise established for recitation of prize verses and essays, and performances on the harp. We believe that other societies have branched from this original body; and that the Bardic chain and silver harp have not been awarded without an arduous contest. For the first there were no less than ten competitors in the congress held at Wrexham, in 1890; and, in consequence of the success of this national attempt, a society was formed under the immediate patronage of the

Attempted
revival of
Bardism in
Wales.

BARD.

king, and named the *The Cymmroddion or Metropolitan Cambrian Institution*. Much ancient British lore is supposed to exist in hitherto unprinted, and almost unknown, manuscripts; and it is nearly sixty years since, that Mr. Evans in vain endeavoured to attract public attention to many valuable collections which he specified. Those of the Earl of Macclesfield, of the Wynnstay family, of the Duke of Ancaster, of the Mostyn family, of John Davies, Esq. of Llanaerch, of Miss Wynne of Bod Yscellan, and of William Vaughan, Esq. at Corfy Gedol, appeared to him the most important. But sixty years are of no small moment in the condition of manuscripts which have already endured the wear, perhaps, of twelve centuries; and we shall not be surprised to hear, that the slow but certain havoc of time has deprived the *Cymmroddion* of the greater part of its materials.

Scotch Bards.

We have purposely avoided all allusion to the primary origin of Bardism, from the impossibility of tracing this controverted subject within the limits which we feel permitted to assign to it; and for the same reasons from which we have been induced to omit any consideration of the hypothesis for which Warton has pleaded with so much elegance and ingenuity, the introduction of Bardism from the east, we shall also forbear to enter upon the disputed ground of Ossian and the elder Scottish poetry. On other occasions, we may perhaps find an opportunity of recording the causes of our scepticism, but in this place we should consider it impertinent to introduce them.

Irish Bards.

The Bardic institution of the Irish, under different names, bear a strong affinity to that of the Welsh. The *Ollmhuin Re-dun or Fuidhe* (poets) clothed religious dogmas in verse, raised the war song, and celebrated the feats of heroes. The *Breithne hoin* delivered the laws in a chaunt, probably resembling the Roman *carmines* (*lex erat horrendi carminis*). The *Somachuidhe* were genealogists; and besides these, there was an inferior minstrel order of many subdivisions, under the general title *Oir-fidh*. The degrees among the bards were seven. 1. *Fochluach*, who were to repeat thirty tales at public festivals, if required. 2. *Mac-Fuinidh*, from whom forty might be demanded. 3. *Dow*, who were to have fifty to store. 4. *Cannuith*. 5. *Cli*. 6. *Anuith*; from each of whom an increased proportion was expected. And 7th and last *Ollamh*, who were bound to remember not less than seven times fifty.

A. D. 254.
Cormac
O'Conn.

Putting aside the extreme antiquity to which the Irish affect to extend the Milesian history of their Bards under Ollamh Fodla, we may content ourselves by beginning with the academies which Cormac O'Conn founded at Tara. To his reign is assigned the birth of Ossin or Ossian, a name which warns us to escape into times of less obscurity. The licence of the Irish Bards had attained so great a height in the sixth century, that king Hugh convened an assembly to deliberate upon their expulsion from the kingdom. The intercession of St. Columba preserved the order; but it was greatly reduced in number, and curtailed in privileges. In the eleventh century arose Brian Boromh, the most magnificent patron of the Muses who ever filled the throne of Ireland. A harp said to have belonged to this monarch, is now in the museum of Trinity college, Dublin, and is particularly described by colonel Vallancey, in the thirteenth number of *Collectanea de Rebus Hibernicis*. From his time to the invasion of the English the Bards appear to

A. D. 1014.
Brian
Boromh.

BARD.

Elisabeth.

have been in their zenith, and the reign of Elisabeth in Ireland, as in Wales, may be named as the commencement of their decline. An act of this princess stigmatized the Hibernian Bards as idle men of lewd demeanour. "Rymers who do by their ditties and rhymes made to dyvers lords and gentlemen in the commendacion and hiegh praise of extortion, rebellion, rape, raven and outlere lojestic, encourage these lords and gentlemen rather to follow their vices than to leave them;" for offences like these a fine was imposed at discretion of the commissioners.

Spenser, writing about the same time, does not represent them in better colours: "These Irish Bards are for the most part so far from instructing young men in moral discipline, that they themselves do deserve to be sharply disciplined; for they seldom use to choose unto themselves the doings of good men for the arguments of their poems, but whomsoever they find to be most licentious of life, most bold and lawless in his doings, most dangerous and desperate in all parts of disobedience and rebellious disposition; him they set up and glorify in their rhymes, him they praise to the people, and to young men make an example to follow." (*Historical View of the State of Ireland*, fol. 235.) Spenser could have no reason but the love of truth to induce him to speak thus. While the art was practised reputably he must have had a fellow feeling for its professors; and indeed of its elder followers, and of the art itself, he gives in the same book such a representation as might be expected from a poet and a scholar. It is plain that he had in his view the passage which we have already cited from Diodorus Siculus.

Spenser's
account of
the Irish
Bards.

Of the value of the Irish Bards as chroniclers on some points, a singular instance is related by bishop Gibson, as occurring in the course of the seventeenth century. The Bishop of Derry was at dinner in a certain house near Ballyshannon, when a harper sang an old Irish song to the harp, the substance of it was, that in a particular spot a man of gigantic stature lay buried, that on his breast and back were plates of pure gold, and on his fingers rings of gold large enough for a man to creep through; on an examination of the spot two thin plates of gold, of great antiquity, were really found, which are engraved in Bishop Gibson's translation of *Comraic's Brimans*. The grave of king Arthur, at Glastonbury abbey, is said to have been discovered in a similar manner, by the song of a Welsh Bard, in the presence of Henry II. We scarcely need quote any graver authority for this fact to those who recollect (and who that has read it has forgotten) Warton's "*Ode on the Grave of King Arthur*." What would not the Spartans have given for such a bard, who could have pointed out the tomb of Orestes, with less ambiguity than the Pythoness used to her reply to their inquiry?

Their occasional value
as chroniclers.

The authorities for the history of Irish Bardism are by no means extensive. In the above notice we have principally relied upon Walker's *Historical Memoir of the Irish Bards*, Warner's *History of Ireland*; Beaufort's *Origin and Learning of the Irish Druids*; and Vallancey's *Irish Grammar*, may also be consulted.

For the Welsh history we have referred, besides the authorities cited in the course of our notice, to Evan's *de Bardis*; Sir R. C. Hoare's *Giraldis Cambrensis*; Warrington's *History of Wales*; Pennant's *Tour in Wales*; and Warton's *History of English Poetry*.

BARD.
—
BARD-
SEYE
ISLAND.

BARD. } Fr. *barde*; Dutch, *barderen*; *phalerare*,
BARDSEYE. } *phaleris ornare*. Kilian.

A word of constant occurrence in our old chronicles, and of which Mr. Stevens thinks that *barb*, *barbed* may be no more than a corruption. Cotgrave interprets *barde*, *barbed*; *barde*, to *barb*, or *trap horses*, &c. The Glossarist to Gawin Douglas says, *bardis*, *beards*, manes of horses, or rather their trappings; this making *barb* and *bard* equivalent, and of similar origin. See BAAAN. In Chaucer (see *Bar*) we find "barres barred and plated," (see BARN, the hoem) "A scint barred all of silk." Upon this past tense, *barred*, *bard*, the verb, to *bard*, may have been formed; a *bard* or *barded* horse or harness then will be a horse or harness armed, guarded, secured. In Holland's *Amianus*, *Limbo ferreus cincti*, is rendered, "bard about with guards of steel." *Barred* all of silk, may he merely striped or crossed in form of bars.

And on both sides marched a double rank of armed men, with targets and crested helmets, sending rays and beams from them of brandishing light, wearing upon their hose habergeons; and the men of arms here and there entangled on *bard* horses, whom the Flemish use to call *Cibanaari*, harnessed all over with good coarlets, and bard about with guards of steel.

Holland. *Amianus*, fol. 63.

The hygne sparc horse, trapped *bard* wise, with harness braided with brilliant gold, curiously wrought by goble smiths.

Hall. *King Henry VIII.* fol. 3.

When immediately on the other party came in the fore named eight knights resuly armed, their banners and barbes of their horse, grece satysy embrocated with freake drunes, of krumble branches, of fine gold curiously wrought, powdered over all.

Id. fol. 6.

So many cries and vymentes, that it were long to rehearse; it was a great beauty to beholde the banners and standerds waving in the wynde, and horses *barbed*, and knights and squyres richly armed.

Presant. *Chronicle*, cap. 41.

Rich addres for the light-horse and the *bard*;

For to be brow't there's not a man by gillies;

Plumes, bandrolles, and caparisons purp'd;

Whether of two, and men at arms derise.

Dryden. *Battle of Agincourt*.

I saw the masters of the new hand-me of arms, &c. some with feathers, staves, and perails of their colours; some with sleeves and half coats; some with *bards* and staves, &c.

Barnet. *History of Reformation*, li. 60.

There were fifteen hundred men of arms very well mounted, and most of them *barbed* and richly trapped after the manner of the French warres, and well accompanied with horsemen of their retinue.

Stow. Ann. 1474. ed. 4.

BARDIGLIONE, in *Mineralogy*, a name adopted by Comte de Bournon for anhydrous sulphate of lime. **BARDSEYE ISLAND**, an island off the coast of Caernarvonshire, in North Wales, three leagues west of Aberdaron. It is about a mile from the main land, from which it is separated by a fierce and rapid current, running between the island and a huge promontory, called Braich y Pwll, the *Cogomus* of the Romans. The danger of the passage gave rise to the name *Yn Is Felli*, by which Bardsey was known to the British. Its dimensions are two miles in length by one in breadth, containing an area of 370 acres, two-thirds of which is a mountainous sheep-walk. The south-east is the only accessible side, and this presents a small but well sheltered harbour. The north is fronted by a range of perpendicular cliffs, which are the haunt of sea fowl, and which employ the inhabitants in the fearful pursuit of bird-nesting for the eggs. The population in 1931 was eighty-six.

In earlier times this island was known by the name of *Inula Sanctuarum*, and even when Mr. Pennant visited it in 1773, the reverence which it once inspired was not wholly extinct. "The mariners," he says, "seemed tainted with the piety of the place, for they had not rowed far before they made a full stop, pulled off their hats and offered a short prayer." It has been supposed that peculiar sanctity was attributed to it as one of the seats of the Colideri or Coldees, the first order of religious recluses which established itself in Britain; and it is ascertained that Dubricius, archbishop of Caernarvon, after the resignation of his see, retired hither for the short remainder of his life. He died and was interred here (though his body was afterwards removed to Llandaff) in 612. The slaughter of the monks at Bangor (see BAXOSA ISCOAN) five years before, is thought to have contributed largely to the increase of the religious population of Bardsey; for men of piety from all parts of Wales sought refuge in its retirement from the fury of the Saxons. No more than 30,000 saints (such as saints were in those days) are said to be buried in its circuit.

The date of the foundation of the abbey, which was dedicated to St. Mary, is by no means certain. A legend in monkish Latin, now extant, informs us, that by the special favour of heaven, a promise was made to Laudatus (Lleudaw) the first abbot, that as long as his monks led holy lives, the juniors should never die before the seniors, but that they should drop in succession. Leland (*Collect.* iii. 369.) has preserved a similar story:

Ad Lile in North Wallia
Est loca promissa,
Quæ Bardesia dicitur;
A monachis incolitur;
Ubi tam diu vivitur,
Quod senior promittitur.
Id. Merlino consilium
Sylvestris, et asinorum.

We need not caution our readers not to confound Merlin Sylvestris with Merlin Ambrosius; the latter, as is well known, died in Cornwall; "in which county, his false woman, the lady of the lake, after he one day had shewed her a great wonder wrought by enchantment under a rock, she by her subtle craft and working made Merlin to go under that stone to let him win of the marvailes there. But she wrought so there for him that he came never out, for all the craft that he could do." *Merlin Arthur*, l. 60.

In the next time through that false ladie's traine
He was surprisid and buried under beane,
Ne ever to his worke returned againe.

Poetic Queen, iii. 3. 10.

The site of the monastery at present is only marked by numerous graves lined with stone. The abbot's lodge and an oratory are among the few remains connected with the consecrated building; and in the last, on Sundays, one of the peasant inhabitants performs the religious service of an island which once boasted 30,000 saints.

BARE, a.

BAR, *adj*

BAR'SPACER,

BAR'SPACILY,

BAR'SPACONER,

BAR'SFOOT,

BAR'SHEAR,

BAR'SLY,

BAR'SNESS.

Goth. *barhtjan*; Ger. *barren*; Dutch, *baeren*; A. S. *abarim*. To strip off; to denude; to uncover; to make manifest; to bring to light; to expose; to strip of ornament; concealment; protection. Bare is much used in composition.

BARD-
SEYE
ISLAND;
—
BARE.

BARE.

Je legges bare byrre þu kœn, þu me myrle eche stape þu.

Away! vaele byrre þu kœn þu me myrle eche stape þu.

R. Gloucester, p. 338.

Let ofme four yrene saues vñ hñr mñue al afue,

An fyue vñ þu bysma, & xijf hoo yñ mñj dñr,

Wane hil bypñe iñ þu floc to sleppe vñ echon

After ofþer barrow. *Id.* p. 336.

For, brother min, thy wit is al to bare

To understand, although I told thee these.

Clawson. *The Fierres Tale*, v. 7063.

Common penance is, that prevents enloven men in certain cas:
as for to go paraventure naked on pilgrimages, or bare-foot.

Id. *The Fierres Tale*.

In thy booke beside yñ þe leweth out sñe thinges þer said
and spoken where the wordes writen in, coulede þu me no workship,
some thinges reciteth with advantage for þys part, rebeking
the tother syde nakedly & barely and some parte pared of to,
to make it secure the more slender.

Sir Thomas More, fol. 255. c. ii.

Of the Scotties were alypse in yñ feilde, as aftermyth dyvers
wryters, oore yñ summe of xxxii. m., and of Englyshmen but
barely xxiij. persons. *Palgrave, Anna. 1298. Ed. 1.*

But a yong man clothed with a linnen cloth on the bare suete
him and þer betwix him. And he left the linnen cloth and
feygh naked tway from hem. *Wicliff, Mark, chap. xiv.*

And there folowed him a certayne yong man, clothed in linnen
vpon the bare, and the yong men caught him, and left bys linnis,
& fled from the naked. *Bible, 1581.*

For sitting so with bared scalp,

An eagle soere hve,

That weening his white head was chalk,

A shell-fake downe let flye.

Spenser. Shepherd's Calendar. July.

For it was constantly reported, and for certayne knowen, that
some of them witting the tocut, no longer able to endure the
famine, threw themselves downe headlong, and broke their necks;
others stood unarmed upon the walls, offering their bare and naked
bodies as a butt and mark to the shot of arrows, and other
darts. *Holland. Larius, fol. 487.*

Swift, swift, you dragons of the night, that dawning

May leave the mawn's eye: I looke in leave,

Though this a heavenly sight: hell is here.

Shakespeare. Cymbeline, fol. 376. c. ii.

Poor broken glass, I often did behold

In thy sweet semblance my old age new-born;

But now that fair fresh mirror, dim and old,

Shows me a bare-bon'd death, by time outworn.

Id. Rape of Lucrece.

I see Moses now at the bush hiding his face at so mild a repre-
sentation; hereafter we shall see him in this very mount betwix
heaven and earth; in thunder, lightning, quake, earthquakes,
speaking mouth to mouth with God, barefooted, and fairface;
God was then more terrible, but Moses less strange.

Hall. Cont. Plagues of Egypt.

But this design of God, which was bare-faced in the days of the
law, is now in the gospel inter-woven secretly (but yet plain
enough to be discovered by any eye of faith and reason) into every
verse. *Taylor. Sermon xvi. fol. 251.*

According to their growth and years, they did change the
exercices of their bodies; they did share their beds, they went
bare-legged, they were constrained to play naked together the
most part of their time. *North. Pincus, fol. 42.*

Suche noble courage was in great king Alexander, that in his
warres agaynst Darius, he was seare of al his people fightynge in
the pence of his enemies bare-headed.

Syr T. Elyot. The Governour, p. 155. 2.

Being summer he would go out bare-necked to the waste to
work in his ground among his servants and other workmen.

North. Pincus, fol. 289.

But seeing you have so barely set it downe without any
kynde of prooff, I will pause it barely set it downe without any
prooff.

Wright's Defence, fol. 444.

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BARE.

BARE.

For sever resting time leads summer on

To hibernia winter, and roundabouts him there;

Sag check'd with frost, and lury leaves quite gone,

Beauty o'ranow'd, and barreness every where.

Shakespeare. Sonnet v.

At the meaning of dumb persons is sometimes comprehended
from the mere motion of the vocal organs, without the assistance
of sound, so may the depth of some men's understandings be as
plainly discovered from their behaviour. *Taylor, No. 377.*

The study of morality I have shorne mentioned as that that
becomes a gentleman; and barely as a man, but in order to his
business as a gentleman.

Locke. Thoughts concerning Reading, &c.

Though only some profligate wretches own it too barefacedly,
yet, perhaps, we shall hear more, did not fear its people's tongues.

Id.

Fear, pity, justice, indignation start,
Tear off reserve, and bare my swelling heart;
Till half a patri-a, half a coward grown,
I fly from petty tyrants to the throne.

Goldsmith. The Traveller.

When in the bag thy hope the rustic treads,
Let him wear bare-footed sandals, nor presume
Their fragrant barefooted to deride.

Smart. The Hop Garden.

If to some common's fenceless limits stray'd,
He drives his flock to pick the scanty blade,
Those fenceless fields the seas of wealth divide,
And even the bare-worn common is deny'd.

Goldsmith. The Deserted Village.

BAREGE, a small district and village in the south of
France. The district consists of a narrow and rugged
valley in the department of the Upper Pyrenees,
lylog at the northern base of that stupendous chain.
The village of Barege or Barreges, frequently called
Barrege les Bains, lies at the foot of these mountains;
it contains 700 or 800 inhabitants, and is particularly
noted for its mineral waters. There are different
springs, varying in temperature from 73° to 190° of
Fahrenheit's thermometer; but the principal ingre-
dient in them all is sulphate of potash. These
waters, which issue from a hill in the centre of the
village, and are distributed into three baths, are
described as fetid, greasy to the touch, and turning
silver black. Barege is situated in a frightful chasm
among the mountains, and is only a summer residence,
as most of the inhabitants remove to a more secure
place during winter, in consequence of the torrents
and avalanches, which often prove destructive at that
season of the year. This village is about ten miles
south of Bagneres, in lat. 42° 53' N. and long. about
0° 8' E.

BARFLEUR, a small seaport town of France,
situated on the north coast of Lower Normandy, and
now included in the department of La Manche. This
was in former times one of the best ports on the coast;
and it was here that William the Conqueror fitted out
the expedition which effected the conquest of England.
In 1346, Barfleur was taken and destroyed by the Eng-
lish army in the same campaign in which the battle of
Cresy was fought. Since this period the port has
been neglected, and it is now so much choked with
sand that it is only frequented by fishing boats, and
other small vessels. The population is about 900. The
town stands twelve miles west of Cherbourg, in lat.
49° 40' N. and long. 1° 10' W.

BARGAIN, *p.* Bargain, Goth.; bargon, ligen,

BARGAIN, *p.* Bargain, A. S. See To BAR.

BARGAINING, *p.* To bargain, is to make a con-

BARGAINER, *p.* firm'd, strengthened agreement.

2 N

BARGAIN After two persons have agreed upon a subject it is usual to conclude with asking, 'Is it a bargain?' Is it confirmed. Tooke, ii. 169.

I do the no wrong. Did I not *bergaigne* with the, so that thou shouldst have a denary for thy dayes laboure? Thou hast done thy laboure, thus laste thy conscience: I have nothing more to doe with the. *Udall. Mathew, cap. xx.*

And right so there ben many of these
Lovers, that though they love aile,
That skene wolde it were a mile.

Yet wolde they have a pound saye,
As doth yowre in his *bergaigne*.

Chaucer. Gen. Arn. book v. fol. 108. c. l.

But certes, in service, for which men yere thinges splitred into his servants, it must be understoode, that the service must be honest, or aile not, and also, that it be without *bergaigning*, and that the person be able. *Chaucer. The Persones Tale.*

And finally to beguile a man neighbors in subtle *bergaigning*, & to wrap and compass him in with castles of the law, was then as it is now in the kingdom of the pope. *Tyndal's Works, fol. 30.*

Henry is able to enrich his queene,
And not to seek to a queene to make him rich,
So wortlesse peasants *bergaigne* for their vices
As market men for oves, sheepe, or horse.

Marriage is a matter of more worth,
Than to be dealt in by attorney-ships.

Shakespeare. Henry VI. part i. fol. 118. c. l.

That every *bergaigne* made by the said merchants with any number of persons, of what places soever they be, for any kind of merchandise whatsoever, shall be firme & stable, so that none of both the merchants shall shrink or give backe from the *bergaigne* after that the current price be once given and taken betwixt the principal *bergaigners*. *Hockley. Voyages, &c. Charter of Edward I.*

Another difficulty with me is, how a man who is *bergaign'd* with for a chaldron of coals for his vote, shall be said to have that chaldron gratis? *Trotter, No. 73.*

Oh as the price-deciding hammer falls
He notes it in his book, then raps his box,
Secures 'tis a *bergaign*, rubs at his hand late
That he has let it pass—but never bids.

Cowper. The Task, book vi.

It is adjusted, however, not by any accurate measure, but by the higgling and *bergaigning* of the market according to that sort of rough equality which, though not exact is sufficient for carrying on the business. *Smith. Wealth of Nations.*

BARGAIN. An armed fight or battle; a bottle in which both parties are on their guard, well defended, protected and secured, in the following application may have the same origin. It is a very common word in the old Scotch writers. See Jamieson and Gloss. to G. Douglas.

This is the strife and eke the affray
And the bottell that launch aie
This *bergaigne* end may never take
But if that she thy peace will make.

Chaucer. Romance of the Rose, fol. 128. c. 2.

BARGAIN AND SALE. This is a mode of conveyance of real property, which originates in the *Statute of Uses* (27 Henry VIII. ch. 10.) and the elucidation of which will, therefore, call for the consideration of the effect produced on common law conveyances by that most important act.

By the rules of the common law, no landed property could pass from a vendor to a purchaser without what is termed "*livery of seisin*," that is to say, corporeal delivery over of possession of the land, an act performed in the presence of witnesses, and thus of general notoriety.

It was about the end of the reign of Edward III. **BARGAIN** that the ecclesiastical bodies, being precluded, by the several statutes of *mortmain*, from receiving grants of land, introduced the custom of conveying estates to trustees for their use, a practice copied from the *fidei commissum* of the Roman law. The legal estate in property so settled was indeed vested in the trustees; but the chancellors of that period, themselves a part of the clerical body, discovered that, on principles of equity, the trustees were compellable to permit the party for whose use the estate was held (and who was technically called *cestuy, i. e. celui, —qui use*) to receive the rents and profits. This system, arising out of fraud and greediness, became in course of time, subservient to purposes of utility and security of property. During the war of succession betwixt the rival roses, when forfeitures the most unlooked for were commonly occurring, it was an usual practice to settle estates in this manner. Still, in the event of trustees being fraudulently disposed, the *cestuy qui use* had no remedy but through the intervention of a court of equity. To cure this evil, the famous act called "*the Statute of Uses*," was passed in the year which we have already mentioned. It was thereby enacted, that, when any person was seized of lands to the use of another, the legal estate in those lands should vest in the latter, the *cestuy qui use*. This is what lawyers call "*executing the use*," or "*transferring uses into possession*."

Now, when a man "*bergaigns and sells*," that is, contracts to sell and convey property to another, he is held in equity to be a trustee for the purchaser, until the conveyance is actually effected. Obviously, then, the effect of the *Statute of Uses* upon a *bergaign and sale*, was to vest the legal title instantly to the *bergaigner*, as he is termed, i. e. in the proposed purchaser; and thus might real property be passed, without the publicity which the common law required, and ensured by the ceremony of *livery of seisin*. Under this impression, the legislature, in the same year in which the *Statute of Uses* was enacted, passed an act (27 Henry VIII. ch. 16.) by which it was provided that such *bergaign and sale* should not pass a *freehold*, unless it were enrolled within six months, either at Westminster hall, or with the *custos rotulorum* of the county in which the lands lay. This, however, was not sufficient to provide against the mischief, or supposed mischief, contemplated by the act. A lease for a term of years is not a *freehold*, and, therefore, not within the scope of the act. A *bergaign and sale*, then, of property might be made to an intended purchaser for a year. He thus became *cestuy qui use*, and, by the *Statute of Uses* was held to be *possessed* of the property for that term. By another rule of law, the owner might, as it is called, enlarge the estate of a tenant in possession, or release to him the whole inheritance. Thus, therefore, by a *bergaign and sale* for a year, followed by a *release*, the inheritance in land might at once be conveyed, without *livery of seisin*, or any other ceremony whatever.

This is now the ordinary mode of conveying real property, by lease and release. The sufficiency of such a lease, or *bergaign and sale*, to put the *bergaigner* into legal possession by virtue of the statute, and thereby enable him to receive a *release* of the inheritance, was first determined in a case before the Common Pleas, (*Barker v. Keat*, 2 Mod. 249.) in the twenty-ninth

BARGAIN year of the reign of Charles II. It is now acted on by many a legal practitioner who over dreams of its having been questioned, or of the ground whereon it rests

BARGE, } See To Bar. Baigan, Goth. to Ba'ra's, } strengtheno.
Ba'ra'man. } A barge is a strong boni. Tooke.

So myrtle was just barge, it might not lightly sail,
A no heavy of charge, & ye wylde can fail.

R. Brunne, p. 169.

He knew wel alle the havenis, as they were,
Fo Gotland, to the Cape de Finistery,
And every croke in Bretayne and in Spaine;
His barge yelped was the Magdelaine.

Chaucer, *Prologue*, v. 419.

But drough hir to the water brinke,
Where she behelde the sea at large;
She sigh no ship, she sigh no barge.

Gower. *Conf. Am.* book v. fol. 113.

I and my companion William Shales having dispatched our innkeeper at Balera, embarked ourselves in company of security barks all laden with merchandise, having every bark 14 men to draw them, like our western bargemen on the Thames, and we were forty four days coming up against the stream to Babylon.

Hutchins. *Foyage*, &c. M. Jahn Eldred.

Many valuers make themselves glee, by putting the inhabitants in mind of this privilege; who again, like the Campanians in the north, and the London bargemen, foretell not to barge them.

Cervus. *Survey of Cornwall*.

Therefore when she was sent unto by divers letters, both from Antonius himself, and also from his friends, she made no light of it, and mocked Antonius so much, that she declined to set forth otherwise, but to take her barge in the river of Cydnus; the poop whereof was of gold, the sails of purple, and the oars of silver, which kept stroke in rowing after the sound of music of flutes, harpords, citherns, viols, and such other instruments as they played upon in the barge.

North. *Plutarch*, fol. 762.

ENO. I will tell you,

The barge she sat in, like a burnisht throne,
Burnt on the water; the poop was beaten gold,
Purple the sails; and so perfumed that
The windes were love-sicks
With them, the oars were silver,
Which to the tune of flutes kept stroke, and made
The water which they beat, to follow faster;
As amorous of their strokes.

Shakespeare. *Antony and Cleopatra*, fol. 347. c. l.

However Raleigh, in his barge, accompanied with Sir Arthur Gorges and Captain William Morgan, rowed close along the shore-side, and by the high fort towards the town, to acquaint himself with the most proper place for making a descent.

Oldys. *Life of Sir Walter Raleigh*.

The current runs so strong, though the ground is level, that the large barge which go down the river have no occasion to make use of their oars; while those which ascend, find it difficult to advance, even with the assistance of oars and poles; and this vicissitude of labour and ease is exceedingly amusing, when one sails up and down merely for pleasure.

Melmoth. *Pliny*. *Letter viii.* book viii.

There is also in law always so implied contract with a common inn-keeper, to secure his guest's goods in his inn; with a common carrier, or bargemaster, to be answerable for the goods he carries.

Blackstone. *Commentaries*, iii. 165.

BARİ, a province in the kingdom of Naples, bordering on the gulf of Venice. It lies on the opposite side of the peninsula to Naples, and is encompassed on the land side by the provinces of Terra d'Otranto, Basilicata, and Capitanata. The whole extent is estimated at 1760 square miles, and its population at 290,000 or 300,000. Many of the vallies and sloping

sides of the more elevated tracts are covered with a fertile soil, and abound in most of the productions common to the south of Italy. Among these, grain, wine, oil, fruit of various kinds, cotton and saffron are yielded in considerable quantities, and furnish articles of export, as well as supplies for home consumption. Linen is one of the principal articles of manufacture attended to in this province; but the quantity made is chiefly designed for domestic purposes.

BARİ, the capital of the preceding province, and a large seaport, situated on the gulf of Venice. It stands on a point projecting into the sea, and is encircled on that side by a narrow road, to which the inhabitants resort as their only ride or walk. Bari is an old town, but has lately been considerably improved and increased. Most parts of it are on a level with the sea. The streets are narrow, dark and winding, and are rendered unpleasant by the want of sewers. The port is formed by two moles, which give it the advantage of security against exterior winds; but like most of those on the same coast, its depth is not sufficient to float large vessels. The population of the town is stated at 19,000, and it carries on a brisk trade with Trieste, and the ports of Dalmatia. The exports consist principally of oil, cotton and grain, which are exchanged for linen and other articles required for the use of the inhabitants. This trade imparts an appearance of animation, ease, and opulence to Bari, which is possessed by few other towns in this part of the Neapolitan dominions. The most noted production of this city is a liquor or rosolio, known by the name of *Aqua stomachica di Bari*. It is chiefly composed of herbs and spices, which are supposed to impart medicinal virtues to it; and some of the convalescents are celebrated for preparing it to the highest perfection.

The most remarkable edifice in this city is the priory of St. Nicholas, originally erected in 1067. In it a council was held in 1098, at which Anselm archbishop of Canterbury attended. The interior of this Gothic edifice is impressive, and the arches which divide the aisles, though irregular in their construction, give it a very picturesque effect. The great object of attention among the sepulchral monuments in this priory, is the tomb of Bona Sforza, dowager Queen of Poland, and only daughter of Isabella of Arragon, from whom she inherited the title of Duchess of Bari. The cathedral, which stands at a short distance from this ancient church, is a handsome building, with some vestiges of the Gothic style, and a light high tower. The castle or citadel is an ancient and spacious edifice, and has undergone various alterations and repairs by the different sovereigns who have inhabited it, particularly by the Queen of Poland above referred to. There is also a Lyceum at Bari, supported by government, which admits 120 scholars from four provinces, who are fed, clothed, and instructed for a certain sum per month. Latitude 41° 15' N. and longitude 16° 58' E.

BARILLA, the commercial name for carbonate of soda or natron.

BARİ, v. See To Bar. Baigan, Goth. to de-Barr, v. } fend, to guard, to secure.
Ba'ny, } The bark of a tree is its defence; that
Ba'ara, } by which the tree is defended from the
weather, &c. Tooke.

To bark is used both for to cover as with bark, and to strip off the bark.

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BARK.

And as in winter leaves her blisft
Ere after other ill trees be bare
So that there was but *bark* & branch yast
Lilith Troilus, blisft of eke welfare
Bounden in the blacke *bark* of care
Dispos'd wold out of his witte to breide
So sore him sate the chaunging of Creseide.
Chaucer. Troilus and Creseide, fol. 177. c. iii.

In a valente, with othe *is* a *lijer bark*
And after *yet* *bark*, he *is* shale eweye
Ys a curiel of comfort. *Piers Plowman*, fol. 205.

And also that such persons, as while they cleave faste to the
outward rynde or *bark* of the lawe, do not vnderstande the mynde
and effectuall pith of the lawe, lay may conuert and bring vnto the
synecdoche of the last. *Udall. Idyll*, cap. i.

They shall make my vineyard waste, they shall pill of the
berches of my figgetrees, *stryge* them bare, cast them awaye,
and make the brouches whyle. *Bible*, 1551. *Ier.*, c. i.

He hath laid my vine waste, and *barked* my fig-tree: he hath
made it cleen bare, and cast it awaye, the branches thereof are
made white. *Bible*, *Modern Version*, i. 7.

CLAU. But in what nature?
ITA. In such a one, as you concerning to't,
Would *bark* your honour for that trunk you beare,
And leaue you naked.

CLAU. Let us know the point.
Shakespeare. Measure for Measure, fol. 71.

As touching the falling and cutting downe of trees, to serve
either in temples or for other uses, round and entire as they grow,
without any squaring, as also for to *bark* them; the only time and
season is, when the sap runneth, and that they begin to bud forth;
otherwise you shall never be able to get of their *bark*: for *bark*
them not, they will rot and become worm-eaten under the said
bark, and the timber withall waste stinkish and blacke.
Holland's Plinie, i. 487.

— They pallat the did dole
The roughest berry, on the rudest hedge:
Yes, like the stagge, when snow the pasture sheets,
The *bark* of trees, thus brows'd.
Shakespeare. Antony and Cleopatra, fol. 344.

So doth the woodline, the sweet houselick,
Gently cutwist; the female lay so
Earrings the *bark* fingers of the time.
Id. Midsummer Night's Dream, fol. 157.

And as the east and south wind strive to make a lofty wood
Bew to their greatness; *bark*le climes, wild ashes, beeches
how'd
Even with the earth. *Chapman's Homer's Iliad*, book xvi.

The trees all *bark*le nakedly are left,
Like people stript of things that they did wear,
By the enlacement of disastrous theft,
Standing as frighted with erected hair.
Dryden. Moses, his Birth and Miracles.

What craftsman art thou, said the king,
I praye thee tell me trowe.
I am a *barker*, sir, by my trade;
None tell me what art thou?
Edward IV. and Francis of Tunworth, in *Percy*, ii. 87.

— So did it misle;
And a most instant tetter *bark'd* (*bark'd*) about,
Most lazar-like, with vile and inlathome crust,
All my smooth body.
Shakespeare. Hamlet, fol. 258. c. i.

The rustic is, for that times last according to the strength of their
sap and jecur; being well mounted by their *bark* against the inju-
ries of the air. *Bacon. Nat. Hist. Cent. vi.* a. 563.

Or shall I rather the and verse repeat,
Which on the beeches *bark* I lately writ;
I writ, and sang betwixt; now bring the strain
Whose voice you heard, and let him try the strain.
Dryden. Virgil. Pastoral v.

In the kingdom of Monomotapa, they have a method of deciding
lawsuits equally whimsical and uncertain. The witness for the
plaintiff chews the *bark* of a tree, endued with an emetic quality;
which, being sufficiently masticated, is then infused in water, which
is given the defendant to drink.

Blackstone. Commentaries, i. c. 346.

BARK, v. } See to BARK, BARKEN, Goth. to guard,
MARK, n. } to defend. The bark of a dog is
BARKEN, that by which we are defended by that
animal. Tookes to make a noise in our defence; also, in
anger, in quarrel.

For as it is an bounden kinde,
To *bark* upon a man beyonde,
Gower. Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 38. c. i.

What thing hath y^e whelpes of y^e Romish anticrist as fiercely
always *barked* against, as at the translating of *scripture* and other
bookes concerning matters of religion into the vulgar tongue for the
use of y^e people?
Udall. Preface to Matthew.

Wherunto I can none otherwise answer, but that he who will
throw a stone at aerie dog which *barketh*, had needs of a great
satchel or pocket.

Gauvigne. To the Rev. Deanes.

Thyne *barkes* ben all blynde, jay brynged forth jay lambers
Dispytous grev, thal dogges dar not *bark*.
Piers Plowman, p. 160.

Ran cow and calf, and eke the veray hogges
So fered were for *barking* of the dogges.
Chaucer. The Nonnes Preestes Tale, v. 15893.

But loe, while thus amid the desert darke,
We passed on with steps and pace vacante,
A rumbling roar confus'd with howls and *bark*
Of dogs, shook all the ground under our feete.
Mir. for Mag. fol. 260.

And as we see it in experience, their dogs do always *bark* at those
they know not; and that it is in their nature to accompany one
another in those clamours: so is it with the incongruous multi-
tude. *Raleigh. History of the World. Preface*.

I perceive, by your Grace's letters, I have been ooted of some
for my *barking* there; and yet to *bark*, best God should be of-
fended, I cannot deny, but indeed it is a part of my profession, for
God's word condemneth the dumb dogs that will not *bark* and
give warning of God's displeasure.

Burnet's Records, v. ii. part ii. p. 323.

About one o'clock after midnight they discover'd a light, and
heard the *barking* of dogs; soon after they found the village, and
there they were stored with provision, according to the promises
of the old pilot. *Cady's Life of Sir W. Raleigh*.

What horrid, what tremendous sight
Shakes all my fabric with affright!
With Argus' hundred eyes he marks,
With triple mouth the monster *barks*.
Lloyd. The Whim

Nor wants three note of Philomel,
Nor sound of distant tinkling bell;
Nor lowing faint of herds remote,
Nor mastiff's bark from bosom of cot.
Warton. Ode ii.

BARK, } See to BARK, BARKEN, Goth. to
BARKEN, } strengthen, to fortify.
A bark is a stout vessel. Tookes.

At this cape (Section) lieth a great stone, to the which the
barkes that passed thereby, were wont to make offerings of butter,
meats and other victuals, thinking that unless they did so, their
barkes or vessels should there perish, as it hath bene oftentimes
seen. *Hackluyt. Voyages*, &c. M. *Ant. Jenkinson*.

Thus the Englishmen were lordes of the towne three dayes, and
wonne great riches, the which they sent by *barkes* and barges
to aynl Sanyoure, by the ryver of Austro, a two leagues thence,
wherof all their many lay. *Protestant. Hist.*, v. i. c. 124.

BARK.

BARK.
BARLEY-
TA.

But all so soon as leas's his browe dole bend,
She reils her banners, and pulls in her beams,
The empty bark the raging billows send
Up to th' Olympic waves, and Argus seems
Again to ride upon the lower streams.
G. Fletcher. Clavi's Triumph on Earth.

When they come near the shore, the bark-men leap out of the
barks into the sea to keep the barks tight that she cast not thwart
the shore.
Blackings. Voyages, &c. M. Cesar Frederick.

Let wit her sails, her cars let wisdom lead;
Yet heins let pollic experience guide;
Yet cease to hope thy short-liv'd bark shall ride
Down spreading fair's insurmountable tide.
Prose. Ode on Erubus, ill. 14.

But with an rhyming modern here,
Critics are not the only fear;
The poet's bark's smooths sharper shocks
From other sands, and other rocks.
Lloyd. The Poet.

We were but three days voyage from the confluence of this river
into the Wolga, when we perceived at a distance behind us an
armed barge coming up with the assistance of sails and oars in
order to attack us.
Goldsmith. Citizen of the World.

BARKING, a market town in Essex, anciently
Burghing, the fortification in the meadow. Some
considerable intrenchments, containing an area of forty-
eight acres, supposed from its size to be the site of a
Roman town rather than of a camp, still exist on a farm
called *Uphall*, about a quarter of a mile N. of the town.
The abbey founded in 676, was the first convent for
women established in England. The nuns were
of the Benedictine order. It was founded by St. Erken-
wald, bishop of London, and at the time of the Nor-
man conquest, must have been a place of strength,
since William fixed upon it as his abode until his for-
tress in London was completed. Scarcely any vestiges
now remain of the conventual buildings. London is
largely supplied from the potatoe gardens of the neigh-
bourhood. The church is a vicarage in the gift of All
Souls college, Oxford. Population in 1821, 2580.
Poor's rates, in 1803, at 3s. 6d. £2792 2s.

BARLERIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class
Didymianis, order *Angiospermis*. Generic character.
Calyx quadripartite; the two shorter-stamina very
inferior in size. Capsule quadrangular, bilocular, bi-
valve, elastic without claws. Seeds two.

Willdenow describes thirteen species; most of them
are natives of India and Arabia. The *B. Prionitis* is
figured in Rheed's *Hortus Malabaricus*, under the name
of *Coletto Feolia*; the *B. buxifolia*, by the title of *Cro-
schulli*. Andrews's *Repository*, 625. Plukenet *Aro-
gatum*, 30. tab. 133. fig. 4.

BARLETTA, a seaport in the gulf of Venice, in the
kingdom of Naples and the Terra di Bari. It is not a
large town, but it is remarkably well built, in a style of
architecture more simple than ornamental, its general
effect being that of solidity rather than of grandeur.
The houses are large and lofty, and chiefly composed of
beaten stone. The lower story of the generality of them
is rusticated, the streets are wide and well paved, but
the walls of the town are suffered to decay, and to
crumble into the ditches. The general appearance of
the place gives an idea of a metropolis reduced to a
provincial town. The population is about 18,000, for
the most part in easy circumstances, and among it are
some very old and opulent families. The ancient name
of Bari was *Barislaus*, but it only rose into consequence
after the conquest of the Normans, one of whose princes
is supposed to have united it with Andria and Canosa

into one tributary fief. A gateway of extraordinary BARLEY-
magnificence, both in materials and dimensions, sepa-
rates the town from the harbour, which is formed by a
mole running from the shore, and a narrow island in
an oblique position, between which vessels of moderate
size find safe anchorage. A well constructed citadel
at the south-east extremity of the town, commands
the port, and is reckoned one of the strongest castles of
the Adriatic, as Barletta itself was once considered one
of the four most powerful fortresses in Italy. Barletta
owes much of its prosperity to the trade it carries on
with other parts of the gulf of Venice, as well as with
those of the Ionian isles. It also derives an additional
advantage from being nearer the capital than any other
port in the Adriatic, and from communicating with it by
an excellent public road. It is considered by travellers
to be a superior place of residence to most other towns
in this part of Italy. The cathedral is an elegant struc-
ture with a very high steeple, and is that in which
Ferdinand of Arragon, the first Neapolitan sovereign
of that name, was crowned. In one of the principal
streets near the church of St. Stephen, stands a colos-
sal brass statue of indifferent workmanship, supposed to
represent the emperor Heraclius, who sent it as an
offering to the sanctuary of Mount Gargarius; but the
Venetian vessel which carried it was wrecked on this
coast, and the statue was erected in its present position.
The trade of Barletta is greatly increased by the salt
works which are carried on within a few miles of the
town, and are said to employ about 1000 people. This
salt, almonds, and liquorice, are among its chief exports,
besides which it has also a considerable trade in grain.
Barletta is reported to have originated from an inn on
the road to Canosa, to the vicinity of which, after the
destruction of that town in the sixteenth century, many
of the inhabitants resorted. From its favourable situation
for trade, and other circumstances, it soon became
a populous place, and the see of a bishop. The new
colony was afterwards cherished by the emperor Fre-
derick and the Aragonian kings, till in the sixteenth
century it was considered one of the four bulwarks of
Italy; though it had so frequently suffered under the
desolating effects of the conflicts which agitated that
part of the country. It is about thirty miles from Bari
and one hundred miles from Naples. Latitude 41°
15' N. and longitude 16° 30' E.

BARLEY. *Guth. barizianus Malibus fuf;* five
barley leaves. A. S. *berre*; but the meaning is not
apparent. It is used with some few words in composi-
tion, as *barlibreake*, *barleycake*, &c.

Let him with bread of pure wheat be fed,
And let us wiveen eten barley bread,
Chaucer. The Wif of Bathes, Prologue, v. 1727.
Methought I sigh a barley cake,
Whiche fro the hills his wey hath take,
And come rollethow downe at once.
Gower. Conf. am. book vii. fol. 164. c. ii.

Andrew the brother of Symond Peter milt to him, a child is
here, that hath fyve barley leaves, and thre barley; but what
has these among so many?
Wiclyf. Iste. chap. v.

Then said unto him one of his disciples, Andrew, Simon Peter's
brother: There is a lad here, which hath fyve barley leaves,
and two fishes: but what is that among so many?
Bible, 1551.

When Gideon heard good news, (though from an enemy,) hee
fell downe and worshipped. To have himselfe but a barley cake,
troubled him not, when he heard withal, that his rolling downe
the hill should break the tents of Midian.
Bishop Hall. Cent. Gideon. Prep. and Victory.

BARLEY.
—
BARN.

DON. Now, lady, you are free.
GRAT. Make me happy to renew my suit.
MOS. And mine. Shall'st thou be a petticoat sometimes.

Shirley. The Bird in a Cage, act v. scene i.
But, when the honey-moon was past,
The following nights were soon o'ercast;
She kept her own, could plead the law,
And quarrel for a barley-straw.

Prior. The Turtle and Sparrow.

I had prepared, you must know, a lettuce a-piece, three snails,
two eggs, and a barley-cake, with some sweet wine and more: the
snow must certainly I shall charge to your account, so a rarity
that will not keep.

Melmoth. Pity, book l. letter xv.

BARLEY BIRD, in Zoology, a name given in
Sussex to the *Fringilla Spinus*, or seakins, on account
of its visiting them in barley time. See FRINGILLA.

BARM. Goth. barn; A. S. barn, bearn. In *barma*
Latinus. On *then Helandis bearnis*. In the bosom of
Jesus. Ger. and Swe. barn; sinus, gremium. Wachter
refers to Ger. *barmen*, *fovere*, to cherish, to foster.

And in his *barns* this little child she laid,
With full and face, and gao the child to blame,
And lulled it, and after gao it kine,
Chaucer. *The Clerk's Tale*, v. 8428.

A saint she wroth, barred all of silk,
A *barns*-cloth che as white as morve milk.
Id. The Miller's Tale, v. 3237.

BARN, } Ger. *barn*; Swe. *barns*. Wachter thinks
BARNY. } to raise. The citation from
Holland's Pliny sufficiently shows the application of
the term.

Cley made with hore and mannes here, and oile
Of tartre, alum, glas, *barns*, wort, and oregone
Roshalar, and other matres cabbaging.
Chaucer. *The Chaucer's Tenants Tale*, v. 16282.

— Sometimes make the drink to beare no *barns*,
Makende night-wandere; laughing at their harme.
Shakespeare. Midsummer Night's Dream, fol. 148.

Now the froth or *barns*, that riseth from these ales or beers,
have a propertie to keepe the skin faire and cleane in women's
faces.

Their jovial nights in frolicke and in play
They pass, to drive the tedious hours away:
And their cold stomachs with crows' d' goblets cheer,
Of windy sider, or of *barny* beer.

Dryden. Virgil, Georgic iii.

BARN, v. } See to bar. *Barigan*, Goth. to defend,
BARN, n. } to protect. A *barn* (*bar-en*, *bar'n*) is a
covered inclosure, in which grain, &c. is protected or
defended from the weather, from depredation, &c.
Tooke, i. 182. Junius traces it thus: *berre ern*, (ern,
locus), *berren*, *bera*; horreum.

Hys gode he dede pouere men, and made hys *barns* bare,
And hys trewte alle to god, and to God hys made all gure.
R. Gloucester, p. 348.

Because he was a man of high prudence,
And eke an officer out for to ride,
To seen his granges, and his *barns* wide.
Chaucer. *The Shipman's Tale*, v. 12987.

But while he hath a dale to live,
He wil aching rewardes receive,
He grutcheth for to gye a gyeve,
Where he hath take a *barns* fulle.

Geoff. Conf. Ass. book v. fol. 112.

The were fallours afeed, and flouen to Peennes *barns*,
And fasten on whit fables, fro morne til evens.

Piers Plowman, p. 137.

Bibode ye the foules of the air, for thei sowne not, neither
repen, neither gaderen in to *barns*, and yure fadir of heven
feedith hem.

Wiclif. Mat. chap. vi.

Bebode the foules of the ayre : for they sowne not, neither reape,
nor yet carye into the barnes ; and yet yure hevenlye fadir
feedeth them.

Bible, 1551.

And scarce hath eyes his treasure to behold,
But like self-piercing Tartarus he sits,
And undon *barns* the harvest of his wit;
Having no other pleasure of his pain,
But torment that it cannot cure his pain.

Shakespeare. Rape of Lucrece.

And in that type of y^e yere the granges and *barns* were all
voyde, and the fouldre spente; the Franchmen theymalle had sone
wasted and destroyed it.

Froussart. Cronycle, v. l. c. 374.

Our outward works cannot save us, without our faith; we may
help to save others, and perish ourselves: what a wonder of mercy
is this that I here see! One poor family called out of a world,
and as it were eight grains of corn fished from a whole *harvest* of
chaff: one hypocrite was saved with the rest for Noah's sake; not
one righteous man was swept away for company.

Hall. Cont. The Deluge.

While the cock with lively din,
Scatters the rear of darkness this:
And to the stack or the *barn-door*,
Slootly struts his dames before.

Milton. L'Allegro.

"O, now a low rain'd white shed I discern,
Unst'd and anglas'd; I believe 'tis a *barn*."
"A *barn*! why you rave; 'tis a house for a squire,
A justice of peace, or a knight of his shire."

Prior. Doves-hall.

Then is the *barn* in motion oft are seen,
The rudding corn-das, and the viny screen:
In sack the taker measures up his grain,
And loads for market on the spacious wain.

Scott. American Eccl.

BARN, see BEARN. The past participle of *bearan*,
to bear. A child *barn*, or *barn*. Still in common
usage.

Whan þe kyng herd myc, who had so wile farn,
þider he went way, to se þir and þir barn.
R. Brunne, p. 310.

For manye love of berne
þat þar þat benede *bera*, þat broughte us on þe rode.
Piers Plowman.

Bye and shydyng, and blod is has *barns*-bede
To haven foulden with þe feende.

Id. fol. 311.

Good-lucke (and't be thy will) what have we here? Mercy
on's, a *barns*! A very pretty *barns*.

Shakespeare. Winters Tale, fol. 288.

BARN OWL, in Zoology, the vulgar name of the
Strix Flammula, or white owl. See STRIX.

BARNADESLA, in Botany, a genus of plants.
Class Syngenesia, order Polygamia *Æqualis*. Generic
character: receptacle villous; pappus of the disk
setose, that of the radius plumose. Corolla radiate.
Calyx imbricate subtrilocular.

The only species of this genus is the *B. spinosa*, a
South American shrub. Lamarck, *Illustrations des
genres*, tab. 660.

BARNET, or CHIPPING BARNET, a market town in
Hertfordshire, the manor of which once belonged to
St. Alban's abbey. The population in 1841 amounted
to 1755. Here is an almshouse, founded by James
Ravenscroft about the year 1630, for "five poor ancient
women, being widows or maidens, inhabitants of
the town, and neither common beggars, common

BARN.
—
BARNET.

BARNET.
—
BARO-
METER.

drunkards, buccoyers, talebearers, common scoundrels, thieves, or other like persons of infamous life, or evil name or repute: or vehemently suspected of sorcery, witchcraft, or charming, or guilty of perjury; nor any idiot, or lunatic."

On Gladsmere heath, adjoining Barnet, was fought on Easter day 1471, that decisive battle between the houses of York and Lancaster, in which the latter was totally defeated, and in which Richard Neville, the great Earl of Warwick, the King-maker, lost his life. An obelisk, on the spot at which the road divides towards Hatfield and St. Alban's, commemorates this engagement.

BARNSTAPLE, an ancient and respectable town, on the river Tor, in Devonshire. Previous to the Conquest, it was a royal demesne; and 250 burgesses, who still claim a presumptive right of voting for members of parliament, deduce this right from the time of king Athelstan. The woollen trade has rendered this town flourishing. The population in 1831 was 5079. Poor's rates in 1803, at 5s. 3d. £1610. 14s. 2½d. The church is a vicarage; and the town once contained an hospital of the Holy Trinity, and a house of Friars Austin. Gay, the poet, was born in the vicinity of Barnstaple, in 1688; and, owing to the poverty of his family, he received his education in the grammar school of the town.

BARNWELL, a village about half a mile north-east of Cambridge. About the year 1092, a priory was founded in Cambridge in honour of St. Giles, by Hugolina, wife of Picot, a Norman nobleman, in consequence of a vow made during a severe illness. It was endowed for a prior, and six Austin canons. On Picot's death, the building was unfinished; and his estates having passed to his son Robert, were confiscated by Henry I. on an accusation of high treason. Paganus Peverell, a favourite of the king, received a grant of this property; and finding the site upon which the priory had been commenced too small for the projected establishment, he transferred it to the spot now

called *Barnwell*. Many of the ancient walls still remain: the body of the building is used as a farmhouse.

The name of *Barnwell* is said to be derived from an annual meeting of children on St. John's eve, at a spring below the town, hence called *Bairn's well*. A fair, which is still held yearly on a common called Midsummer-green, in this parish, is referred to the same cause. It commences on St. John's day, and lasts a fortnight. It assumed a legal form as early as the reign of Henry III. and is still proclaimed by the heads of the university. From the quantity of earthen ware sold at it has acquired the title of Pot fair.

Another fair, Sturbridge fair, is annually held in a meadow in this parish adjoining the little river Stour. Dr. Stukeley deduces the origin of the fair from the hero Carausius. Assured documents trace it up to king John, who granted it for the use an maintenance of an hospital of lepers, which here possessed a chapel dedicated to St. Mary Magdalene, still in existence. The custos of this chapel demanded dues for all merchandizes exposed in its yard, and as early as 1148 had six shillings and eight pence allowed for every booth set up in it. By a charter of Henry VIII. this fair was transferred to the mayor and corporation of Cambridge on the payment of 1000 marks.

On the fourth of September, yearly, the ground is marked out, and booths, many of which are permanent, are hired or erected. On the eighteenth of the same month, the university officers first, and then the officers of the corporation, proclaim the fair, which lasts fourteen days. One of these days (September 23) is appropriated to the sale of horses. Dramatic exhibitions are permitted during its continuance. It was formerly the largest fair in England, and in the year 1605 it was first attended by Hackney coaches from London. The improvement of commercial intercourse has gradually diminished, and probably will in the end extinguish this once celebrated mart.

BARN-
WELL.
—
BARO-
METER.

BAROMETER.

BAROMETER, } *βαρος*, weight, heaviness; and
BAROMETRICAL, } *μετρον*, a measure.

If we consider the whole connection of causes and effects, interest is the barometer of the state, and its lowness is a sign almost infallible of the flourishing condition of a people.

Hume. Of Interest.

As it seldom happens, that I do not find the temper to which the texture of his brain is fitted, I accommodate him in time with a tube of mercury, first marking the point most favourable to his intellects, according to rules which I have long studied, and which I may, perhaps, reveal to mankind in a complete treatise of barometrical pneumatology. *Johnson. Rambler, No. 117.*

General
remarks.

BAROMETER, is an instrument for measuring the weight of the atmosphere and its variations, in order to determine the heights of mountains and elevated places, or to prognosticate changes in the weather.

We have already, in our treatise on PNEUMATICS, given the history of this instrument; and have illustrated, at considerable length, the principles, rules, and formulae necessary for determining by it the altitudes of mountains, &c. so that it remains for us in

this article, merely to describe the various forms of the barometer, as it is intended to be applied to different purposes; the precautions necessary to be observed in its construction, and some of its phenomena as connected with the science of meteorology; in which latter sense however, we shall only indicate a few of the more prominent facts; because in our treatise on that subject these phenomena will of necessity be a principal object of consideration.

There is perhaps no philosophical instrument that has been tortured into so many shapes and forms as the barometer; and although many of these have been long laid aside, yet in a work like ours it is expected that we should, to a certain extent, not only describe these instruments as they are, but also as they have been. In conforming to this rule, we shall however be as concise as possible in our description of obsolete forms, in order that we may have an opportunity of entering at length on those instruments of more recent and approved constructions.

After the Torricellian experiment, when this instru-

BARO-
METER.Descartes's
barometer,
fig. 1.

ment began to assume a form something like our common barometer, it was found that the mercurial column was subject to certain variations, and that although these changes might amount altogether to about three inches, yet, in general, it was thought desirable to enlarge the scale of variation; an object that has given rise to a greater variety of shapes than any other, and which, as they are generally of early date, we shall endeavour briefly to illustrate before we proceed to other inquiries.

The first in this class is *Descartes's barometer*, it consists of a tube about four feet and a half in length, protruberant towards its middle, as shown in fig. 1. plate x. Miscellaneous; the part A C was filled with water, the point C being about thirty-nine inches above the surface of the mercury in the cistern B. The diameter of the part A C, may be that of the part C D in any ratio. By this construction the range of the scale would be of considerable, indeed of any extent, and it would doubtless have been an acceptable instrument in the hands of a meteorologist, had not the escape of air from the water destroyed in a great measure its operation.

Huygens's
barometer,
fig. 2.

To avoid this inconvenience, *Huygens* altered the relative position of the water and mercury, in the following manner: ABC (fig. 2.) is a bent tube, hermetically sealed at C, and open at A; at D E and F G the tube is swelled out into two equal cylindrical vessels, which are about twenty-nine inches asunder. The diameter of the bore of the tube is about one-twelfth of an inch, and that of the cylinders one inch and a quarter, and their depth five-sixths of an inch; the part B C is then filled with mercury. The barometer first being placed in a proper situation, as much mercury is retained as occupies the space E B F; oil of tartar, or solution of tartar of potass, or any other fluid which does not readily freeze, or act upon the mercury, is poured into A E, till it rises to the proper height above the surface of the mercury at E.

Now since the two cylinders are equal, and since their diameters are to the diameter of the tube in a given ratio, it is evident that by this construction the smallest difference in the atmospheric pressure might be estimated; or rather such was the idea which led to its construction; but it was found so defective in its action that it was soon laid aside.

Hooke's
barometer,
fig. 3.

Next in order, and founded perhaps upon the former, is *Dr. Hooke's barometer*. This is represented in fig. 3. it is composed of two tubes A B C. The parts A D, E F, are equally wide, and the bore C E, is made as much narrower as it is intended to enlarge the scale. I B G is filled with mercury, the part A I forming a vacuum. H G is occupied by some fluid lighter than mercury, as for instance, a solution of tartar of potass; and C H, by some fluid still lighter, as petroleum, which has little tendency to mix with the other. The cistern C is of the same diameter with A D. This is decidedly preferable to either of the two former instruments, but it was found to be very far from perfect; it will always happen, for example, that the weight or pressure of the fluids on the surface of the mercury will differ on account of their difference of specific gravities; and they will gradually mix together, so that the line of separation will at length become confused and difficult to be distinguished.

Horizontal
barometer,
fig. 4.

The horizontal or rectangular barometer, is shown in fig. 4; it was invented by J. Bernoulli and Cassini. A D is a pretty wide cylindrical part at the top of the

tube, which latter is bent at right angles at B; the lower part B C being turned into the horizontal direction and closed above at A, but open at the lower end, where however the mercury cannot run out, being opposed by the pressure of the atmosphere. This, and the foregoing contrivance of *Huygens*, are obviously founded on the known principles of hydrostatics, "that fluids of the same base press according to their perpendicular altitude, and not according to the quantity of their matter;" so that the same pressure of the atmosphere sustains the quicksilver that fills the tube B D A and the cistern D, as would support the mercury in the tube alone. Hence having fixed upon the size of the scale, as for example, the extent of twelve inches instead of three, that is four times as long; the area of a section of the cylinder D, must be four times that of the tube, and consequently its diameter double; so that for every natural variation of an inch of air in the cylinder A D, there will be a variation of four inches in the tube C B. But on account of the friction against the sides of the glass, the quicksilver is liable to break; and the rise and fall is then no longer equal; besides the mercury is in danger of being thrown out of the orifice at C, by any sudden motion of the machine.

BARO-
METER.

The *diagonal barometer*, invented by Sir S. Moreland, fig. 5, is another method of enlarging the natural scale of variation, by extending the oblique branch B A, at any angle, and to a corresponding distance. This instrument is at this time occasionally to be met with, and is perhaps the best of any we have yet described. It is obvious that for any given quantity of perpendicular rise, the variation will be increased in the oblique branch in the ratio of radius to the co-secant of the angle of inclination of the branch B A; but its awkward and inconvenient form, has prevented its general adoption.

Diagonal
barometer,
fig. 5.

Wheel barometer. This is unquestionably the most elegant, and the most perfect of any barometer with an enlarged scale; it is due to the ingenuity of the celebrated Dr. Hooke, and is in very general use in England, it being considered almost an indispensable appendage to the parlours of all our more respectable agriculturists, of which it forms a handsome ornament. The foundation of this instrument is the common barometer, with a large ball above, and turned up at the lower end, with the addition of two weights A B, (fig. 6) hanging on a pulley, the one of them playing at liberty in the air, and the other resting on the surface of the mercury in the inverted tube, and rising and falling with it. By this means the motion of the mercury is communicated through the intervention of the pulley to an index which turns round a graduated circle, and hence the natural scale of three inches is enlarged in any proportion, viz. as the radius of the pulley to that of the graduated face, which may be taken at pleasure. The only objection to the principle of this construction is, that we cannot have a ball above sufficiently large but that the ascent of the mercury in the vertical ascending tube will sensibly depress that in the ball above, the height therefore of the mercurial column is not so great as that indicated by the index. Moreover, there is frequently too much friction on the axle of the pulley to render the instrument so perfect as could be desired. Indeed the friction is the greatest objection to the instrument; for if as is done in the best barometers

Wheel
barometer,
fig. 6.

BARO-
METER.

of this kind, we leave out the ball at top, and make the bords of the two branches of the tube of the same diameter; then it is obvious, that is order to produce a difference of one inch, for example, in the level of the two surfaces of the mercury, which obviously marks the difference of level. The quicksilver in the short branch will only fall half an inch, and the other rise the same quantity, or the latter will fall and the former rise. That is, the variation on the scale, by which the change is shown, will only amount to half of the actual variation; but as this is more than counter-balanced by the advantages gained by the index, this is of little importance; and in this form of the instrument it is altogether free from theoretical imperfections. The complete instrument is generally furnished with an attached thermometer and hygrometer, and forms, when neatly manufactured, a handsome piece of furniture; to which latter circumstance, rather than to its use as a weatherglass, we may, perhaps, in great measure, attribute its popularity.

Fitzgerald's
barometer.

Fitzgerald's improvement of the wheel barometer. This is furnished with two pulleys, which move on friction wheels; each of which turns an index on the centre of a graduated circle. The smallest circle is four inches in diameter, and divided into three equal parts, each again being subdivided decimally; and the changes, corresponding to the rise or fall of the mercury from twenty-eight to thirty-one inches, are marked on the margin of it, as they are on the scales of the common barometers. The large circle, which is proposed by the inventor to be thirty inches in diameter, is divided into three hundred equal parts, and the index belonging to it will, therefore, mark distinctly to the six hundredth part of an inch in the rise and fall of the mercury. On the centre of this circle two registers are fixed, which are placed along the index when the instrument is adjusted; one of them is carried round as the index advances, and left behind on its return; so that their distance will determine the limits of the variation from one observation to another.—*Philosophical Transactions*, vol. lli. No. 29.

It would occupy too much space to go through a description of all the contrivances that have been had recourse to for enlarging the barometrical scale, particularly as we may state it as a fact, that in no instance has any one of them been completely successful, we shall therefore merely indicate briefly one or two barometers of this kind, and then pass on to those of more accurate and scientific construction. Of the former class we may mention the *lever barometer*, which acts on the principle of the wheel barometer, except that the floating ball of ivory or glass in the shorter leg is connected by a short piece of fine wire with the shorter arm of a lever, the other arm of the same being long and light, is made to traverse over a graduated arc; thereby indicating any change in the rise and fall of the mercury on a scale greater than the actual change, in the ratio of the two arms of the lever. See fig. 7. See also Caswell's barometer described in *Philosophical Transactions*, abridgement, vol. v. p. 120; and Rowaing's barometer, *Philosophical Transactions*, vol. vii. p. 500.

Of the
common or
chamber
barometer

Of the chamber, portable, and marine barometers.

We have hitherto confined our description to what may be termed fanciful constructions of this instrument, but which however was necessary in order to

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give our readers some idea of the various attempts that have been made to give a degree of perfection to it, and to render it susceptible of more accurate observation. Unfortunately, as we have seen, they were generally unsuccessful, and it was at length found that any attempts to enlarge the scale of the instrument, were not likely to be attended with the desired advantages. The ingenuity of artists was therefore now turned into another channel, viz. to fit them for particular purposes, and to improve their accuracy of action, without endeavouring to enlarge the scale.

Chamber barometer. There is some variety in the form of this instrument as produced by different artists, but the principle of construction is nearly the same in all. An instrument of this kind, constructed by Messrs. Jones, opticians, is shown in fig. 8. It consists of a barometer *d*, thermometer *a*, and hygrometer *c*, all in one mahogany frame. The thermometer or hygrometer of this apparatus may be conveniently separated from the frame, and occasionally used apart if necessary. The thermometer is separated by means of two screws *a*; and the hygrometer by unscrewing a brass pin at the back of the frame. The index of the hygrometer is set at any time, merely by moving with the finger the brass wheel seen at *e*; and the two sliding indexes of the barometer and thermometer are moved by rack work, set in action by the key *g*, placed in the holes *h* and *i*. The divisions of the barometer plate *b*, are in tenths of an inch, from twenty-eight to thirty-one inches, and these are subdivided into hundredths by the nonius or vernier scale on a sliding slip of brass. The vernier scale is divided into ten equal parts, which are equal to eleven on the scale of inches, or to eleven-tenths of an inch. By this means the height of the mercury at *E* is evident merely by inspection to the one-hundredth part of an inch, according to the principle of the vernier scale.

A more common sort of barometer (fig. 9.) is frequently made, which differs from the one above principally in this, that in general it is not supposed to register to the same degree of accuracy, having no vernier, and being meant for the common purposes of a weatherglass, its face is marked with different words indicating the probable shades of weather peculiar to different altitudes of the mercury. As the lowest state of the mercury in this country is not less than twenty-eight inches, nor the highest above thirty-one inches, this lowest point on the scale, on the face of the instrument, is marked *storm*, and the latter *very dry for summer*, and on the other side *very hard frost for winter*. To the next half-inch below this highest point are written *set fair* on the one side, and *set frost* on the other. At thirty inches the word *fair* is placed on the one side, and *frost* on the other; and at twenty-nine inches and a half there is marked *changeable*, both for summer and winter. At twenty-nine inches we have *rain* on the one side, and *snow* on the other; and at twenty-eight inches and a half *much rain* on the summer side, and *much snow* on the winter; these terms, for want of room, are omitted in the figure.

There is in general in these common instruments no means of adjusting the surface of the mercury in the basin (which is commonly a bulbous termination of the recurved tube) to the beginning of the scale of inches, which is obviously necessary for the accurate action of the barometer. Is the better sort, however,

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BARO-
METER.

Chamber
barometer,
fig. 8.

BARO-
METER.

of chamber barometers, such as that described above, the reservoir of mercury is a leathern bag, which is more or less compressed by the atmosphere, according to its greater or less pressure, and the scale is supposed to commence from the bottom of the tube; there is also a screw at the bottom (seen in fig. 8.) by which the mercury may be forced to the top of the tube, and thus prevented from oscillating when the instrument is removed. This construction, however, is not sufficiently accurate for those instruments designed for the mensuration of altitudes, called *portable barometers*, which have several adjustments peculiar to their intended purpose, as will be described in the following article.

Portable
barometer.

Portable barometer. One of the best instruments of this kind, by Troughton, is exhibited in figs. 10, 11, and 12. Its great peculiarity and distinguishing characteristic consists in the excellent manner in which the mercury in the cistern is set to the zero in the scale of inches. For this purpose, a glass cylinder, of about two and a half inches diameter, and as much in length, contains the mercury. An external covering of hollow brass, terminating in an interior screw a little above and below the glass, admits external screw pieces, whose ends, well feathered, being pressed hard against the ends of the glass, prevent the escape of the fluid. Near the upper end of the brass cover are two slits, made horizontally, one before, and the other behind, exactly similar, and opposite to each other. At bottom is a screw, seen better in the section, fig. 11, which, acting upon the usual leather bag, forces the quicksilver upwards at pleasure, and, by filling every part, renders the instrument portable. But the primary design of the screw is, to furnish the means of adjusting the surface of the mercury in the glass cistern, so as just to shut out the light from passing between it and the upper edges of the slits in the brass cover. This is the mode of adjusting to zero; and it follows, that the upper edges of the slits must represent the beginning of the scale of inches. The frame is entirely made of brass tube, and above the cistern is of about 1.1 inch in diameter. The first ten inches of the lower end is occupied by a thermometer, whose bulb, bent inwards, is concealed within the frame. At about three inches higher, it is attached to the stand by a ring, in which the frames turn round with a smooth and steady motion, for the purpose of placing the instrument in the best light for reading off, &c. The actually divided scale commences at about fifteen inches above the zero, and is continued as high as thirty-three inches; and, by the usual help of a vernier, is subdivided down to 1001 of an inch. A longitudinal slit, from end to end of the divided part, exposes to view the glass tube and mercury within it. The whole of this part consists of two tubes of brass: in the inside of the interior one, slides a cylindrical piece, and on this is divided the vernier scale, the index to which is the lower end of the piece. In taking the height of the mercury, this piece is brought down so as just to exclude the light from passing between itself and the spherical surface of the mercury. The screw at top, although but a short one, performs this office in whatever part of the scale the vernier piece may be; for it acts upon the interior long tube, in the inside of which the piece is sustained by friction, and in which it is, on every occasion, to be set by hand nearly. The tripod is

altogether similar to what Mr. Ramsden used for the same purpose, as far back, perhaps, as the year 1775. It affords, when closed, (fig. 13.) a safe and convenient packing-case for the instrument; the structure of the staff head is curious: the principal part is a circle, (fig. 14.) about 75 of an inch broad, joined in three pieces; these, although they seem in principle to be incapable of motion, yet, in practice, produce what is fully adequate to the purpose. The three joint-pins extend inwards, so as to pass through a circular rim, which they hold fast; within this rim is hung a similar one, by two pivots; and, inside the latter, at right angles to the pivots, are fastened two g's, or angles, in which the barometer hangs by its gudgeons. Thus are brought about, in a small compass, the means of extending the legs, of turning the instrument about in the tripod, and an universal joint, wherewith it readily places itself perpendicular to the horizon.

It would extend this article to too great a length, were we to enter upon a description of the various peculiarities that have been introduced by different artists in the construction of portable barometers. We shall therefore only mention a few of those which are generally considered the most complete, of which that of Ramsden deserves particular notice, as being one of the first that attained to any thing like the accuracy required in these instruments; and a recent one, by Miller and Adie, in which every requisite degree of accuracy seems to be completely attained; another, of very delicate action, is described by De Lue, in vol. ii. of his *Recherches*, &c. See also Dr. J. A. Hamilton's portable barometer, described in vol. v. of the *Royal Irish Academy Memoirs*: and various others in the following works; *Magellan's Voyage de Diverces Instr. de Phys.*; *Phil. Trans.* xvi. xvii.; *Journ. de Physique*, vol. xviii. xviii. xix. xxi. xxii.; *Sulzer Act. Helvet.* vol. iii.; *De Luc's Recherches*, &c.

Marine barometer. If we admit, and the fact cannot be doubted, that the barometer, by its various changes, indicates corresponding changes in the atmosphere and in the weather, it is obvious that there are so many circumstances in which its use becomes so important on shipboard, where a due notice of an approaching storm may be the means of warning the navigator of his danger, and thereby enabling him to make such preparations to resist the threatened storm, as shall preserve his rigging and vessel in good order, preventing thus both delay and mischief. But to render this instrument efficacious on shipboard, some contrivance is necessary, in order to prevent the great oscillation of the mercury, necessarily attending any strong motion of the vessel; which would not only prevent any accuracy of observation, but would endanger the safety of the instrument itself; and in consequence various contrivances have been had recourse to, in order to avoid this defect.

Hooke's marine barometer. One of the first instruments of this kind, we owe to the ever inventive genius of this celebrated philosopher and machinist. It was nothing more than a double thermometer, or a pair of tubes half filled with spirit of wine: the one hermetically sealed at both ends, with a quantity of common air enclosed; the other sealed at one end, and open at the other. Now the air, we know, will act on the spirit of wine, and raise it, on two principles,

BARO-
METER.

Figs. 13, 14.

Marine
barometer.Hooke's
marine barometer.

BAROMETER.

partly by pressure, and partly by its heat, as in the thermometer. If, then, two tubes be graduated so as to agree with each other at the time when the air is enclosed, it will easily appear, that whenever the two agree afterwards, the pressure of the atmosphere is the same as at the time when the air was enclosed. If in the thermometer open to the air, the liquid stand higher, considering at the same time how much the other is risen or fallen from the other cause, of heat or cold, the air is heavier; on the contrary, when it is lower, compared with the other, the air is lighter than at the time when the instrument was graduated. Here the spaces, answering to an inch of mercury, will be greater or less according to the quantity of the air enclosed, and the smallness of the tubes; and they may be increased in almost any proportion. This instrument, however, although very ingenious, cannot, as is obvious, answer entirely the purposes of a barometer; it has therefore been wholly laid aside; at least if it is ever employed, it is under the term *manometer*, or *manometer*.

Pascent's marine barometer.

Pascent's marine barometer. In this instrument the barometer tube, and mercury, are employed according to the usual method, except that the middle of the tube is twisted into a spiral, consisting of two convolutions; by which means the impulses which the mercury receives, mutually destroy each other, by acting in opposite directions. The effects of the external and momentary impulses may also be diminished, by widening the upper part of the tube where the scale is applied, in which case the oscillations, which would be very perceptible in the tube, become scarcely sensible when they are thus diffused over a larger extent of surface: this idea was also due to Mr. Pascent, who constructed several marine barometers on this principle.

Nairn's marine barometer.

Mr. Nairn, a well known London artist, constructed a marine barometer for Captain Phipps, in his voyage towards the North Pole, the upper part of which was a glass tube, about three-fourths of an inch in diameter, and four inches long, to which another glass tube was joined, with a bore of about one-twentieth of an inch diameter. These formed the tube of this barometer, which was filled with mercury, and inverted into a cistern of the same. The instrument was fixed in gimbals, and kept in a perpendicular position, by a weight appended to the bottom of it; and was not therefore liable to the inconveniences attending the common barometer on shipboard; and, with some slight improvements, it is the principle upon which the most approved instruments are still constructed.

Troughton's marine barometer.

The following is a description of an instrument of this kind, constructed by Troughton; and it may be considered one of the best at present known. The upper part of the tube here is four-tenths of an inch diameter, and the smaller part only one-fiftieth; and to counteract more effectually the effects of the ship's motion, the instrument, like the above, is suspended in gimbals, as shown in figs. 15 and 16. The whole is attached to the side of the cabin by two brass tubes, which slide one within the other, and render the instrument capable of being suspended at different distances from the place of support; that the bottom of it may not strike the side of the cabin during any heavy rolling of the vessel, the inner tube carries the gimbal. The external frame of the barometer is a cylindrical tube

BAROMETER.

of wood, on which the brass sockets slide; and in this is inserted the innermost pair of pivots, or universal joint, which furnishes the instrument with a moveable point of suspension. The top is terminated with a brass ball, of a weight nearly equal to that of the mercury, &c. at the lower end. With respect to the position of the point of suspension, no general rule can be given applicable to every case, though it is a circumstance on which the oscillations of the mercury greatly depend: it is, indeed, obvious, that though this point were accurately determined for one particular height of the mercury, it would not correspond with every other. By this ingenious contrivance of the counterpoise to the weight of the mercury, the centre of gravity of the whole will be about the middle; and if the instrument were of the same specific gravity throughout, the point of suspension that would produce the smallest oscillation, would be about one-third of the length of the instrument from the top, considering the lower part as a fixed point; but as this is not strictly the case, the point of suspension is best ascertained by experiment. The graduation is on two scales of ivory, about four inches long, for the reception of which two opposite quarters of the cylindrical frame are sunk through that length, their planes pointing towards the centre of the tube, and the index is very light, and slides on the glass tube without touching any other part. At the bottom is the usual screw, which, pressing up the leather bag, prevents the mercury from oscillating when the instrument is removed.

Adie's marine barometer, called by the inventor a *Adie's sympathometer*, (from *συνπαίειν* to compress, and *μέτρον* measure barometer), is a new patent instrument, which appears to have been very favourably received by the nautical profession. The principle of this sympathometer, which is represented in one of its forms in fig. 17, consists in employing an elastic gas, different from common atmospheric air, and any liquid except quicksilver, which neither acts upon the gas which it confines, nor is perceptibly acted upon by the air, to the action of which it is in some measure exposed. Mr. Adie seems to prefer hydrogen gas to any other elastic fluid; and almond oil, coloured with anchusa root, to all other liquids.

The instrument is thus described by the inventor: it consists of a tube of glass, ABC, (fig. 17.) of about eighteen inches long, and .07 of an inch diameter inside, terminated above by a bulb A, about two inches long inside, and half an inch diameter; but this will vary, as the instrument is required to have a greater or lesser range; and having the lower extremity B bent upward, and expanding into an oval cistern C, open at top. The bulb A, at the upper end of the tube, is drawn to a slender thread, and is at first left open. In order to introduce the gas and oil, the bulb and tube are first filled with quicksilver; then holding the tube horizontally, a communication is formed between a gasometer containing the gas to be used, and the slender pipe at the end of the bulb A, by means of a flexible tube. As the tube is brought to a vertical position, the quicksilver flows out, till it descends in the tube to the level of the top of the cistern, and the gas enters to supply its place. The slender pipe is then to be sealed hermetically, close to the tube A, by a touch of the flame of a blow-pipe. The tube ABC

BARO-
METER.

is now to be inverted, and the mercury poured out of the cistern C, allowing the column which occupies the tube to run towards the bulb, to prevent the escape of the gas. The tube being again turned into a vertical position, the portion of quicksilver which remains is removed, by pouring some of the oil over it, and heating the gas until, by its expansion, it forces the column of quicksilver, which is left at the lower end of the tube, into the cistern; then, holding the tube nearly horizontal, the oil will enter as the gas cools, and the remaining quicksilver may be poured out of the cistern C.

The enclosed gas which has thus been introduced changes its bulk, or occupies more or less space, according to the pressure of the atmosphere upon the surface of the oil in the cistern C; the scale m, n , for measuring the change in the bulk of the gas occasioned by a change of pressure, is formed experimentally, by placing the instrument in an air-tight glass case, with an accurate barometer, and thermometer.

The glass case is furnished with a condensing and exhausting syringe, by which any density may be given to the enclosed gas, so as to support a column of quicksilver in the barometer of twenty-eight, twenty-nine, thirty, or any other required number of inches. The height of the oil in the tube of the sympiesometer corresponding to these points being marked on its scale, and the spaces between being divided into a hundred parts, these parts correspond with hundredths of an inch, on the scale of the mercurial barometer. As the bulk of the gas is altered by any change that takes place in the temperature of the atmosphere, it is necessary to apply a correction to this account. For this purpose, the principal barometric scale m, n , is made to slide upon another scale p , placed either below or on one side of it, which is divided into degrees and parts, so as to represent the change of bulk in the gas produced by a change of temperature under the same pressure, and corresponding to the degrees of a common thermometer attached to the instrument. This scale is constructed in the same manner as the scale of a common thermometer, by changing the temperature of the bulb while the pressure is the same, and noting the range of the oil occasioned by it.

In using the instrument, observe the temperature of the thermometer, and set the index which is upon the sliding sympiesometer scale, opposite to the degree of temperature upon the fixed scale; and then the height of the oil, as indicated on the sliding scale, will be the pressure of the air required. *Edinburgh Philosophical Journal*, vol. i.

Self-regis-
tering baro-
meter.

Self-registering barometer. It is a great object in meteorological inquiries to be able to ascertain, not simply the state of the barometer at certain times, but its ranges within certain intervals when the observer has not been present. For example; the state of the barometer may have been observed late in the evening, and again in the morning, and in both instances it may read the same; yet we cannot conclude that it has been stationary during this interval: it may have had a considerable range in the course of the night, and have thus indicated a change in the atmosphere by no means to have been anticipated by the evening and morning coincidence. It is therefore of importance to have an instrument that will register its own greatest range, of which description we have several

varieties, although there are perhaps very few, if any, that completely answer the purpose. We have seen, for example, that Mr. Fitzgerald converted Dr. Hooke's wheel barometer into a self-registering one, and Alex. Keith, Esq. has, by a slight variation in the lever barometer, described in a preceding page, converted this also into an instrument of this description. The construction is as follows: A B C D, fig. 18, is a glass tube bent, as shewn in the figure, open at D, and hermetically sealed at A. The length from A to B is eight inches, and its calibre $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch: from B to C is $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches, and the calibre about $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch: from C to D is $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and the diameter of the bore $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch. The tube being filled with mercury, and the former hung vertically, the latter will fall from B towards E, leaving a vacuum from A to B. When the atmosphere becomes heavier, the mercury falls in the tube D C, and when lighter, it rises. The range in the scale in consequence of the horizontal reservoir A B, is nearly the same as in the common barometer; but it is obviously the reverse of it, the same as in the lever barometer already described. The tube D C is represented on a larger scale in fig. 19: F, is a float of glass or ivory, with a wire attached to it, terminating in a knee, at right angles, between the indexes L L, and these being very light, they are raised or lowered by the knee, as the float rises or falls with the mercury in the tube D C. The instrument is prepared for observation, by bringing down the one index and raising the other, till both touch the knee of the float wire. When next observed, the upper index will point out the greatest depression, and the lower one the greatest elevation of the mercurial column in the interval since the barometer had been left.

The same may obviously also be done by indexes attached to the arc of the lever barometer, (fig. 7.) The above, however, answers best, as there is less friction.

For an account of McGwire's self-registering barometer, see *Irish Trans.* vol. iv. p. 141.

Having thus described such instruments of the barometrical kind as seem best to answer their intended purpose, it may not be amiss to state certain principles necessary to be observed in the construction of them; at the same time we must admit, that the only way to make sure of a good instrument is to apply to a good maker; yet a few directions on this head may be acceptable to some of our readers.

It appears from many experiments, that the mercury stands higher in tubes of larger than in those of smaller bore; and therefore, when observations are made with different barometers, some regard should be paid to the difference of their diameters; and it would be desirable to have them constructed of tubes of the same interior dimensions. The tube should be pretty large, in order to prevent the effects of cohesion or capillary attraction: they ought, for example, to be not less than $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch in diameter, and if they are $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch they would be the better; moreover, if a cistern be used instead of the leathern bag, its surface ought to be larger in comparison with the area of the section of the tube, in order that the addition or subtraction of the mercury contained between the greatest and the least altitudes, may not sensibly affect its depth. The tube should be preserved free from dust till it is used, and for this purpose it may be hermetically sealed at both ends, and one end may

BARO-
METER.Keith's re-
gulating ba-
rometer, fig. 18.Practical
directions.

BARO-
METER.

be opened with a file when it is to be filled. If this precaution has not been observed, the inside should be well cleaned, by washing it with alcohol, highly rectified, and by rubbing it with a little piston of stannum leather, fastened to a wire. The mercury should also be very pure; it may be purged of its air, by previously holding it in an earthen pipkin, closely covered; or better still, by revivification from cinabar: when the tube has been uniformly heated throughout, and rendered electrical by rubbing, the hot mercury should be poured into it, in a regular current, through a glass funnel, with a long capillary tube, so that the air may not have room to pass between the parts of the quicksilver. De Lue recommends, that the mercury should be boiled in the tube, as the most effectual method of purifying it of its air and moisture. The process is briefly this: choose a tube of about $\frac{1}{2}$ of an inch diameter, and not exceeding half a line in thickness, fill this within two inches of the top with mercury, and hold it with its sealed end over a chafing dish of burning charcoal, presenting first the sealed end to the fire, and then moving the whole obliquely over the dish. As the mercury is heated, the air bubbles appear like so many studs on the inner surface of the tube, which gradually run one into another, and ascend towards the higher parts of it which are not heated. Here they are condensed, and almost disappear; but after successive displacements, they at length accumulate in one place, and acquire a bulk by their union, which enables them to escape. In performing this operation, it will be found, when the mercury boils, that the parts strike against each other and against the sides of the tube with such violence, that a person unaccustomed to the practice is ready to apprehend that their force is sufficient to break the tube, of which, however, there is no danger. The mercury is thus freed from all heterogeneous particles contained in it, together with their surrounding atmospheres; and the air which lines the inside of the tube, which cannot be expelled in any other way, is thus discharged: when this last mentioned stratum of air is thus expelled, the tube may be afterwards emptied, and filled with cold mercury, and it will be found nearly as free from air as before. The mercury in tubes thus prepared by a certain quantity of heat, will rise higher than in those made in the common way, and different instruments thus made will agree better with each other: in common barometers, in which this process has not been observed, there will frequently be found a difference of several lines, at the same time, and in the same situation.

De Lue found, that barometers made in the way we have described, rose uniformly in a heated room; while the mercury in those that had been prepared in the common way descended, and in different proportions. When the room was suffered to cool, the former descended uniformly as they had risen, while the latter ascended irregularly as before; and frequently at the end of the experiment they did not agree with each other as they did before it. The reason is obvious, it proceeds from the effects of heat on the air remaining in unequal quantities in the tubes in the one case, and on the purer mercury in the other. Another circumstance also requiring to be attended to in the construction of these instruments, is the temperature of the air, for unless this remains the same, the immersion of a given quantity of mer-

cury will be variable, and its altitude an uncertain measure of the barometrical pressure.

The great accuracy and delicacy of De Lue's barometer, led him to detect a phenomenon which had not before been noticed at least in these latitudes. Having observed the barometer, at one station, twice in one day, he found the mercury higher in the second observation than in the first; and this variation he naturally ascribed to a change in the weight of the atmosphere, which must have affected his other barometer stationed on the plain in the same manner. But he was not a little surprised when, on examining the state of the latter barometer, he found that it had pursued a contrary course, and that it had fallen while the other rose. As this difference could not proceed from any inaccuracy in the observations, it was so considerable as to discourage his progress and to disappoint his hope of success, unless he should be able to explain its cause, and to make due allowance for its effects. The experiment was carefully repeated at different periods.

An observer on the mountain, and another on the plain, took their respective stations at the rising of the sun, and continued to make their respective observations, both of the barometer and the thermometer, every quarter of an hour till the sun set; when it was found, that the lower barometer gradually descended for the first three quarters of a day; after which it re-ascended, till in the evening it stood at nearly the same height as in the morning. But the higher barometer ascended for the first three quarters of the day, and then descended, so as to regain likewise about sunset the altitude of the morning. The following theory seems to afford a satisfactory solution of this phenomenon. When the sun rises above the horizon of any place, his beams penetrate the whole section of the atmosphere of which that horizon is the base; but falling very obliquely on the greater part of it, they communicate little heat, and consequently produce little dilatation of its air. As the sun advances, his rays become more direct, and the heat and rarefaction of course increase. However, the greatest heat of the day is not felt when the sun is in the meridian, when his rays are most direct; but it increases after mid-day, while the place receives more heat than it loses; just as the tide attains not its highest altitude till the moon has proceeded a considerable way to the west of the meridian. Besides the heat of the atmosphere is the greatest at the surface of the earth, and seems not to ascend to any great distance above it; and therefore the dilatation of the air occasioned by the sun will be found principally, if not solely, near the earth. A motion of the adjacent air, in all directions, must take place in order to allow the heated air to expand itself. The heated column, extending themselves vertically, will become longer and also specifically lighter in consequence of the rarefaction of their inferior parts. As the motion of the air, till it rises into wind, is not rapid, these lengthened columns will take some time to dissipate their summits among the adjacent less rarefied columns that are not so high; at least they will not do this so speedily as their length is increased by the rarefaction of their bases.

In order to apply this theory to the solution of the phenomenon above mentioned, it should be considered, that the barometer on the plain begins to fall a little after morning, because the column of air that supports it becomes specifically lighter on account of the rare-

BARO-
METER.

Daily variation in the barometer.

BARO-
METER.

faction occasioned by the heat of the sun. It continues to fall during the three first quarters of the day, because the heat and consequent rarefaction are continually increasing. After this period it rises again, because the cold condensation coming on, the specific gravity is augmented by the rushing in of the adjacent air: thus the equilibrium is destroyed, and the mercury returns to the altitude of the morning. The barometer on the eminence rises after morning, and continues so to do for three quarters of the day, for two reasons. The density of the column of the air is greater near the earth, and decreases as the distance from it increases; the higher therefore we ascend in the atmosphere, we find air specifically lighter; but by the rarefaction of the base of the column that supports the mercury of the barometer on the eminence, the denser parts of that column are raised higher than they would naturally be if left to the operation of their own gravity. On this account, the higher barometer is pressed with a weight nearly as great as it would sustain, if it were brought down in the atmosphere to the natural place of that denser air now raised above it by the prolongation of the base of the column. The other reason is, that as the rarefaction does not take place at any great distance from the earth, little change is produced in the specific gravity of the portion of the column that presses on the higher barometer, and the summit of that column dissipates itself more slowly than it increases. Thus we see how this

barometer must ascend during the first three quarters of the day, and pursue a course the reverse of that on the plain; the condensation returning after this time, the denser air embodies, the equilibrium takes place, and the mercury descends to its first position.

A fact very similar to the depression of De Lue's barometer in the plain, is known constantly to take place at sea within the torrid zone, and for some distance, into each temperate zone, but beyond these limits it is not so easily observed, on account of the uncertain state of this instrument in situations in higher latitudes. There is however some slight difference in the two cases; it seems that De Lue's barometer in the plain began its descent as the sun rose above the horizon; but in the marine observations to which we allude, the barometer gradually rose till about tea in the morning, and uniformly sunk till about four o'clock in the evening, then gradually rose again, and at ten o'clock at night it returned to its altitude as observed about six o'clock in the morning. We are indebted to Captain Beaufort of the Royal Navy, for the full establishment of this interesting fact, who has very obligingly favoured the writer of this article with his entire set of observations made in H. M. S. *Worcester*. These are highly honourable to the scientific views of this able officer, and will, we have no doubt, be acceptable to our scientific readers. The following table is extracted from the journal of observations above alluded to.

BARO-
METERCaptain
Beaufort's
observa-
tions.

Table of barometric observations extracted from the series of Captain Beaufort, R. N. made within the torrid zone during the year 1807, from which the daily variation in the mercurial column is very distinctly marked.

June 1, 1807. Lat. 23° 37' N. Long. 23° 29' W.		June 17, 1807. Lat. 6° 21' S. Long. 22° 49' W.		Dec. 17, 1807. Lat. 1° 19' S. Long. 28° 36' W.		Dec. 18, 1807. Lat. 1° 14' S. Long. 28° 36' W.		Dec. 18, 1807. Lat. 0° 6' N. Long. 22° 14' W.		Dec. 19, 1807. Lat. 1° 55' N. Long. 22° 38' W.		Dec. 30, 1807. Lat. 3° 42' N. Long. 22° 32' W.	
Hour of Day.	Baro- meter.	Hour of Day.	Baro- meter.	Hour of Day.	Baro- meter.	Hour of Day.	Baro- meter.	Hour of Day.	Baro- meter.	Hour of Day.	Baro- meter.	Hour of Day.	Baro- meter.
6 A.M.	30.140	6 A.M.	29.837	6 A.M.	29.831	6	29.764	6	29.754	6	29.778	6	29.739
7	.140	7	.850	7	.839	7	.781	7	.759	7	.764	7	.754
8	.150	8	.862	8	.854	8	.789	8	.790	8	.792	8	.778
9	.158	9	.863	9	.856	9	.782	9	.795	9	.794	9	.782
10	.151	10	.863	10	.859	10	.784	10	.788	10	.789	10	.787
11	.150	11	.857	11	.834	11	.784	11	.779	11	.772	11	.772
Noon	.139	Noon	.851	Noon	.830	Noon	.762	Noon	.764	Noon	.759	Noon	.768
1	.128	1	.822	1	.809	1	.755	1	.761	1	.748	1	.760
2	.133	2	.795	2	.785	2	.739	2	.740	2	.736	2	.749
3	.118	3	.783	3	.767	3	.712	3	—	3	.704	3	.751
4	.117	4	.783	4	.756	4	.731	4	—	4	.704	4	.762
5	.117	5	.798	5	.762	5	.734	5	—	5	.735	5	.778
6	.119	6	.812	6	.764	6	.730	6	—	6	.748	6	.780
7	.119	7	.821	7	.785	7	.742	7	.758	7	.753	7	.792
8	.125	8	.841	8	.806	8	.762	8	.772	8	.767	8	.818
9	.131	9	.857	9	.821	9	.770	9	.783	9	.771	9	—
10	—	10	.862	10	.850	10	.773	10	.791	10	.775	10	—

We shall here conclude our remarks on the barometer; our object in the present article having been merely to describe the instrument itself, directions for constructing them, and one or two of its most remarkable phenomena. For its application to the men-

surement of altitudes, the reader is referred to our treatise on PNEUMATICS; and for what concerns its use as a meteorological instrument, see our treatise on METEOROLOGY.

BARON.

BARON.

BARONAGE.

BARONIES.

BARONET.

BARONIAL.

BARONY.

Baro, in barbarous Lat. is used as equivalent to *vir* ; and *vir*, according to Vossius, is from *vis*, strength, power.

So jut he slow four hundred & sixty in astone
Of erles and of barons he herke jut were.

R. Glouceter, p. 125.

He seude after his baronage, at inderwaster myd hym to be.

Id. p. 349.

Je baronage & je eglise were somend to Kyngdom,
Je was his fast holden, & gyve him je crosse.

R. Branne, p. 28.

Ilkon of je knyghtes had a baronage.

Je & alle je righes were don in his mercy.

Id. p. 139.

When loue had told hem his entent,
The baronage to consaile went,

In many maneres they fil,
And distrely they said her will.

Chaucer, *Remot of the Rose*, fol. 142. c. II.

Whiche victory by y^e p^{er}sonage thus by grace okeyned,
kyage, with his baronage, sette hym into the cytye of Wychester
with solempne procession. *Folgan*, *Chronicle*, C. 185.

His sacrilegious hands upon the churches laid,
In cruelty and rape contending out his reign ;
That his outrageous lust, and courses to restrain,
The baronage were forced to dismiss arms to raise.
Their daughters to redress ; that he by force would seize.
Drayton, *Poly-doron*, Song 17.

Set we up then this boast against our wrong,
He left no other sign that he was young ;
And spite of fate his living virtues will,
Though he be dead, keep up the barony still.
Cortezado, *On the Death of Lord Stafford*.

Sir Edward Walter, master and secretary of war to king
Charles I. observes, " That in all Queen Elizabeth's forty-four
years reign, she created but six earls, eight or nine barons."
Old's Life of Sir Walter Raleigh, fol. 30.

The second was the baronage, the nobility and gentry who held
their baronies of the king. And the third was the boroughs, who
held of the king by *burgage*, though in a community. So that
the parliament was truly the baronage of the kingdom. The lesser
barons grew weary of this attendance.

Burnet, *History of his Own Times*, l. 142.

The title of *baronet*, invented by Salisbury, was sold ; and two
hundred patents of that species of knighthood were disposed of for
so many thousand pounds.

Hume, *History of England*, King James.

The barons too, besides paying the rent, were anciently, it was
supposed, bound to perform a great many of services to the land-
lord, which were seldom either specified in the lease, or regulated
by any precise rule, but by the use and want of the manor or
burgage.

Smith, *Wealth of Nations*, II. 166.

The want of an uniform administration of justice, the general
disorder, and state of universal anarchy, which naturally sprung
from the principles of the feudal law, presented perpetual oppor-
tunities of checking the oppressions of arbitrary lords, of delivering
captives injuriously detained in the baronial castles.

Warren, *Hist. English Poetry*, Diss. I.

A barony is the most general and universal title of nobility ; for
originally every one of the peers of superior rank had also a
barony annexed to his other titles. But it both sometimes happened
that, when an ancient barony had been raised to a new degree of
peerage, in the course of a few generations the two titles have
decayed differently.

Blackstone, *Commentaries*, l. 398.

Baron, the title of the lowest rank in the peerage of
England. Baron originally in England seems to have

been applied to all those who were immediate tenants
of a feudal superior, even though that superior was not
the sovereign. Thus Hugh Lupus, when possessed of
palatine rights as Earl of Chester, had within his county
Barons like the king himself. The name even descended
to the lowest holding ; for the manor court, the court
Baron, is *curia baronum*, from those that there give suit
and service, not *curia baronis* from him who exacts it.
2 Inst. 46. The kings of France, instead of calling
their immediate vassals *homines*, gave them the syno-
nymous appellation of *barones*, from whence in time the
whole body of the nobility of that country was called
the baronage. The title at length became so general
that the higher nobility sought other distinctions, and
at the period of the English conquest, they were di-
vided into three classes, the seigneur chatelain, the
Baron and the count. The chatelain possessed a seig-
nory held immediately of the crown, with the right in
civil cases of administering justice, and erecting a for-
tified chateau ; (*Glossaire de Hoguevart*, voce Baron.) The
seignory of the Baron consisted of four chateaux, held
also immediately of the crown, and his right of
administering justice extended to criminal cases as
well as to civil ones. The count was possessed of a town
with a territory annexed, more considerable in extent
than either of the former, and with the same right of
administering justice as the Baron. After the Norman
establishment in England, the Conqueror conferred
the forfeited estates of the Saxons on his principal fol-
lowers, to be held immediately of himself by fealty,
homage, and military or other honourable service, and
as by the feudal law (*Ducange*, voce *Placitum*), every
vassal was bound to attend his lord's court, and there
to assist him with his advice, these Barons became
constituent parts of the *curia regis* which assembled at
the three great festivals ; and if at other times the
sovereign required their counsel, they were then
convened by a special summons to meet him at a
particular time and place. Such in its rudest form was
the origin of our parliaments, and in Magna Charta
there is an express stipulation that the sovereign shall
summon to the *commune concilium regis* — " omnes
eos qui de nobis tenent in capite." (*Magn. Chart.* c. xiv.)
It is in this chapter of *Magna Charta*, that for the first
time a distinction is made between the *Barones majores*,
who shall be summoned by the king's letter under
seal, and other tenants in chief to whom the summons
shall be directed only through the sheriff ; and Mr.
Seiden conjectures that, during the recent disputes be-
tween the crown and the Barons, many Baronies had
escheated to the king, and been granted out anew ; and
that, therefore, the ancient Barons, apprehensive of a
diminution to their dignity from these new grantees,
had procured a law by which the title of Baron was in
future confined to themselves, and the rest were styled
tenants in chief only — or rather, as the ancient name
could not wholly be withheld, that therefore these latter
were called *Barones minores*, whilst the original nobles
were *maiores*.

It is however very remarkable, says Mr. Cruise,
(on *Dignities*, II.) that in the Magna Charta of
Henry III. the chapter respecting this mode of dis-
tinguishing between the *Barones majores* and *minores* in
their summonses, is wholly omitted ; whence it may be
inferred, that in the interval between the two charters, the
constitution of the court had undergone some change,
probably in the latter part of the reign of King John.

BARON.

BARON. It is however to the reign of Henry III. that we are to look, as the period when the greatest alteration was effected, as it was then that it was first established, that no one, though possessed of a Barony, should give his attendance at the parliament, unless expressly summoned by the king's writ. It was by this measure that the Barons, which at the time of the conquest, when it included all tenants in *capite*, amounted to 700, was reduced to about 130. This is stated distinctly by Camden, although he forbears to name the ancient authority on which he grounds his assertion. (*Ex autis antiquis scriptore loquor. Camden Brit.*) Mr. Selden, who gives little credit to this relation, says, he never could discover who this ancient writer was. Lord Coke, however, has cited the passage, adding, "which act or statute continues in force to this day, so that none now, although he hath an entire Barony, can have a writ of summons to parliament without the king's warrant." (Lord Coke, 12 Rep. 71.) The sovereign however can never be supposed to have possessed the power of omitting to summon the principal nobles, as such a prerogative must necessarily have been liable to infinite abuse; consequently every attempt at its exercise was instantly and successfully resisted. We have already seen, that it was a stipulation of Magna Charta that all should be summoned; and in the parliament of 1255, as several peers were absent from want of summonses, the rest of the Barons "*sine paribus suis tunc absentibus non voluerunt responsum dare, quod omnes tunc temporis non fuerant iuxta tenorem Magnæ Chartæ vocati.*" (Dugdale's Orig. Jurid. 17.)

As the sovereign could not withhold his writ from those who were entitled to it, so neither could he then create a new Barony, otherwise than by a grant of a portion of the royal demesne. And these demesnes, according to Bracton, were in his day inalienable, "*res quasi sacra quæ dari non potest neque vendi neque ad alium transferri a principe.*" So that the King having no power of alienating those lands by which a Barony could be erected, could only regrant a Barony in case of forfeiture or escheat; a state of things necessarily productive of great inconvenience; giving to the existing Barons a control over the sovereign almost inconsistent with the free agency of the crown, and tempting the prince to enforce forfeitures solely in the hope of profiting by the spoil. The two reigns which we have been just considering, offer the best practical comment upon the system. In the first a foreign prince was called in to prevent the establishment of absolute despotism; in the second the country was destined to witness the yet more singular exhibition of a subject wielding the prerogatives of his sovereign, and claiming from his fellow subjects at least a divided allegiance.

To us, who have been accustomed to regard the crown as the unrestricted fountain of honour, conferring dignity wherever it discovered desert, and increasing the number of its hereditary counsellors in proportion to the increased population and opulence of the empire, such a state of things must appear sufficiently anomalous. Yet it must be recollected, that it was no later than the last century, that an attempt was made to renew these fetters by the bill to limit the numbers of the peerage, which was actually assented to by the upper house of parliament, and was only prevented from passing into a law by the resistance of those among the commons, who were unwill-

ing so effectually to close against themselves the avenues to the House of Lords.

It is however from the internal convulsions of the reign of Henry III. during the civil wars with Simon de Montfort, that we are to date the origin of parliamentary writs—directed without exception to all possessed of ancient Baronies, and to such others as the sovereign was pleased to call to his councils. Mr. Selden is of opinion (Blackstone's *Tracts*, § 21.) that some law was then passed for the exclusion of all other tenants in chief from parliament, whose presence might possibly have interrupted the tranquillity of the assembly. From this date therefore, the Barons may be considered as consisting of Barons both by writ and tenure, and Barons by writ only. Such ancient Barons as were entitled to give their attendance in virtue of the possession of feudal Baronies, received their summons by writ, agreeable to the clause in Magna Charta which enforced their rights: whilst others were added to their number who had no possessions that were honorary Baronies, but who attended only in obedience to the writ directed to them. The effect of this writ, and the degree of estate it created in their descendants, will be more properly considered under the title *Barony*.

The Barons continued in this state until the days of Richard II. who, in the eleventh year of his reign, established the first precedent of a Barony by patent, creating thus John Beauchamp de Holt, Lord Beauchamp of Kidderminster: "before whom (says Lord Coke) there was never Baron created by letters patent, but by writ only." This however appears to have been an experiment on the part of the sovereign, to create a peer without the assent of parliament. In the particular instance it was singularly unsuccessful, for Lord Beauchamp, though summoned, never took his seat, but was attainted in that very session as an accomplice of the Duke of Ireland. Indeed, even if he had never been attainted, the patent could not have been allowed, as the great seal was affixed to it by Michael de la Pole, who in the preceding year had been declared incapable of ever holding the seal. The second Baron created by patent was Sir John Cornwall in 10th Henry VI. and in this instance the letters patent are expressed to be made with consent of parliament. And Mr. West, in his celebrated work, "*The Enquiry into the Manner of Making Peers*," has observed, that on inspection of the various creations from 11th Edward III. to 1st Henry VII. he found almost all except such as were grants of escheated feudal honours, to have been made and passed by the authority of, and in full parliament. Henry VII. however, was disposed more amply to assert the rights of the crown, and from his day the power of the sovereign to create peers at pleasure without restriction has never been called into dispute.

In the rolls of parliament, it appears that the higher ranks of the peerage have been conferred by charter; thus, the Countess of Norfolk was created by charter a Duchess for life, 21st Richard II.; this mode, however, does not seem to have been resorted to in the case of Baronies.

In most of the ancient letters patent, an annuity was given to the person ennobled, for the support of his dignity. Thus Mr. Selden mentions that Sir Ralph Botillier, being created Baron of Sudley by Henry VI. had 200 marks annuity given him out of the profits of Lincolnshire, payable by the sheriff of that county.

BARON. It is unnecessary to remark, that this practice has long fallen into desuetude.

A Baron has the title of Right Honourable. His coronation robe is of crimson velvet with two rows of ermine spots. His coronet (according to the grant by patent from Charles II.) a rim of gold having thereon six balls or pearls. Before that time, Barons wore only a cap of ermine velvet turned up with ermine, and on the top a tassel of gold; therefore, in blazoning the arms of the earlier Barons, it is an error to give them any other distinction, although nothing is more common among ignorant heralds, than to adorn their shields from the earliest time with the modern coronet. The parliamentary robe of a Baron is of scarlet cloth lined with white satin, with two rows of miniver on the right side. A Baron may appoint three chaplains.

BARONS OF THE CINQUE PORTS. This name is given not merely to the representatives in the House of commons, but also to all the electors, and even, according to some authorities, to all the male inhabitants of the Cinque Ports. In like manner, according to Matthew Paris, the citizens of London were anciently called Barons, "*cives quoque barones vocantur*." "*Barones sive homines Londini*." The privileges of the Cinque Ports having been extended to Corfe castle by Queen Elizabeth, the members of the corporation there are also styled Barons; and indeed it is doubtful whether all the inhabitants are not entitled to the same distinction. The privilege of supporting the royal canopy at coronations of the kings and queens of England, has belonged to the Barons of the Cinque Ports from a very early period; as that right was counterclaimed by the lords marchers of Wales as early as the coronation of Queen Eleanor, wife to Henry III. They were also formerly allowed on that day to dine at the right hand of the sovereign; but in latter instances this right does not appear to have been enforced. The town of Burford in Shropshire was held of the king *per servicium Baronie*, as appears by an inquisition taken in the 40th Edward III.; from whence the proprietors, though not parliamentary Barons, were called Barons of Burford.

BARONS OF THE EXCHEQUER; the judges of the court of Exchequer are so termed according to Scheldo, (*Titles of Honor*, 2. 5. 16.) because they were anciently appointed from such as were Barons of the kingdom or parliamentary Barons. So also Bracton explains *Magna Charta*, c. xiv. which directs that the Earls and Barons be numbered by their peers; that is, according to the author, by the Barons of the Exchequer. Four judges, one the lord chief Baron, the three others puisne Barons, preside over this court. They are sovereign auditors of the kingdom, and decide in all causes connected with the revenue. Besides these there is a cursor Baron who administers oaths to high sheriffs and his deputies, and all officers of the customs. All the minutest details concerning them may be found in Madox's elaborate *History of the Exchequer*.

BARONY. A Barony in England, as has been already shown, is created either by tenure, writ or patent.

The question whether any territorial Baronies yet continue to exist in England, has often been agitated before the committees of the House of lords, and does not seem yet to have received any satisfactory general solution. In the case of Abergavenny, (Callina, 61.) the decision in the particular instance seems favourable to their continuance; yet when the claim to the

Barony of Fitzwalter was heard before the privy council in 1609, one of the claimants affirming the same to be a Barony by tenure, which ought to accompany the land, "both parties were ordered to withdraw, and the nature of a Barony by tenure being discussed, it was found to have been discontinued for many ages, and not in being, and so not fit to be revived, or to admit any pretence or right of succession thereupon. And the pretence of a Barony by tenure being declared for weighty reasons not to be insisted on, the counsel were called in," &c. &c. (Callina, 387.)

In our own day, however, the question was again agitated, when the claim of Lady Henry Fitzgerald to the Barony of Ros of Hamelake, Trusbut and Belvoir, was argued before the House of lords. On that occasion her ladyship's claim was opposed by the Duke of Rutland on the ground that this was a Barony by tenure; for where an ancient Baron holding a castle of the king is *capite per Baroniam*, was summoned to parliament, his title did not arise from the writ of summons, but from his Baronial estate, and he must be considered a Baron by tenure; now though the Baronies of Hamelake and Trusbut had been alienated by his ancestors, yet the honour and castle of Belvoir had descended from them to himself; and, therefore, though the other Baronies might have been extinguished, yet the Barony of Ros of Belvoir was yet a subsisting dignity annexed to the possession of the Baronial castle. The House of lords, however resolved, "after hearing what had been alleged and proved on the part of the Duke of Rutland, that the said duke was not entitled to the Barony claimed on the part of the coheirs of Robert de Ros."

It would perhaps at the present moment scarcely be respectful to pursue this inquiry further, as the question is about again to undergo a solemn revision before the same tribunal, in consequence of a claim on the part of the Honourable the Clansman Dymock to the territorial Barony of Marmion, which, as he contends, he is entitled to as lord of the manor of Scirelsey.

Baronies by writ, are where the crown issues a writ of summons to a party not a peer, requiring him to give his attendance in Parliament, there to consult with the peers of the realm. This (excepting in the case of spiritual persons) when followed by an actual sitting in parliament, is held to confer the dignity of a Baron, not merely on the party to whom the writ is addressed, but on all his lineal descendants, both male and female. For, says Lord Coke, under such writ his blood is ennobled to him and to his heirs lineal. That a sitting in parliament is necessary to give effect to a writ, is established by the Abergavenny case, 8th Jac. I. in which the question arose, whether Edward Neville, who had been called by writ and died before the parliament met, was a Baron or not. It was resolved by the chancellor, the two chief justices, and other justices then present, "that the delivery of the writ did not make him noble until he came to parliament and there sat; for until that, the writ did not take effect." It has never, however, been sufficiently explained why, in the case of writ, such importance should be attached to the sitting, while under a patent it is regarded as wholly immaterial: an occasion of the judgment last alluded to, in the reasons offered, it is observed, that until a sitting, "the writ might be countermanded by a *supercedens*, or the said Edward Neville might have excused himself to the king, or he might have waived

BARONY. it and submitted to his fine, as one who is distressed to be a knight." (Lord Abergavenny's case, 1 Inst. 15.)

There is however yet another reason, which, as far as we know, has never yet been suggested, and is, therefore, advanced with some diffidence, though to us it certainly furnishes a more satisfactory solution of the apparent difficulty than those hitherto brought forward. Mr. West, as already stated, (*tit. Baron regis*) has shown that almost all the creations from Edward III. to Henry VII. were made and passed by the authority of and in full parliament. It would appear then, that at least, at that period, something more than the king's pleasure was necessary to constitute a peer—namely that the peers themselves should assent to the reception of the party newly ennobled. This assent would properly be given at the time he took his seat; and it is not perhaps a very rash conjecture, that this was the true reason why such importance attached to the sitting, which thus gave confirmation and validity to the royal intentions.

A Barony by *erit*, where there are no words of limitation, is held to descend to the heir-general; and there is only one instance in which it was ever otherwise limited; viz. Henry Bromfielde, who was summoned as Baron de Vesey in 37th Henry VI. the words of the writ being "*vobiscum vos et heredes vestros mascululos de corpore vestro*." In all other cases, the descent of a Barony by *erit*, has been directed by the rules of the descent of other inheritances at common law, except in two particulars: first, that the half blood is no impediment, consequently the half brother is preferred to the sister; and secondly, that as honours are not divisible, if there be two coheirs, the title is in abeyance or suspended until the king is pleased to determine in favour of one, because among females primogeniture does not prevail. A dignity, originally descendible to heirs general, may however be entailed on heirs male, and such was the circumstance in the great case of the Earldom of Oxford 1626, where Robert de Vere claimed under the entail, and Lord Willoughby de Eresby as heir general. The language of lord chief justice Crewe, in delivering the opinion of the judges, is so admirable and so eloquent, that its brilliancy is well calculated to enliven the dulness of a mere legal disquisition.

"This great and weighty issue, incomparable to any other that has happened at any time, requires great deliberation, and solid and mature judgment to determine it. Here is represented to your lordships *certainem honoris*—illustrious honour. I heard a great peer of this realm and a learned, say, when he lived there was no King in Christendom had such a subject as Oxford. He came in with the Conqueror; made great chamberlain by Henry I; by Maud, Earl of Oxford; confirmed and approved by Henry Fitz-Empress, (*Alicie Comite*), so Earl before. This great honour, this high and noble dignity hath continued ever since in the remarkable surname of De Vere, by so many ages, descents and generations, as no other kingdom can produce such a peer in one and the self-same name and title."—"I have laboured to make a covenant with myself that affection may not press upon judgment. For I suppose there is no man that hath any apprehension of great or nobleness, but his affection stands to the continuance of so noble a name and house, and would take hold of a twig or twine-thread to uphold it. And yet time hath his revolutions; there must be a period

and an end to all temporal things—*finis rerum*—an end of names and dignities and whatsoever is terrene. And why not of De Vere? for where is Bohun? where is Mowbray? where is Mortimer? nay, which is more and most of all, where is Plantagenet? They are entombed in the urns and sepulchres of mortality. And yet let the name and dignity of De Vere stand so long as it pleaseth God."

The House of lords (after this magnificent appeal could they have done otherwise?) resolved *seniue dissentiente*, that the Earldom of Oxford was descended, and ought of right to go to the heir male. (*Journals*, 32 March 1625-6.)

There is one species of Barony by *erit* which is somewhat anomalous, and requires a separate consideration; where the crown calls up the eldest son of a peer of higher rank, by the name of a Barony vested in his father. In this case it operates as no new creation, but may rather be regarded as a temporary transfer of a pre-existing title: for the son, instead of being deemed the lowest peer, is placed in the rank of his father's Barony. This, therefore, must not be treated like other Baronies by *erit*, but must descend according to the limitations of the original creation.

Baronies by *patent* may be either for life or by a special remainder either to females or collaterals, but they are most commonly given with remainder only to the heirs male of the body of the first grantee. Lord Coke gives a whimsical reason why the crown may create a party noble for life but not for years; because he says, it then might go to executor or administrator. He also lays down, that, in creations by *patent*, the state of inheritance must be limited by apt words, else the grant is void.

In modern practice, all Baronies are created by *patent*, probably as the most effectual means of giving immediate operation to the sovereign's will; because the party thus becomes immediately ennobled, even before he takes his seat in parliament, which in the case of *erit* as has been shown above, is an absolute and indispensable preliminary.

BARON AND FEME. This is the old legal appellation of husband and wife. The effects to law consequent on the entering into this relation will be most appropriately considered under the article COVERTURE. The words are also used in *Heraldry*, to express the blazoning of the arms of husband and wife on each side of an *impalement*.

BARONET. An hereditary dignity in Great Britain and Ireland, next in rank to the peerage; originally instituted by King James I. on the twenty-second of May 1611. Baronets are created by patent under the great seal, and the honour is generally given to the grantee and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten; though sometimes, in case of a failure of immediate issue it is entailed on collaterals. It is said that this rank was instituted at the suggestion of the chancery, Lord Bacon; and the first among those elevated to it was Sir Nicholas Bacon, of Reigrevy, Suffolk, whose descendant is at this day premier Baronet of England. According to Cecil. In the preamble of the original patent the sovereign declared, that the principal object in the new creation was to obtain aid "*de plantatione regni nostri Hibernie ac potissimum Ulonie*," and required that each newly created Baronet should pay into the exchequer sufficient for the main-

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tenance of thirty soldiers in Ireland, after the rate of eight pence sterling per diem, for the space of three years. This of itself amounted to a sum little short of £1100., exclusive of the fees due to the officers on passing the patent; so that as the original number of those created amounted to two hundred, a mode was thus devised by which a sum exceeding £300,000., was brought into the royal coffers. In the original instructions given to the commissioners, who were appointed to superintend the patents, the king requires his "treasurer of England so to order this receipt as no part thereof be mixed with our other treasure, but kept apart by itself to be wholly converted to that use to which it is given and intended." The sovereign, on his part, engaged that they should not exceed two hundred in number; and after the said number should be completed, if any, for want of heir male, should be extinct, there should never any more be created in their room, but that the title should diminish to the honour of those remaining. (Gwillim, p. 176.) King James does not appear himself to have infringed very seriously upon the limits which he thus assigned to his prerogative, as at the end of his reign 305 patents only had been granted; but the singular good faith with which his successors have observed the royal promise, pledged "tam contra nos, heredes et successores nostros, quam contra omnes alios quoscunque, secundum veram intentionem," will be sufficiently apparent to those who are at the trouble of referring to the modern list, by which it appears, that, exclusive of extinctions, and of those instances in which this dignity is merged in a peerage, the present actual number of Baronets in England alone is 661. Precedency is given to Baronets before all knights, except those of the garter, banners created in the field under the royal standard displayed, and privy counsellors. And a controversy afterwards arising between them and the younger sons of viscounts and Barons, the question was solemnly argued in the king's presence, and determined against the Baronets. The sovereign, however, has distinctly stipulated that no new honour shall ever be created between themselves and the peerage, an engagement which has hitherto been scrupulously observed. They take place among themselves according to the priority of their patents. In all commissions, writs, and other deeds, the style of Baronet is the legal addition to be placed at the end of their surnames, "in fine nominis;" hence the distinction in law between the style of an acquire (A. B. of C. esq.) and of a Baronet (Sir A. B. bart. of C.) for it is presumed that, by the words of this patent, to say Sir Nicholas Bacon, of Redgrave, bart. instead of Sir N. B. bart. of Redgrave, would be insufficient, and would vitiate the instrument in which it was employed.

Baronets bear in their coat armour as an honourable augmentation, either in a banner or an escutcheon of pretence, the arms of the ancient kings of Ulster, being *dryst, a hand sinister, couped at the wrist, extended in pale gules*. In the king's army they have place near the royal standard, and are allowed peculiar solemnities for their funerals. The addition of Sir is at all times to be prefixed, in English, to their names; and the titles Lady, Madam, and Dame, "respectu secundum suum loquendi," are to be given to their wives, who

are among women to enjoy the same precedence to which their husbands are entitled among men.

Baronets and their eldest sons attaining their majority may claim knighthood, on signifying their wishes to the lord chamberlain; and if a Baronet be named at an installation as proxy for a knight of the Bath, it appears essential that he should be knighted for the occasion; thus Sir George Osborne, bart. was knighted by King George III. As there is no court in which the right of a party claiming to be a Baronet can be solemnly determined, except the courts of honour, some abuses have probably crept in, and some parties titiviously enjoy the rank, whose claims upon investigation might appear more than dubious. Thus, if an English title is conferred on a Scotchman who has children born before marriage by her who becomes afterwards his wife, those children, though legitimated within Scotland, are yet incapable of inheriting an English honour; yet where the title would otherwise be extinct, and no collateral heir is interested in counter-claiming it, instances are not wanting to which the descendants have silently, though improperly, been recognized as English Baronets.

The Baronets of Nova Scotia were instituted by King Charles I. 28th May 1625, for advancing the plantation at Nova Scotia, in like manner as those of England for the province of Ulster; and their patents were ratified in the Scotch parliament. The precedence, &c. given, was the same as that of those advanced to the same honour in England, excepting a reservation of special precedence to Sir William Alexander, his majesty's lieutenant of Nova Scotia, and his heirs. The sovereign covenanted that the number of Baronets should never exceed 150 (albeit, adds Sir George Mackenzie, this number is at present somewhat augmented). In the year 1629, the king, by letter to his privy council, allowed these Baronets a particular cognizance, viz. that they might carry about their necks in all time coming, an orange tawny silk ribbon, whereon shall hang pendant in an escutcheon argent, a saltire azure thereon, an escutcheon azure of the arms of Scotland, with an imperial crown above the escutcheon, encircled with this motto, "*Fax mea est honeste Gloria*." It appears that this was a slight alteration of the original cognizance, which they were directed to bear in their arms, as mention is there made of a crest, "being a branch of laurel and a thistle issuing from two bands conjoined, the one being armed, the other naked, with this motto (*deus*), the thing said, the same as we now call motto) "*Mundus hinc est altera circi*." The premier baronet of Scotland, at present, is Sir Richard Strachan; and the number of the order, exclusive of such titles as are merged in peerages, is 135. Since the Union, it is considered that the power of the king to create new Baronets within Scotland has ceased.

The Baronets of Ireland were first instituted by King James, 30th September 1619; and are in all respects similar to those of England, bearing the arms of Ulster for their augmentation. The premier is Sir Charles Coote, and their number consists at present of 94. Since the Union in 1801, none have been created otherwise than as Baronets of the united kingdom. In Ireland, an hereditary dignity somewhat similar to knighthood, appears to have been occasionally conferred even in the earliest times; and the knights of Kerry and of Glyn are yet permitted to bear

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BARO. a distinction bestowed on their ancestors by the indigenous sovereigns of the country.

BARO. It was proposed during the late reign, that the Barons of England and Ireland should humbly petition the crown to be permitted to wear on their persons a decoration as well as those of Nova Scotia; but the suggestion did not receive much encouragement, even from those in whose honour it was devised, and a meeting of Barons held on the occasion dissolved without taking any step in furtherance of the plan.

BARQUISIMETO, a city of South America, in the province of Venezuela, founded in 1552 by the Spaniards, after they had dispossessed the Indians of the ground upon which it stands. It is situated on an elevated plain, about 120 miles west-south-west of Caracas. The heat of the climate is mitigated by the coolness of frequent breezes; and particularly those from the north-east, which are the most prevalent. When this ceases, Fahrenheit's thermometer generally rises to 82 or 84 degrees. The surrounding country is greatly diversified. The plains afford good pasturage, and cattle of all kinds are reared in considerable numbers. Sugar-cane is also cultivated, and wheat is grown in several districts, while coffee is produced on the sides of the hills. Cacao of good quality is likewise abundantly raised in most of these vales. The population of this town has been lately stated to be between 11,000 and 12,000; and its appearance gives a good idea of the ease and affluence in which many of them live. The streets are both wide and straight, and allow the air to circulate freely. Many of the houses are good buildings, and the church is a handsome structure. From the favourable position and fertile neighbourhood of this town, there can be little doubt but the late change in the government of this part of America, will increase its prosperity.

BARRA, a kingdom of western Africa, at the borders of the Gambia, about eighteen leagues in length, and fourteen in breadth. Its population, which is chiefly Mandingo, amounts to 200,000 souls. The principal trade of the inhabitants is salt, which they carry up the river, and bring down in return Indian corn, cotton, cloth, elephant's teeth, and small quantities of gold dust. On Dog's island, which is environed by the Gambia, the English had a settlement till they were driven out. It is now desert and uncultivated. The principal towns are Berrington, occasionally the residence of the king. Alreda, a French factory. Tilliprey, an English factory (Latitude 13° 16' N. Longitude 16° 2' W.) and Jankata, in a low marshy country. The Portuguese, who peopled many villages, have mixed with the natives and lost their colour. Upon James's island, a flat barren rock, about a mile in circumference, is an English settlement, defended by a fort built in 1664.

BARRA, or **BARAV**, one of a chain among the western islands of Scotland, annexed as a parochial district to Inverness-shire. Lat. 57° 9' N. long. 7° 30' W. It is eight miles in length, and from two to four in breadth, being intersected in many places by arms of the sea. On the east coast great quantities of cod and ling are caught; and on a large sand bank at the north end cockles are abundant; a food, which in times of scarcity has more than once supported the inhabitants. During two successive years nearly two hundred horse-loads of these fish were taken at low water, every day of the spring tides, in the months of

May, June, July, and August. The shells are exported to make mortar. Barra has many good harbours. In one of them, Castle bay, is an ancient hexagonal fort, built upon a rock, which was long the residence of the lairds of Barra. The island belongs to the family of McNeil, whose predecessors are said to have possessed it before the invasion of the Danes. The population exceeds 2000, chiefly Roman Catholics, who observe the twenty-fifth of September, the festival of their tutelary saint, St. Bar, with great devotion. An image of the saint, in the church-yard of Shellar, the principal place of worship, is clothed in a fine linen shirt on the anniversary. The general appearance of the island is barren. It abounds in druidical remains. The communication between Barra and the adjoining island, Benbecula, at low water, is so little interrupted that they are both sometimes comprehended under the name of Long island. The Gaelic is said to be spoken more purely in Barra than in any other place.

BARRACK. This word is not found in our early lexicographers. Perhaps from *barricado*, *barrique*, *barrack*. See **BARRICADE**.

The subject of the girl's letter was, that a young lady of good fortune was courted by an Irishman, who pretended to be *barrack-master* general of Ireland.

Swift, *Letters*.

Like ours it should wholly be composed of natural subjects; it ought only to be enlisted for a short and limited time; the soldiers also should live intermixed with the people; no separate camp, no barracks, no island fortresses should be allowed.

Blackstone, *Commentaries*, 414.

BARRATOR, } A Cimbric *barrotas*, battle, fight, strife, contention, which ward is even now in use *apud Gotho-Itales*. But from the Danon-Norman *barot*, our lawyers have *barrator*, *barratry*. Hicks. Skinner thinks that a *barrator* is one who harnesses the *bar* or court with importunate litigations.

Al is del, a's there no sigts
There u's barot neither strif,
N'a ther no death, ne ever lif,
There nis lac of met, no cloth.

Hicks, l. 251. *Or. Anglo-Sax.*

Noble fathers, I am such a person, whom ye know have been a common *barrator* and thence by a long space of years.

Sir Tho. Elgot. *The Governour*, p. 150.

And that none of our said sovereigns subjects, claim, and desire, in any time hereafter title or right by the said Bishop of Rome, or his sect, to say thing within this realm, under the pains of heretie, that is to say, proscription, banishment, and never to brook, and enjoy honour, office, nor dignity within this realm.

Knex. *History of the Reformation*, vol. 274.

Common *barratry* is the offence of frequently exciting and stirring up suits and quarrels between his majesty's subjects, either at law or otherwise. If the offender belongs to the profession of the law, a *barrator*, who is thus able as well as willing to do mischief, ought also to be disabled from practising for the future.

Blackstone, *Commentaries*, lib. 134.

BARRATOR, or **BARREROT**, a person guilty of the crime of *harratry* or *barratry*. The term is applied to two very different offences. A *barrator* is defined by Lord Coke (8 Rep. 37.) to be "a common mover and maintainer of suits, in disturbance of the peace." This exciting and fomenting of litigious quarrels is an offence by common law, and punishable by fine and imprisonment; and, if the *barrator* be an attorney (no very improbable case) a statute of the 13th George I.

BARRA
—
BARRA
TUR.

BARRA-
TOR.
—
BARREN.

provides that he shall be incapacitated from practising for the future, under pain of seven years' transportation.

In *Maritime Law*, *Barratry* denotes any fraudulent act committed by the master or mariners, to the prejudice of the owners of the vessel. This is not an offence generally punishable by law; but several specific acts of *barratry* have been declared to be offences by different acts of parliament. A loss of a ship by *barratry* is one of the risks insured against by underwriters. "It is extraordinary," says Lord Ellenborough, in giving judgment in the case of *Earle v. Rowcroft*, (8 *East*, 134) "that this species of loss, occasioned by the misconduct of the master, selected and appointed as he is by the owners themselves, and liable to be dismissed by them only, should have been made the subject of insurance; and it is the more so, as it has an impolitic tendency to enable the master and owners, by a fraudulent and secret contrivance and understanding between themselves, to throw the ill success of an illegal adventure, of which the benefit, if successful, would have belonged solely to themselves, upon the underwriters. So, however, it is, that this description of loss has, from the earliest times, held its place as a subject of indemnity in British policies of insurance."

BARR'EL, *v.* } *Fr. barril*; *It. barile*; *Sp. barril*.
BARR'EL, *n.* } *Junius* says, perhaps from *barre*,
repagulum; (see *To Bar*) because liquids are held or
contained in a cask, *quasi* in *quodam arapagulo*; as if
under bar; or in a stout, strong vessel.

Applied also to the hollow of a gun; of the ear, &c.
Some whole people love tallow better than butter, & instead
loath no butter till it be long *barrilled*.

See Thomas More's Works, fol. 74.

Our hoste saide; as I am faithful man,
And by the precious corpus bludinus,
I hadde lever than a *barrill* of ale,
That goodle love my wif had herde this tale.

Chaucer. The Monkes Prologue, v. 13990.

And he seide an hundred *barrils* of oyle, and he seide to him take
this caution, and sitte doone and wryte *thy*.
Wicliif. Luke, chap. xvi.

Now as touching the dates that he *barrilled* up and kept, they
be such only as come from salt and sandie grounds, as in *Jurie*,
and *Cyrenaica* in *Affricke*.
Holland's Plinio, l. 388.

Newe ale, if it runne not over the *barril* when it is newe tunned,
will soon lease his pike and his head as he be longe drawn on.
Archard. Thuropholus.

The parliament, in part of recompence, settled on him, his
heirs and successors, for ever, the hereditary excise of fifteen
pence per *barril* on all beer and ale sold in the kingdom, and
a proportionable sum for certain other liquors.

Blackstone. Commentaries, l. 288.

King was resolved to concenter his solennes, and at the
expense of a few *barrils* of ale filled the neighbourhood with
honest merriment.
Johnson. Life of King.

BARR'EN, } *Fr. breigne*. See *Ménage*.
BARR'ENLY, } *Barren*, i. e. *barr-ed*, stopt, shut,
BARR'ENNESS, } strongly closed up, which cannot be
opened, from which can be no fruit nor issue. *Tooke*,
ll. 82. See *To Bar*.

Thou Element o'ke womens love to helie,
To *barriv* loath, their wates may not dwellie.

Chaucer. The Wif of Bathes Prologue, v. 5965.

She may unto a knowe child attaine
By lykelyhod, sin she is not *barrivine*.

Id. The Clerkes Tale, v. 8315.

For there that no werres made,
Because it was *barriv* and power,
Whereof shal night ought recover.
Gower. Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 6. c. iv.

And thri haddes no child, for *Elisabeth* was *barriv* and bothe
weren of greet age in her days.
Wicliif. Luk. chap. i.

In the tyme whyle *Helias* was *hyuyng*, whan by the continual
space of thre yeres full, and six monethes, thre laddre fallen
drowe so rayre from *heaven* and the *barrivenece* of the yearls by
read theof, had oppressed all the quarters thereabout with great
famine.
Uttill. Luke, cap. ix.

He [God] destroyed the rivers, and dryed up the springes of
water, and turned y^r fruitful land into *barrivenece*, for the wicked-
nesse of the inhabitants therin.
Tyndall's Werkes, fol. 118.

Without the evening dew and show'r,
The earth would be a *barriv* place,
Of trees and plants, of herbs, and flow'r,
To crown her now enamel'd face.
Charles Cotton. An Ode.

Let those whom Nature hath not made for store,
Harsh, featureless, and rude, *barriv*ly perish:
Look whom she best endow'd, she gave the more;
Which bounteous gift thou should'st in bounty cherish.
Shakespeare. Sonnet xl.

Amongst the *Jewes* *barrivenece* was not a defect only, but a
reproach, yet while this good woman was fruitful of holy obe-
dience, she was *barriv* of children.
Sp. Hall. Cont. The Angel and Zacharie.

Thus in our outward condition, so long and constant a pro-
pensity is wont to make the soul *barriv* of all, but such wanton-
ness, as it is ill to be fruitful of, and the interposition of reasonable
afflictions is as necessary, and advantageous, as it can be avail-
come.
Boyle. Occasional Reflections.

But I found at length, that this happy region was inhabited by
the goddess of liberty, whose presence softened the rigours of the
climate, enriched the *barrivness* of the soil, and more than repa-
ried the absence of the sun.
Tatler, No. 161.

Long through the sky's wide pathless way
The Muse observ'd the wand'ring stray,
And mark'd her last retreat;
O'er *Serpy's* *barriv* heath the flow,
Descending like the silent dew,
On *Euboe's* peaceful seat.

Moore. The Discovery.

The *barrivness* of his fellow-students forced him generally into
other company at his hours of entertainment, and among the
varieties of conversation through which his curiosity was daily
wandering, he, by chance, mingled at a tavern with some intel-
ligent officers of the army.
Johnson. The Rambler, No. 19.

BARRERIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class
Pentandria, order *Monogynia*. Generic character:
calyx quinquecostate; corolla rotata, divisioni scroli-
culate; filamentis dilatis; antheris tetralobis, margi-
nate, margins coherens.

The only species of this genus is the *B. theobroma-
folia*, a tree of about fifty feet in height, a native of
Cayenne. Aublet. *Plantes de la Guiane*, tab. 47.

BARRICA'DE, *v.* }
BARRICA'DE, *n.* } All probably from the verb,
BARRICA'DO, *v.* } To *barr*, to stop up, to block
BARRICA'DO, *n.* } up, to fortify, to obstruct. See
BARRICO, }
BARRIES. } To *Bar*.

And made also, by workmen that were true
Barbicans and bulwarks strong and new
Barriers, chains, and ditchen wonder deepe
Making his snow, the city fire to keep.
Lilgate. The Story of Thebes, fol. 384. c. iii.

BARREN.
—
BARRI-
CADE.

BARR-
CALE.BARR-
RING-
TONIA.

The constable and marshal came to the *barriers*, demanding of him what he was; he answered I am Henry of Lancaster Duke of Hereford.

Hald. King Henry IV. fol. 3.

Sir Thomas Scroton, lord admiral, accompanied with Desclous, sir Antoine Kyngston, sir Peter Carew, Knowles, & Shelley, were challengours against all persons defendants, at tilt, *barriers*, and turney; wherein they behaved them selves like valiant men of armes.

Falgon. Chronicle, Ann. 1546.

The same day were called to a place where hosts might land, & I went a land in my shiffe, and found the Indians, and Frenchmen which were with mee the day before, and they brought our three *barriers* full of fresh water; for which I rewarded them with some trifles.

Blackleg. Voyages, M. Ed. Fenton.

The same night our captain determined to goe up with our shippes, but it fell so calme, that all the next day mornight we could not get up, and they having discerned us, *baricaded* up their way, and conveyed all that they had into the mountains.

Id. Voyages, fr. M. Christoph. Newport.

The shot of their army flanked upon both sides of the bridge, the further and further was *baricaded* with *barrells*; but they who should have parried the same, seeing the proud approach we made, forsook the defence of the *barrecois*.

Id. Voyages. The Portugal Voyage.

Howbeit, they adventured all of them most boldly to approach the place, and found the foot-wain over-layed with holmes and axes cast downe, yea, and a mightie *barrecois* made against them.

Holland. Annuaire, fol. 50.

Turnies, juts, *barriers*, & other warlike exercises, which young lords and gentlemen hadde appointed for their pastimes in divers parts of the realme, were forbidden by the king's proclamations.

Rome. Ann. 1501, lib. 1.

The young earl of Essex, and others among them, entertain'd her majesty with tiltings and turnies, *barriers*, mock-fights, and such-like artes, as in publick are wont to render men popular.

Gley. Life of Sir W. Raleigh, fol. 331.

But, since we had a prince professing another religion, it seemed the only security that was left to the nation, and that the state stood as a *barrier* to defend us from popery.

Burnet. History of his Own Times, v. ii. p. 320.

Till fear, that braver fruits performs
That ever courage dar'd in arms,
Has drawn him up before a pass,
To stand upon his guard, and face:
Thus he courageously invaded,
And having enter'd, baricaded.

Butler. Hudibras, part iii. c. i.

Team follows team, crowds heap'd on crowds appear
And wait impatient till the road grows clear,
Now all the pavement sounds with trampling feet,
And the mid'd hurry *baricades* the street.

Gay. Trivia, book iii.

If we are not constantly strengthening the *barriers* opposed to our passions, by successively accumulating one good principle upon another, they will grow weaker every day, and expose us to the hazard of some sudden and violent overthrow.

Porteus. Sermon 4. vol. 2.

BARRINGTONIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class Monadelphina, order Polyandria. Generic character: calyx of two leaves superior; petals four, drupa dry, large, quadrangular; nut quadrilocular.

The *B. speciosa*, the only species, is one of the most magnificent productions of the vegetable kingdom. It is a native of the tropical regions of Asia, the Moluccas, Society, and Friendly islands. The trunk of this tree is lofty, straight, and of considerable diameter; the bark ash-brown, smooth, and furrowed. The branches wide-spreading, cylindrical, and leafy at their extremities. The flowers are large and white, interspersed with purple. The nuts are found to produce the same effects on fish as the *Cocculus Indicus*. See Cook's *Voyages*, l. p. 157, tab. 24.

BARRISTER. Perhaps from Fr. *barreau*, *barre*, and *ester*, to stay, remain, or continue. Applied to One who takes his station, stays, remains or continues at the *bar*; (sc.) to plead causes, &c.

BARR-
RISTER.BARR-
ROW.

Yes, and many times, when we have a cause to be tried in the law, we choose not always the most sufficient and expert advocates or *barriers* for our counsel to plead for us; but for to gratify a some of some familiar friend or kinsman of our own, we commit the cause to him for he practices and learns to plead in court, to our great cost and loss.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 138.

Jollie of this state.

Then are new-benefit'd ministers, he throws
Like nets or lime-twigs whereso'er he goes,
His title of *barrier* on a lady's ear,
And woos in language of the Fines and Bench.
..... Words, words which would taste
The tender labyrinth of a maid's soft ear.

Dunne. Sat. ii.

No young divine, new-benefit'd, can be
More pert, more proud, more positive, than he:
What further could I wish the fop to do,
But turn a wit, and scribble verses too?
Purce the soft labyrinth of a lady's ear,
With rhymes of this per cent, and that per year?
Or court a wife, spread out his wily parts,
Like nets or lime-twigs, for rich widows' hearts;
Call himself *barrier* to every wench,
And woo in language of the Fines and Bench?

Pope. Imitation of Dunne.

This being reveal'd, they now began
With law and conscience to fall on,
And had about as hot and trim-sick,
As 't' after *barrier* of Swanwick.

Butler. Hudibras, pt. iii. c. ii.

The degrees were those of *barriers*, (first styled apprentices, from apprentices, to learn,) who answered to our *baristers*: as the state and degree of a serjeant did to that of doctor.

Blackstone. Com. l. 22.

BARRISTER, an advocate or counsellor, who has been regularly admitted, by one of the four Inns of Court, viz. Inner Temple, Middle Temple, Lincoln's Inn, or Gray's Inn, to plead at the bar. Before a student can be admitted to the bar, he must have been a member of one of those societies, and have kept terms there, for five, or, if he be a master of arts of either of the universities of Cambridge, Oxford, or Dublin, for three years. Twelve public disquisitions, or legal theses, were formerly required; but these have now dwindled into mere forms. *Barriers* are also called *serfs*, or *outer barriers*, to distinguish them from *serjeants* and king's counsel, who sit within the bar in the courts. They are also styled, in the old books, *apprentici ad legem*, as being still but *apprenticed* to the profession, to the highest grade of which—that of serjeant, or *serjeants ad legem*—they could not be admitted until they had sat without the bar through an apprenticeship of sixteen years.

The duties of a counsel are honorary, and he can maintain no action for his fees, which are considered as a gratuity, and not as a hire, and which cannot be demanded by a *barrier* without doing wrong to his reputation.

BARRROW. A. S. *berrow*; Fr. *berrotte*, (q. d. *roulette*, rota, Minshew.) from the verb, to bear. Skinner.

FAL. Go, fetch me a quart of sack, put a nut in't. Have I be'd to be carried in a basket like a *barrow* of butcher's offal? and to be thrown in the Thames?

Shakespeare. Merry Wives of Windsor, fol. 52.

BARROW. BARROW. A boare hog made a barren hog.
Mioshew.

His life was like a barrow hogge,
That liveth many a day,
Yet never once doth any good,
Until some will him slay.
The Jew of France. In Percy, l. 224.

And therefore take my words thus, that I mean no other swine
but such as feed and root in the field : among which, the female,
especially, a gueil that never ferrows, is more effectual than a
(same) bore, barrow hog, or a breeding sow.

Holland. Plots, li. 319.

All persons of gentle breeding, (I say gentle, though this barrow
grunt at the word,) I know will apprehend, and be satisfied in
what I speak, how unpleasing and discontenting the society of
body must needs be between those whose minds cannot be
sociable.

Milton. Coleridge.

BARROW, or as in the west of England it is written
and pronounced, BOWROW, (see *Barlase's Cornwall*), a
sepulchral mound, from the Saxon byrig, to hide or
bury, or as others give it, from beorg, a heap. The
Barrow is the most ancient and the most general of all
memorials to the dead. In Grecian history, (for we
must accept Homer as the *historian* of the siege of
Troy), the earliest Barrow of which we read is that
formed over the remains of Patroclus. The poet men-
tions with precision the rounding the circumference
of the heap, and the piling earth upon the ashes
deposited in it. (*Il. v. 255.*) That of Achilles, which
he describes in the beginning of the last book of the
Odyssey, still exists, as it was originally designed to
be, a distant sea-mark.

'Αντί του σπηραίου δὲι μαρτὶ Ἐλαιοπόλεως
Τοῦ δὲ σπηραίου δὲι μαρτὶ Ἐλαιοπόλεως
Τοῦ δὲ σπηραίου δὲι μαρτὶ Ἐλαιοπόλεως
Οἱ δὲ σπηραίου δὲι μαρτὶ Ἐλαιοπόλεως

Οἱ δὲ σπηραίου δὲι μαρτὶ Ἐλαιοπόλεως

The Barrow of Ægyptus, in Arcadia, which Homer
likewise mentions in passing, (*Il. β. 603.*) is more
fully described by Pausanias. (*Arc. xvi.*) To this
last writer also we may refer for notices, among
others, of the Barrow of Icarus, raised on the spot of
his fall, (*Bac. xl.*) ; and that of Amphion and Zethus,
who were interred together. (*Id. xvii.*) Perhaps first
in order we should have cited the Barrow of Ægyptus,
upon which the Trojan reconnoiterer, Polites, was
wrot to take his observations, (*Il. β. 793.*) ; and the
lofty mound without the walls of Ilion, called by meo
Hæstius, but by the immortals, who knew better, the
monument of the swift-footed Myrina. (*Id. 813.*)

The lovers of Hippodamia, who were conquered in
the race by their fleet mistress, reposed under a Barrow
near the fatal course. (*Paus. Corinth. xvi.*) Lains
and his servant warned the passing traveller not to
dispute the right of road by the huge cairns (σπηραίοι)
which marked the spot of their unhappy murder.
(*Phoc. v.*) Not less than 2353 years after its
formation, an English traveller discovered and took
the measurement of the Barrow of Alyattes, which
was raised within five miles of the capital of his
empire. This stupendous monument was visited near
Sart, the ancient Sardis, by Dr. Chandler, in 1764 :
and though the base was concealed by mould which
had been washed down by the rains, the dimensions
corresponded with sufficient accuracy to those given
by Herodotus. It was more than three quarters of
a mile in circuit : and its huge size bore lasting evidence
to the wretched altitudes and the kind compliance of
the Lydian fair. (*Herod. l. 93.*)

By the Athenian laws, the burning of the dead BARROW.
within the city was rigidly forbidden ; and various pro-
visions were made to diminish the expense and mag-
nificence of funeral rites. Cæcrops had prescribed
inhumation. The earth was heaped on the dead by
the nearest relations, and corn was then sown on the
Barrow, in order, as it was said, that while the
deceased lay in the bosom of the common mother, the
living also might not be deprived of the blessings
which spring from it. (*Cic. de Leg. ii. 25.*)

Perhaps there is no picture in classical history which
is finished with more vivid touches, than the discov-
ery of the remains of the Varian legions by the army
under Germanicus. The scene of the defeat of the
Roman commander is still to be recognised near the
old town of Horn, in Westphalia. On the confines of
Paderborn stands the fearful wood of Teuteberg, or
Lippe ; and close by it, on a level expanse of swamp,
is a spot even now bearing the name of *Wiefeldt*, or of
Victory. It was here that, six years after the destruc-
tion of the three legions, the ample dimensions of
their regularly formed works, pointed to their avenger
the scite on which his fellow-soldiers had first pitched
their camp. Not far from this a rude sodium and
shallow fosse declared the useless bravery of the
small remnant on the second day's combat. In the
midst, bones, whitened by exposure, either scattered
or piled in heaps, spoke the common fate of those
who fought and those who fled ; and to crowd the
horror of the many memorials of defeat, every tree
bore some ghastly skull, fixed as a trophy, on its
boughs. So distinctly marked was every several spot
in this ill-fated field, that the soldiers of Germanicus
almost imagined that they could shew the precise
place on which each of their more noted countrymen
had fallen. At one point they saw the capture of their
eagles ; at another the first wound of Varus ; here,
said they, he fell by his own hand ; on that eminence
the bloody Arminius pronounced sentence on the
chief centurions, who were finally massacred near
yon barbaric altars. The sole alleviation which was
permitted, to their grief and shame was the erection of
such a monument as the time and circumstances
would allow. The bones of all whom a common mis-
fortune had linked as in the consanguinity of a single
family were indiscriminately covered with a Barrow,
on which Germanicus with his own hand placed the
first turf. [*Tac. Annal. l. 61. 2.*]

The Scythians buried their kings in the district inha-
bited by the Gœrri, in a spot beyond which the
Borysthenes ceased to be navigable. On the decease
of the monarch, his body having been embalmed and
wrapped in cere cloth, was placed on a car, and car-
ried from tribe to tribe, through the wide extent of
the royal dominions. Each separate people received
it with lively demonstrations of mourning. Some
washed their arms and foreheads, or mutilated their
ears and noses : others shaved their heads, and trans-
fixed the palms of their left hands with arrows. When
the body arrived at the place of sepulture, it was
buried in a deep square pit ; upright spears were fixed
round it ; and upon cross beams, which connected these,
a roof of hurdles, was raised. One of the royal co-
achmen, the principal ministers of the household, and
some favourite horses, were then put to death, and laid
in the same tomb. Various utensils, and especially
golden cups, were deposited over the bodies ; and the

BARROW, rites being fitly performed, a huge Barrow was heaped over the dead. The height to which the mound was raised, was proportionate to the honour intended to be paid to the deceased.

The remaining ceremonies, so curiously described by Herodotus, (iv. 72.) which were performed on the anniversary of the funeral, do not belong to our present subject: but we would remark, that the steeples of Tatar are thickly covered with Barrows; some of which no doubt are among those to which the accurate historian refers. In all which have been opened, the bodies have been found laid in a direction towards the east or south-east. In the second volume of the *Archæologia*, (p. 262.) a Tatarian Barrow is mentioned, in which two corpses were discovered, wrapped in four sheets of gold. The weight of the precious metal amounted to forty pounds. Governor Pownall, in his interesting paper on the famous Irish Barrow at New Grange, (*Archæol.* ii. 236.) states, on the authority of M. de Stehlin, secretary to the Imperial Academy at St. Petersburg, that no Barrows are found in Tataria north of lat. 58°.

The Barrow of New Grange above referred to, is in the county of Meath. It consists of small pebbles. The base covers two acres of land; its circumference at top is 300 feet, and its height is 70. In the year 1699, an entrance was discovered to a gallery within this enormous mound. The opening, covered by a broad flat stone, does not exceed three feet in width by two in height, and even these narrow dimensions are soon reduced. This passage, sixty-two feet in length, leads into a cave, which intersects the gallery transversely, so as to form a cross. The length and height of the cave each way is twenty feet, the breadth eleven feet six inches. The roofing is composed of long flat stones, disposed like inverted steps, and capped with a single flat mass. In each arm of the cave is an oval basin.

In Scotland, Northumberland, Wales, and Cornwall, Barrows generally consist, in like manner, of loose stones, and are denominated *cairns* (*karnen*, *karnedhen*). In those parts of England in which stone is less abundant, they are chiefly heaps of dark mould and flints; and in the midland countries they are known by the name of *loes*, from the Anglo-Saxon *llesan*, *locare*. On the downs of Wiltshire and Dorsetshire they are profusely scattered; and there is scarce any district of England, the neighbourhood of which cannot furnish the antiquarian with a specimen.

Many attempts have been made to assign the Barrows of England with precision to their various authors; since, from the difference of their form and their contents, it is manifest that they were raised at very distinct times, and by people observing very distinct usages. Mr. Douglas, in his elaborate work, the *Nenia Britannica*, which has almost exhausted the subject, gives the highest antiquity to the smaller Barrows, such as measure from thirty-three to thirteen feet in diameter; and he shews, by an examination of their contents, that those which exceed this size are analogous to each other throughout England, Scotland, and France. The Celtic Britons did not burn their dead, consequently those Barrows in which no urns are found may be attributed to this people. The Belgæ, who succeeded them, consumed the corpse by fire, therefore Barrows containing urns, without any Roman accompaniment, are referred to them.

In England, clusters are frequently observed near the known site of ancient towns: these are not seen in the unconquered parts of Wales; and hence this kind of Harrows is believed to have originated with the Saxons: while, lastly, such as contain rich ornaments are brought down by the same writer as low as the close of the fourth century. It may be added, that the skeleton itself has sometimes been found entire, sometimes a few scattered bones only; and these not always of the unmixed human subject. The body has been interred in linen, in woollen, in silk, or even in leather. Ashes, urns, spears, swords, and shields, bracelets, beads, mirrors, combs, and hair pins, (*styli*.) with coins, (which in the acknowledged Roman Barrows may have been the *aureum*, or *face* of Charon,) are among the principal contents.

Another writer, (Mr. Bore,) has divided the English Barrows into five classes: 1. Such in which the central elevation is about one-third of the length; which are oblong, higher at the head than at the feet; and are ovated at each end. These are similar to the Barrows found at Lacedæmon and Troy, and in Egypt. 2. Such as are obtusely oval, with a slight central elevation, and are thrown up on eminences near the sea. These resemble the Phœnician Barrows. 3. Such as are more circular, are elevated conically, in which the diameter of the base equals the height, are surrounded by a fosse of six cubits, and contain blue glass beads, amber, gold and silver trinkets, military, mechanical and domestic utensils of brass, and of a mixed metal. These are supposed to be the works of the Belgæ before the Julian invasion. 4. Such as are larger than the third class, are long, oval or circular, and with or without a fosse. These, by the lamps, inscriptions, &c. which they embosom, prove themselves to be Roman. 5. Such as are oblong, with circles of erect stones either at the base or summit. These are probably of Danish origin.

It can be a matter of no surprise, that antiquarians differ widely in their conjectures on this obscure subject. We must not omit, however, that Stukeley claims the long Barrows, from their rarity, as the sepulchres of the arch druids. It is agreed that Barrows were used as late as the twelfth century. At Farnham St. Genovieve, in Suffolk, are still to be seen the barrows which cover the Flemings who were killed in the bloody battle fought on the 11th October, 1175, between Robert de Beaumont, earl of Leicester, who led the troops raised by the unnatural sons of Henry II. against their father, and the king's army, headed by the lord chief justice, Richard de Lucy. The *seven hills*, as they are now called, from the number of the largest, stand on the Theiford road, near Rymer house, about six miles from Bury St. Edmunds. But in times much more nearly approaching to our own, convenience has dictated this mode of disposing of the slain, even after it had long since ceased to be practised as a national custom. The officers and men killed at the battle of Culloden lie under two separate Barrows by the Frith of Forth.

To the north of the Hottentots, innumerable Barrows are described to have been seen by Dr. Sparrow, (*Travels*, ii. 264.) and even in that which we consider as the new world, vestiges of this natural and therefore universal usage have been discovered. In New Caledonia, Mr. Forster met with a Barrow four feet high, surrounded by an enclosure of stakes,

BARROW. (*Observations*, 569.) But the most recent discoveries of the kind, in countries removed from all possibility of intercourse with Europe, have been made by Mr. Oxley during his expedition into the interior of New South Wales, in the years 1817-18. On his return, he passed two native burial places. The first presented a raised mound of earth, under which were some ashes; but there was no decisive proof whether they were from wood or bones. A semicircular trench was dug round one side of the Barrow, as if designed to afford seats for persons in attendance. The second appeared not to have been constructed more than a year or two; and, from the ear displayed in it, evidently belonged to some personage of distinction. The form of the whole was semicircular. Three rows of seats occupied one half; the grave and an outer row of seats the other. The seats formed segments of circles of from forty to fifty feet, and were raised by the soil being trenched up between them. The grave was shaped into an oblong cone, five feet high and nine long. On opening this Barrow, a layer of wood, presented itself, about two feet beneath the surface, forming a sort of arch, which supported the upper cone. Beneath this were placed several sheets of dry bark; then dry grass and leaves, to which no damp had ever penetrated. The body, which was fresh enough to be extremely offensive, was deposited, at the depth of four feet, in an oval grave, as many feet long, and about two feet broad. The legs were bent quite up to the head, and the arms were placed between the thighs. The face was downwards. The direction of the corpse was east and west, the head being to the east. The body was carefully wrapped in a great number of opossum skins. The head was bound round by the common net and girdle of the natives. Over the whole was a largenut. Two cypress trees were to the west and north of this Barrow, distant about fifty feet. The sides of them towards the sepulchre were barked, and curious characters were deeply engraven in them.

Our authorities, besides those cited in the course of this article, are Gough's *Sepulchral Monuments of Great Britain*; Douglas's *Nenia Britannica*; Stackhouse's *Illustrations of Tumuli and Ancient Burrows*; Salmon's *Roman Antiquities in Britain*; and Oxley's *Journal of two Expeditions into the Interior of New South Wales*.

BARROW, a river of Ireland, which rises in King's county, about forty miles west of Dublin, and flows towards the south. Before it reaches Ross, it receives the Nore from the west, and subsequently the Suir, from the same quarter; after which, their united waters form Waterford haven, and mingle themselves with those of the Atlantic, about 100 miles from their source. Large vessels ascend the Barrow as far as New Ross, and barges to Carlow and Athy, whence there is a communication with Dublin by means of a canal.

BARROW UPON SOAR, a village in Leicestershire; the birth-place of Bishop Beveridge. This parish is celebrated for producing a hard blue stone, which, when calcined, makes a lime fit for cement, particularly adapted to all works under water. It is exported in large quantities. The Barrow blue stone was conveyed to Ramsgate for the building of the pier, and was found to succeed, after the Dutch terras mortar had failed. Barrow is rich in fossil produce-

tions. The church is a vicarage, in the patronage of **BARROW**. St. John's college, Cambridge. Population in 1831, 1568. Poor's rates in 1803, at 12s. 4½d. *BAR-SUR-SEINE.*

BARRY, in *Heraldry*, the division of the shield by bars. A shield may be variously *barry*. *Barry bendy*, when it is divided both *barways* and *bendways*. *Barry indented* when the bar is indented. *Barry wavy*, when it is wavy. *Barry pily* when it is charged with piles.

BARAV ISLAND, a small island off the coast of Glamorganshire, containing about 300 acres. Its name is derived from a hermit, St. Baruch, who died there in the year 700. Giraldus Cambrensis observes that in a rock near the entrance of the island there is a small cavity, to which, if the ear be applied, a noise is heard like that of smiths at work, the howling of bellows, strokes of hammers, grinding of tools, and roaring of furnaces, (l. 274.) Sir Richard Hoare adds, that towards the southern part of the island, on a spot called Nell's point, is a fine well, to which great numbers of women resort on Holy Thursday; and having washed their eyes at the spring, each drops a pin into it. The landlord of the boarding-house (for the island is frequented by bathers,) informed Sir Richard Hoare, that in the last cleaning of the well he took out a pint of these votive offerings.

BARSALLO, a kingdom of western Africa, on the river Gambia. It is fifteen leagues in extent, and is governed by a Jallof prince. It contained the African company's chief settlement, called Joor.

BARSCH, or **BIAS**, a county of Hungary, which derived its name from the celebrated fortress of *Bors* or *Bersenburg*, but which is now merely an open town. It is contiguous to the other counties of Solt, Hont, Neutra, Gran, and Thurotz. The number of inhabitants in this province is nearly 90,000; the greater part of whom are Slavonians; but there are many proper Hungarians and Germans among them. Jews, however, are not allowed to settle there. Most of them are Roman Catholics, as the churches belonging to that profession are almost twenty times as numerous as all the others. The two noted mining towns of Kremnitz and Koenigsberg are situated in this part of Hungary.

BAR-SUR-AUBE, an old town of France, in Lower Champagne, with the title of a county, and about 4000 inhabitants. It stands in a fertile country on the left bank of the Aube, and has manufactures of linen, soap, serge and leather; and there are likewise iron works in the neighbourhood. It is about 130 miles east-south-east of Paris.

BAR-SUR-ORSAUV, (*Bar-le-Duc* before the revolution) a town of France, on the river Ornain, which was formerly the capital of the province of Bar, and is now the chief town in the department of the Meuse. It is engaged in the manufacture of woollen stuffs, calicoes, stockings, hats, and leather; and also trades in wood, grain, wine, brandy, and hemp, some of which are produced in great quantities in its immediate neighbourhood. It is about 130 miles east of Paris, and has a population of nearly 10,000 individuals.

BAR-SUR-SEINE, a town of France, in the ancient province of Burgundy, and now included in the department of the Aube. It contains about 2300 inhabitants, who are partially engaged in the manufacture of knives and leather, and in trading in grain and wine. It is about 110 miles south-east of Paris.

BARTER.
—
BARTHOLOMEW,
ST.

BARTER, v.
BARTER, n.
BARTER, n.
BARTER, n.
BARTER, n.

Fr. *barater*; Ital. *barattare*;
Sp. *baratar*. See *BARATRY*.
The Fr. *barater*, Cotgrave says,
is, to cheat, enzen, beguile, deceive,
barter, exchange. It is to the latter application, that
the word *barter* has been long confined.

And then consequently, if all the money were brought to the
krage's hands, then men must *barter* cloths for vittales and bread
for chace, and so one thing for another.

Hall. *King Henry VIII.* fol. 110.

Use of money they (the Nagayans) have none, but do *barter*
their cattle for apparel and other necessities.

Holingt. *Voyages*, &c. M. *Arch. Jenkinson*.

And for the sale of our cloths of gold, plate, pearls, saphyres,
and other jewels, we put our trust and confidence in you principally
to sell them for ready money, time to good dealers, or in
barter for good wares. Id.

To truck the Latin for any other vulgar language, is but an ill
barter; it is as bad as that which Glaucus made with Diomedes,
when he parted with his golden arms for brazen ones.

Hovell. *Letter* lxxi. book II.

At the same time those very men *barter* their hope in vending
a drug, and show no act of honesty, except it be that they lower
a demand of a crown, to six, nay, to one penny. We have a con-
tempt for such vulgar *barterers*. Tatler, No. 4.

Long has this worthy been conversant in *bartering*, and knows,
that when stocks are lowest, it is the time to buy. Id. No. 36.

The haunts where tender myrtle grows;
Foster of happiness than fruit,
To the ground bay prefers the rose,
Not *barter* pleasure for a name.

Copier. *Apology of Aristippus*.

The most ancient and most obvious sort of commercial contract
is *barter*, or the exchange of goods for goods. But where there is
no other sort of commerce, contracts of *barter* must be liable to
great inequalities. Beattie. *Moral Sciences*, part iii. c. 1.

BARTI, or BARTY, a well-built town in Prussian
Pomerania, and one of the principal seaports in that
province. It stands at the mouth of a small river
of the same name, which discharges itself into a bay
of the Baltic; and contains a population of about
3250 individuals. It is the place of meeting of a synod,
and has a chapter of females, which was founded by
the king of Sweden, to whom the town formerly
belonged. It was taken from the Swedes by the
elector of Brandenburg in 1677, but it was restored two
years afterwards; and reverted to Prussia with the
rest of Pomerania. Small vessels only can approach
the town; but it has a good trade, particularly in corn
and wool. Latitude 58° 38' N. and longitude 2° 51' W.

BARTHOLOMEW, ST. a small island belonging
to the Columbian archipelago; and the only one pos-
sessed by the Swedes. It is about fifteen miles in
circumference, and is fertile in the production of sugar,
cotton, coffee, tobacco, indigo, and cassava; but has no
water except such as is supplied by rain. The aloe is
here held in high estimation, and there are other trees
from which gum of an excellent quality is extracted.
The branches of the *parotia*, which flourishes on this

island, grow downwards, take root, rise in fresh stems,
and form an almost impenetrable barrier. The sea-
tree lines many parts of the coast, has its leaves platted
together, and looks as if it was completely glazed.
The island also produces figum vite and iron wood;
and its groves are frequented by a great variety of birds.
St. Bartholomew likewise produces a peculiar kind
of lime stone, with which it supplies many of the other
islands. The numerous rocks that envelope the coast
render it unsafe to approach it without a pilot; but
the harbour is good, and capable of admitting the
largest ships, with excellent shelter from all winds.
St. Bartholomew was ceded in Sweden by the French
in 1785; and about half the population are of French
extraction, most of the others are Irish Roman
Catholics, whose ancestors settled there in 1666. The
latitude of its harbour is about 17° 53' N. and longitude
69° 54' W.

BARTON UPON HUMBER, a market town in
Lincolnshire, chiefly known as the place at which the
great northern road crosses by a ferry to Hull. The
church is a vicarage. Population in 1821, 1307. Poor's
rates, in 1803, at 3s. 3d. *id.* 593. 13s. 9d.

BARTRAMIA, in Botany, a genus of mosses. See
MUSCI.

BARTSIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class
Dulgnamia, order Angiosperma. Generic character;
calyx bilobate, emarginate, coloured; corolla smaller
than the coloured calyx; upper lip longer; capsule
bilocular.

Six species of this genus are described, among them
is now included the red eyefright, formerly *Euphrasia*
adonites, a native of Britain; besides this, there
are two other British species, viz. *B. alpina* and
B. viscaria.

BARYGAZA, a town in the western peninsula of
India, near the Barygaian gulf, and on the river
Lamnetus, nr Narmada, 360 stadia (about 37 miles)
from the sea; a great emporium for the Indian com-
merce, though difficult of access to navigators unac-
quainted with the entrance of the harbour. It is
supposed to be the B'haróch, or B'haróch, of modern
geography, on the Narmada (Nerbudda) and in the
bay of Cambáyah. (Ptol. lib. vii. Vincent's *Periplus*,
vi. li. 355; *Geogr. Nubien*, p. 69; *Arab.* p. 70; *Ayem*
Abbey, ii. 66; Rennell's *Memoir*, p. 228; *As. Res.*
i. 369.)

BARYTES, an alkaline earth, which derives its
name from its great specific gravity, (*βαρύς*).

It occurs combined with carbonic acid, or with sul-
phuric acid, forming carbonate or sulphate of Barytes.
See MINERALOGY.

The natural carbonate is an active poison, and in
Cumberland is frequently employed to destroy rats.
According to Abbé Haiy, the artificial carbonate pre-
pared from the natural sulphate is less deleterious in its
effects, acting, however, violently as an emetic.

The sulphate is sometimes used as a flux for metallic
ores.

BARTHOLOMEW,
ST.
BARYTES

BASALT.

BASALT. This substance is described in the language of Mineralogists, as one of the members of the trap family, and is to be found in great abundance in almost every part of Europe. In order to convey to the reader a clear idea of its qualities and geological relations, we shall consider it under three separate points of view, namely, its composition and mineral characters; its structure and principal localities; and lastly, its supposed origin in reference to the physical agents of fire and water.

1st. Basalt is composed either of hornblende and felspar, or of augite and felspar, varying considerably in the proportion of these several ingredients, and embedding crystals of the same substances as well as of olivine, zeolite, calcareous spar, and magnetic iron ore. It bears, of course a striking resemblance to some of the greenstones, clinkstones, and even syenites; and in its transitions from the more compact kinds into those which are granular and crystalline, it is almost impossible to fix the boundaries between basalt and the other trap rocks with which it is usually associated in geographical position. Its mineralogical characters, according to Jameson, are as follow: the colours are generally greyish or greenish black, and rarely incline to grey. Internally it is dull or feebly glimmering. The fracture in the coarser varieties is large or small grained uneven; of the more crystalline varieties, even, inclining to large and flat conchoidal, and seldom to splintery. It is opaque, or feebly translucent on the edges. It yields a pale grey coloured streak. It is semi-hard, bordering on hard. It is rather brittle, and is difficultly frangible. Its specific gravity is 3.08.

Of the Basalt found in the isle of Staffa, and which composes that singular piece of geological architecture, Fingal's cave, we are presented with the following account by Dr. Macculloch, in his work on *The Western Isles*. "It is," says he, "of a dark greyish-black colour, and of a uniform compact texture, somewhat sonorous and very brittle, breaking with violence into sharp and thin fragments, or into irregular angular masses. When bruised it has an obscure green colour, and the powder is of a muddy and greenish white. It is difficult to ascertain truly its composition by the magnifying glass, the particles of which it is composed being extremely minute; and it is sufficiently obvious that no mode of analysis, chemical or mechanical, is applicable to an investigation of this nature. As far as can be perceived by the lens, this rock seems to consist of a large proportion of a dark grey substance mixed with a smaller one of a black colour; but it is impossible to ascertain to which of the two the green powder of the dust is owing, as the minutest scratch that can be made involves both. It is not improbable that it is a minute compound of augite with compact felspar; an opinion somewhat countenanced by the peculiar green colour of the powder, and by the great prevalence of this mineral among the traps of the Western Islands. Whatever dissimilitude the Basalt of Staffa may bear to those of Germany, or to the well characterised

examples of this substance which occur in this country, it does not appear possible at present to separate it from them by any mode of definition; and we must therefore be content to call it by this name, until we shall have acquired a more thorough acquaintance with the several varieties of this multifarious family, and shall have discovered a method of distinguishing and defining them."

Several mineralogists have analysed Basalt and some of the other trap rocks, in order to discover their affinity with one another as well as their resemblance to lava, of which they are all conceived, by some authors, to be only so many varieties. The following results obtained by Dr. Kennedy, are extracted from the *Edinburgh Philosophical Transactions*.

The basalt from Staffa contains in 100 parts,

Silex	48
Argil	16
Oxide of iron	16
Lime	9
Soda	4
Muriatic acid	1
Loss	6
	<hr/>
	100

The lava of Catanea, Mount Ætna, contains in 100 parts,

Silex	51
Argil	19
Oxide of iron	14.5
Lime	9.5
Soda	4
Muriatic acid	1
Loss	1
	<hr/>
	100

The greenstone of Salisbury Craig, contains in 100 parts,

Silex	46
Argil	19
Oxide of iron	17
Lime	8
Soda	3.5
Muriatic acid	1
Loss	5.5
	<hr/>
	100

The lava of Santa Venese, Mount Ætna, contains in 100 parts,

Silex	50.75
Argil	17.5
Oxide of iron	14.95
Lime	10
Soda	4
Muriatic acid	1
Loss	2.95
	<hr/>
	100

BASALT. The greenstone of Calton hill, at Edinburgh, contains in 100 parts,

Silex	50
Argil	18.50
Oxide of iron	16.75
Lime	3
Soda	4
Muriatic acid	1
Loss	6.75

From these analyses, the similarity of composition in Basalt, greenstone and lava is very striking, and seems to warrant the presumption, at least, which is entertained by certain theorists, that the rocks now specified must have had a common origin. There is another circumstance in the character of those bodies which tends to strengthen the same conclusion, we mean the remarkable uniformity that prevails in their degree of fusibility. This fact was ascertained by Sir James Hall, who performed a series of very instructive experiments on the fusion of calcareous and other mineral substances, ingeniously placed under a great mechanical pressure, in order to prevent the escape of the acids, which, in most cases of fusion, appear to act the part of a flux. It was found that Basalt, and the several species of greenstones are fused when raised to a temperature of from 40° to 55° of Wedgwood's pyrometer; and also, that if they are made, after fusion, to cool very rapidly, they are converted into a dark-coloured glass, much more fusible than the original rocks; whereas, if they are allowed to cool slowly, they assume an appearance which has some resemblance to the rocks in their natural state, and are much less fusible than the vitreous product just described as arising from hasty refrigeration. They are, however, even when slowly cooled, much more fusible than before they have suffered the action of heat, a fact which opposes itself to the experience of the artificer in the application of fire to almost every other class of earthy minerals; and was, till these experiments, altogether new, even to the best informed chemists. Now, it is worthy of particular attention, that, in the quality of fusibility, lava follows precisely the same law with Basalt and greenstone, which circumstance, when coupled with the identity of their ingredients, and the uniformity of the proportions in which these enter into combination, affords unquestionably a legitimate ground of inference in regard to the sameness of the substances themselves. This, however, is not the place for entering into theoretical considerations, we therefore proceed to the second particular which was to be pointed out in reference to Basalt, namely, its structure and principal localities.

2d. The structure of basalt may be described generally as manifesting itself in distinct concretions, of which, however, the forms are very various. These, no doubt, are generally columnar; but this, it ought to be observed, is a form which is by no means peculiar to Basalt properly so called. The columns again are found varying in respect of magnitude, from a few inches in length to upwards of 100 feet; and in thickness, from the first of the dimensions now given, to ten or twelve feet. The number of sides varies from three to nine, and of these the nine-sided are the rarest. They occur also both straight and curved, both parallel

and diverging; sometimes they are articulated, and the joints exhibit convex and concave faces.

In mountains these concretions are collected into large groups; and many of these groups or colossal concretions form a hill or distinct portion of a mountain range. Sometimes Basalt occurs in tabular, sometimes in globular concretions; these last again are frequently composed of concentric lamellar concretions, or of columnar concretions radiating from a centre. Some varieties are distinguished by the largeness, the coarseness, or the fineness of the grains which enter into their composition; some are found having a tendency to stratification; and others display in their structure a close resemblance to porphyritic and amygdaloidal greenstones. In a word, the structure of masses as well as the internal composition of Basalt, when viewed in individual specimens, approaches in most cases to a strict coincidence with the same properties in all the other trap rocks; narrowing thus more and more the limits which were supposed to separate from one another the several members of this enigmatical family.

The columnar structure, it will indeed be admitted, appears with the most prominent outlines in the purer kinds of Basalt; and it is on this account, no doubt, that the particular form now specified has usually been denominated *Basaltic*. The finest specimens of this beautiful formation are to be found at the Giant's causeway, in the north of Ireland; at the rocks of the Cyclops in the neighbourhood of Mount Atna; at the promontory of Castel d'Jaci, in the same vicinity; and lastly, in Staffa, one of the Hebridean isles. As descriptions of the Giant's causeway are familiar to every reader, we prefer an illustration of Basaltic structure taken from the famous cave of Fingal, the ornament of Staffa, and drawn by the pen and pencil of that enterprising geologist, and amusing traveller, the author of the *Description of the Western Isles*.

"Description," says he, "has long since been exhausted on the cave of Fingal. If too much admiration has been lavished on it by some, and if in consequence more recent visitors have left it with disappointment, it must be recollected that all such descriptions are but pictures of the feelings of the narrator. Let those who have a taste for the grand and the beautiful, and who, from the cause above mentioned, may have quitted Staffa with a sensation of disappointment, return to this cave again, and again view it, regardless of the descriptions of others, and their own ill-founded anticipations. They will then become sensible of its beauties, and feel ready to describe it in terms which may excite equal disappointment in those who shall follow, and who like themselves, vainly expect that the feelings of one individual are the measure for those of another, or that any thing can exist which the imagination is not ready to exceed.

"This cave lies near the eastern end of the principal face, a small part only of the columnar range being visible on that side; and from this cause it is deficient in that external symmetry of position which forms so beautiful a feature in the little cave (Horn cave) last described. The outline of the aperture, when viewed in such a light as to show it distinctly, is perpendicular at the sides, and terminates above in thin species of gothic arch which has been termed the

BASALT.

BASALT. contorted; a form which, from its obvious want of geometrical strength, is in architecture unpleasing, however abstractedly elegant its curvature may be. Here it is in character, and the defect is not felt. The height from the top of the cliff to the top of the arch is thirty, and from the latter to the surface of the water at mean tide, sixty-six feet. On the western side, the pillars which bound it are thirty-six feet high, while at the eastern they are only eighteen, although their upper ends are nearly in the same horizontal line. This difference arises from the height of the broken columns which form the causeway on the eastern side, and which cover and conceal the lower parts of those belonging to the front. The breadth at the entrance is forty-two feet, as nearly as it is possible to ascertain it; since the gradual variation of the surfaces, as the curve retires on each hand, prevents the adoption of a very precise point of measurement. The height of the cave within diminishes very soon to a mean measure, varying from fifty to forty-four feet; which latter, in the same state of the tide, is also the altitude of the extremity. The mean breadth is equal to that of the aperture till near the innermost part; but at the extremity it diminishes to twenty-two feet; preserving, as will be seen by these measures, a considerable degree of regularity throughout. The length is 317 feet. The sides of the cave are like the front columns, and in a general sense perpendicular; though when accurately viewed, they are in the same way far from possessing that geometrical regularity which accompanies all the views of it hitherto published. The columns are frequently broken, and irregularly grouped, so as to catch a variety of direct and reflected tints, mixed with unexpected shadows, that produce a picturesque effect which no regularity could have given. The ceiling is various in different parts of the cave: it is deeply channelled in the middle by a fissure, parallel to the sides, and prolonged from the point of the exterior arch to the end. That portion which lies on each side of this fissure toward the outer part of the cave, is similar to the upper incumbent bed, being formed of a minutely fractured rock. In the middle it is composed of the broken ends of columns, which produce an ornamental and somewhat architectural effect; while at the end a portion of each kind of rock enters into its formation. From attending only to one or other of these portions, different observers have described the ceiling in a different manner; and each party has accused the other of misrepresentation. The surfaces of the columns above are sometimes distinguished from each other by the infiltration of carbonate of lime into their interstices. As the sea never ebbs entirely out, it forms the only floor to this cave; but the broken range of columns which produces the exterior causeway is contained on each side within it. This range is most perfect at the eastern side, and admits of access over the broken summits to the further end, provided the water be not too high; but on the west they terminate at some distance from the extremity. The lower portions of the last columns lose at length this regularity of form, and coalesce into a rude mass of rock, as I have already described.

"It would be no less presumptuous than useless to attempt a description of the picturesque effect of that to which the pencil itself is inadequate. But if this cave were even destitute of that order and symmetry,

that richness arising from multiplicity of parts combined with greatness of dimension and simplicity of style which it possesses; still, the prolonged length, the twilight gloom, half concealing the playful and varying effects of reflected light, the echo of the measured surge as it rises and falls, the transparent green of the water, and the profound and fairy solitude of the whole scene could not fail strongly to impress a mind gifted with any sense of beauty in art or in nature. If to these be added, as in viewing the *Scure of Egg*, that peculiar sentiment with which nature, perhaps, most impresses us when she allows us to draw comparisons between her works and those of art, we shall be compelled to own it is not without cause that celebrity has been conferred on the cave of Fingal."

The description of one Basaltic deposit would serve, as far at least as the purposes of science are concerned, as well as the minutest details respecting all that are known to exist; nor do we find, upon an examination of the best authors who have written on the trap rocks of France, Italy and Britain, that either in composition or in structure, the Basalts of one country differ essentially from those of the other. On the same ground we might consider the picturesque columns of Staffa as possessing properties and an external aspect similar to those of the Giant's causeway, even were we not informed by writers who have examined them both, that, in the respects now stated, they may be pronounced identical. The author of the *Letters on Atrium*, for example, describes the latter deposit in language which might almost be applied to the former; telling us that the pillars, varying in their length and thickness from 30 feet to 100, and from one foot to five respectively, rise from the level of the beach, and ascend gradually into the greatest elevations of the neighbouring hills. These colonnades, we are also informed, are generally perpendicular to the horizon, and particularly at the causeway itself; but it is added that, in the vicinity, they are not unfrequently observed lying in an oblique position, and assuming a great variety of regular curves. The same facts are recorded in reference to the famed rocks of the Cyclops. The columns there, as at Staffa and Atrium, are of various sizes and forms; some being four-sided, others hexagonal, heptagonal, octagonal, and even nine-sided; which last, as has been already remarked, is the rarest form which Basalt ever assumes. The position, too, is equally various; some standing erect whilst others are laid on their sides, piled above one another like sacks of corn in a granary. The only thing, in short, that we perceive as peculiar to the Basalt of Atrium, is that some portions of it are said to present the likeness of cannon or hollow cylinders, varying in their diameters from six inches to twenty feet; but as these descriptions are so well authenticated, we shall esteem it sufficient to have mentioned them, and proceed to the third topic connected with Basalt; namely, the question of its origin in its present form, and whether in regard to that point, it owes its property to the action of heat or to that of water.

3d. On this subject we must confine ourselves to the mere statement of a few general principles, avoiding a minute consideration of the controverted topics which have been so long disputed between Huttonians and Wernerians, and which in fact, would be found to involve the issue of all their speculations on the theory of the earth. It is maintained, then, by those who

BASALT. ascribe the trap rocks, of which Basalt is merely a species, to the action of heat, that, as these substances are composed of the same ingredients, and have the same structure with rocks which are, on all hands, admitted to be of igneous origin, it would be extremely unphilosophical to imagine the existence of another distinct cause, to account for the properties of the former. In the analysis quoted above from Dr. Kennedy's paper, the reader will find the most convincing proof, that the assertion now made is not without a good foundation, as far, at least, as it respects the composition of trap rocks and lava; whilst, in regard to structure, it will not be denied that there is a striking resemblance between the rocks of the Cyclops, or any of the other volcanic colonnades which adorn the base of *Ætna*, and the Basaltic pillars which constitute the phenomena of the Giant's causeway and of the cave of Fingal. It is known, besides, that when lava runs into the sea, it does in most cases actually assume the Basaltic structure more or less perfectly; and it is worthy of observation, in connection with this fact, that all the columnar trap which has attracted any attention on account of its regularity or beauty, is either altogether insular or situated near the ocean. The lava of *Ætna* which ran into the sea near the Castel d'Jaci are perfectly columnar; whilst the eruption of Vesuvius, in the neighbourhood of Torre del Greco, which likewise sent a river of lava into the waves, manifests unequivocal tokens of the tendency imposed upon it, to assume the peculiar structure of Basalt.

The geologists of the Neptunian school do not deny the facts now stated; but they attempt to account for them on the principle, very generally assumed by that class of inquirers, that the trap rocks, in volcanic countries, are not produced by the action of fire on the simple substances of which they are composed, being, as they maintain, only thrown out of their original place in the heart of the burning mount, by the eruptive force of elastic gases, and deposited in a somewhat new form, round the base of its crater. It is only, they assert, when volcanoes are found in trap formations, that Basaltic lava is seen to proceed from them; and consequently in all such cases it is to be inferred, that the Basaltic rocks do not derive their origin, or even their form, from volcanic action; but are thereby merely brought to light. Whilst, therefore, the Neptunians allow that trap rocks and volcanic rocks have many properties in common, and are in fact originally the same, they strenuously refuse to admit that these bodies owe either their composition or their structure to igneous fusion.

The question, it will accordingly appear, resolves itself, as we have already observed, into those theoretical considerations which are severally adduced by the two great classes of geologists who continue to divide the opinions of naturalists, in regard to the physical causes which appear to have been employed by Infinite Wisdom, in the construction of the external parts of our globe. In reference to this obscure investigation, the Wernerians, it is well known, have been wroth to teach that the present form of all rocks, with the exception of a few which are avowedly volcanic, is to be ascribed to the operation of water; which acting as a solvent or at least as a vehicle, has deposited or precipitated, in a state more or less crystalline, all the stony substances, stratified and unstrati-

fied, which compose the actual crust of the earth. Of late, however, we have observed that even the most rigid of that school are disposed to modify their views in regard to the rocks of what they call the newest fluted trap formation. The works of Dr. Macculloch, Boué, and Necker de Saussure, together with the essays of Bockland, Conybeare, Daubeny and other members of the Geological Society, have at length shaken the obstinacy which always attaches to the profession of scientific faith, and created, at least, a disposition to inquire whether trap rocks as well as lava, may not ultimately prove to be volcanic productions.

The French authors whom we have just named, have contributed not a little to this change of opinion on the part of certain British Neptunists. Having examined minutely the districts of Auvergne and the Vivarais, which are clearly volcanic, they brought into this country a perfect knowledge of the composition, the structure, the position, as well as of the embedded minerals which characterize volcanic rocks; and upon comparing the trap formation in Great Britain with the volcanic formation of Auvergne, in all the particulars just specified, the composition, the structure, the position, and the embedded minerals, they have found the resemblance so striking, as not to admit the possibility of assigning them to the operation of different causes.

The locality which affords the best ground of comparison with the volcanic district of France, is that which comprehends the south eastern portion of Scotland, and particularly the counties of Fife and Midlothian, in the immediate neighbourhood of Edinburgh. This district, as well as the north of Ireland, and the trap islands in the Hebridean group, has usually been described as an aqueous deposit. The minerals, too, which it contains, the Basalt, the greenstones, the porphyries and the sienites, have all been ascribed to the operation of water, acting either as a chemical solvent and precipitant, or by the more simple process of mechanical deposition. Of the Basaltic rock in Scotland, however, Dr. Hume informs us that it cannot be distinguished from the Basalt of Montaudous, near Clermont in Auvergne, which even the Wernerian school allows to be volcanic; whilst at Apchon, in the same province, there is, he states, an alternation of Basalts, tuffs and lithomarges, which both in regard to substance and arrangement, are much the same with those which occur at the Giant's causeway in Ireland. The same is the case with the porphyry slate in the Mont d'Or, which bears a striking resemblance to that of the island of Lamlash in the Firth of Clyde. A similar remark applies to the porphyry slate of the Mizen and of other parts of the same district: "and it is worthy of remark," he adds, "that these rocks in France, pass into a trachyte or volcanic porphyry, and sometimes contain fragments of undoubted scoriae. The rock of the Dalnaboy hills near Edinburgh," he continues, "has the same basis as the volcanic porphyry rocks of Mont d'Or, and like them contains acicular and large crystals of felspar and crystals of augite. The greater part of the rocks of Arthon seat have the same arrangement, and are of the same species as those in the volcanic districts of Auvergne and the Vivarais. The form of the hill, its sudden elevation in the midst of a flat country, its terraced aspect, its lava-like rocks, and other circumstances, would seem to shew that it has been a submarine volcano."

BASALTY. The investigations of Dr. Danby in France and Scotland confirm the conclusions of Dr. Boué; and these active geologists concur in holding the opinion, that the Basaltic rocks of the latter country as well as those of the giant's causeway and the Isle of Staffa, and, of consequence, we may venture to add, the whole trap formation in every part of the world, are, in their present form, the result of volcanic agency. For a number of very valuable facts connected with the sub-

ject, we beg leave to refer the reader to a recent work by Dr. Boué, published at Paris, and entitled, *Essai Géologique sur l'Ecosse*, where he will likewise find much ingenious reasoning on the theory of the earth generally, as also on the insufficiency of every hypothesis hitherto invented for explaining even the most obvious phenomena in the composition, structure, and position of the mineral substances which compose the outer parts of this terraqueous globe.

BASALT
BASE.

BASAN or **BASCHAN**, that district beyond Jordan to the north of the tribes of Reuben and Gad, extending to Mount Hermon, which was assigned to the half tribe of Manasseh. (*Josh. xxii. 7.*) Bochart therefore is incorrect when he describes Baschan to lie between the brooks Jahbok and Arnon, and to belong to the tribes of Gad and Reuben. (*Hieroz. ii. 31.*) Gilad and Basan are frequently found in holy writ, when the possessions of the half tribe of Manasseh are mentioned: whence Reland (*Palestina*, 201.) believes that they were not distinct regions, but that the second word interprets the first. Basan was distinguished for the fertility of its pastures, and for the excellence of its breed of cattle. It abounded also in mountains, whence it is connected with Libanus by Jeremiah, *xxiii. 30*. Among later writers it is known by the names *BASANEA* and *BASANIDES*.

BASANITE, in Mineralogy, a variety of silicious slate, which has been more commonly known under the name of touchstone. It has been used both in ancient and modern times, to determine the purity of gold and silver by the colour of the streak which those metals leave when rubbed on the stone. The permanency or otherwise of the streak, under the application of nitric acid, is a further test of the purity of gold.

Other stones have been occasionally applied to this purpose, such as compact basalt, and even dark coloured marbles.

BASE, *v.* *Basé*, from *basin*, *basin*, to go; that upon which we tread, stand, go; the lower part of the foot; any thing low.
To put, place or bring low, to lower, to depress, to degrade.
The adjective is applied metaphorically to that which is lowered, humiliated, depressed, disgraced; mean, degrading, disgraceful, shameful, vile, worthless.

A *base voice* or *stun*, is a low, deep voice or sound.
Base, *n.* applied to the carapaces of a horse, to an article of dress; to bed furniture; is so applied from its low situation.

Florent his wofull head y^e lifte,
And save this recker, where that she sit,
Which was the loveliest wight
That ever man caste on his eie:
His nose bare, her browes lie.

Geogr. Conf. Am. book i. fol. 17.

Metre the space from thy foot, to the base of the Tour.

Chaucer. Of the Astrologer, fol. 278.

Thus good rederes examine hym, and then shal ye perceive howe fondly such an hygh pure spiritual prece, accordeth wth such a base foule fleshy living. *Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 261.*

For they [Synon and Andrew] were fishermen, and by this occupation gain their living. The *basenes* of theyre craft, made for the solace of Godden glory. *Edm. Mark, cap. 1.*

Seeing his power to be now increased, [Pyrrus] thrust further into the battell of the Macedonians, who were all afraid, and troubled for the overthrow of their rearward, so as they could not once base their pikes, nor fight against him.

North's Plutarch, 342.

For if any drew out his sword, or bare his pike, he could either scabber the one another, nor lift up the other, but thrust it full upon his own fellows that came in to help them, and so killed themselves one thrusting upon another. *Id. 348.*

Heat thou ere heard of subject vnder sun,
That plac'd and bar'd his sovereignty so oft
By interchange, now low, and then aloft?

Mirror for Magistrates, 373.

Upon this base a curious work is rais'd,
Like undivided brick, entire and one,
Though soft, yet lasting, with just balance paid;
Distributed with due proportion.

P. Fletcher. The Purple Island, c. 2.

CONIO. Must I show thee what my vulgar's'd science?
Must I with my base tongue give to my noble heart:
A lye, that it must bear? well—I will do't.

Shakespeare. Coriolanus, fol. 18.

Three em sectors
(As I foretold you) were all spirits, and
Are melted into ayre, into this ayre,
And like the baseless fabrick of this vision
The cloud-capt towers, the gorgeous palaces,
The solemn temples, the great globe itself,
Yea, all which it inherit, shall dissolve,
And like this insubstantial pageant faded,
Leave not a racke behind. *Id. Tempest, fol. 15.*

I say nothing of thy hid treasures, which thy wisdoms hath
reposed in the bowels of the earth and sea; how secretly, and how
hastily are they laid up? secretly, that we might not seeke them;
hastily, that we might not over-esteem them.

Hell. Cont. The Creation.

— I will not do't,
Least I surcease to honor mine own truth,
And by my bodie's action, teach my minde
A most inconstant baseness.

Shakespeare. Coriolanus, fol. 18.

RICH. Iron of Naples, bid with English gilt,
Whose father bears the title of a king,
(As if a chance-will should be call'd the sea)
Sham't thou not, knowing whence thou art extraxt,
To let thy tongue detect thy base-born heart.

Id. Henry IV. part iii. fol. 155.

PRIN. Ned, prethee come out of that fat room, and lend me
thy hand to lough a little.

Potter. Where hast been Hall?

PRIN. With three or four lopperheads amongst 3 or 4 score
hogheads. I have founded the verie base string of humility.

Id. Henry IV. part i. fol. 55.

Great moral teacher! wisest of mankind!
Solon the next, who built his common-wealth
On equity's wide base; by tender laws
A lively people curbing; yet undamp'd.

Thomson's Seasons. Winter.

BASE

He stay'd with silence, walk'd with trembling heart,
And much he wish'd, but durst not ask to part:
Murm'ring he lifts his eyes, and thinks it hard,
That generous actions meet a base reward.

Parnell. The Hermit.

So that our obligations of gratitude to him [God] are unexpressly great; and we cannot with any force deny ourselves to be most basely unworthy, if the effects in our heart and life be not answerable.

Barrow. Sermon xxiii. v. 11.

Which is one deplorable instance, among a thousand of the baseness of human nature, its small regard to truth and justice; to right or wrong; to what is, or is not to be praised.

Atterbury. Sermon i. v. 1.

The country mourns.
Mourns, because every plague that can infect
Society, and that sags and worms the base
Of th' edifice that policy has rais'd,
Swarms in all quarters; meets the eye, the ear,
And suffocates the breath at ev'ry turn.

Cooper. The Task, book ii.

Si ingratus dixeris, omnia dicaris, says the Latin maxim: If you call a man a grateful, you have called him every thing that is base, you need say nothing more.

Beattie's Moral Science, p. 1. c. ii.

Ah! but too well, dear friend, I know
My fancy weak, my reason slow,
My memory by art improv'd,
My mind by *baseness* trifles mov'd.

Dr. William Jones. On Native Talent.

He that sold
His country, or was slack when she requir'd
His ev'ry nerve in action and at stretch,
Paid, with the blood that he had basely spar'd,
The price of his default.

Cooper. The Task, book iii.

What constitutes a state?
Not bays and broad-arm'd ports,
Where, laughing at the storm, rich navies ride;
Nor starry'd and spangled courts,
Where low brow'd baseness waits perfume to pride.

James. An Ode in imitation of Ailanus.

BASE or BASI in Music. See *BASS* ante.

The thunder
(That deep and dreadful organ-pipe) pronounc'd
The name of Prosper; it did *base* my trespass,
Therefore my name I'll Ouse is bedded, and
I'll awake him deeper than ere plummet sound'd,
And with him there I'll mudded.

Shakespeare. Tempest, fol. 13.

Folly and falsehood grutcht apace,
Trough under bawled in faine to crepe,
Flattery is treble, pride sings the nether end of the hall
The mame the last part, wreat doth paye.

Poema of Uncertain Authors, in Chet. li. 429.

Herr Philomel doth her shrill treble sing;
The thrush a tear; off a turtle make,
Some matelless dove doth murmur out the base.

H. Parnell in Ellis, li. p. 411.

At these wordes the people beganne to whisper among themselves secretly, that the voyce was neither loude nor *base*, but lyke a swarme of bees, till at the last at the nether ende of the hall a husberrnet of the lites scrumme and one Nashfield, and other belonging to the Protector, with some prentices and laddes that thrusted into the hall amongst the prence, began suddenly at men backe to cry out as loude as they could.

Grosford. Chronicle, Ed. 5. Ann. 1.

For all voyces, great and small, *base* and shell, veeke or soft,
may be helpen and brought to a good point by learning to sing.

Archibald. Terephina.

Three cut-calls be the bride
Of him, whose chattering shames the monkey tribe.
And his tin drum, whose hoarse heroic bass
Drowns the loud clarion of the braying ass.

Page. The Doctor, book ii.

BASE

BASII

He will express the words in a simple and agreeable melody, which will not disguise, but embellish them, without slining at any figure, or figured harmony: he will use the *base*, to make the modulation more strongly, especially in the changes.

Str. Wm. Jones. On the Imitative Arts.

Base, to bid *base*, to play at *base*; to *base*; i. e. to bid, call, or challenge to the ground (of contest); to win or maintain, by rousing or otherwise, the ground; to keep moving about upon one spot of ground.

The spirit of wickedness assaileth the Lord Jesus being replete with the spirit of holynesse: he biddeeth *base*, and brynneeth first with hym, of whom he was to be subdued: he biddeeth hym come forth, who was to strong and valiantes for hym to matche withall.

Udall. Luke, cap. 4.

Lads more like to run

The country *base*, than to consist such slaughter,
With faces fit for makes, or rather fayer
Then those for preservation can'd, or shame.

Shakespeare. Cymbeline, fol. 392.

The first day of the challenge at *base*, or running, the king won, *Barnet. History of the Reformation, v. ii. pt. 2.*

You have not seene yong briffers (slyly kept;
Full full of daisies at the field, and driven
Hence to their bowels; all so spryly given
That no roose can continue them; but about,
Base by the dams, and let their spirits out
In ceaselesse beating of more loud plight
Than my kind friends, euen crying out with sight
Of my returne so dooth *base* the fowls.

Chapman. Hen. Od. fol. 155.

BASELLA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Trigynia*. Generic character: calyx none; corolla seveo-fid: two opposite divisions broader; seed one.

English name, Malabar nightshade. Five species are described; of these four are natives of India, and one of Peru.

BASENET, Fr. "*Baisinet*, a little bowl, a small *basin*; also the scull, sleight helmet, or head-piece, worn in old times by the French men of arms." Cotgrave. See *BASIN*.

Syllike strokes they him gave
That helm and *basinet* all to-reve
That on the sculdre fel the brynn.

Richard Coeur de Lion, in Weber, li. 179.

Then every man beyng of any substance prouided himselfe a coats of whyte sylke, and garnished their *basenettes* with tunces lyn cappes of sylke set with ouches, furnished with chaines of gold & fetters: other gylted their harness, their halberdes & pollaxes. Some it especial certayne goldsmithes had theyre breast plate yea theyre whole harness of syluer battlyon.

Hall. King Henry VIII. fol. 235.

And ther therle and his vncle made a great assent, and eche of them had such a stroke on the head with stones, that their *basenettes* were clouen, and their heedes sore stoneyd.

Froissart. Chronicle, l. 81.

Notwithstanding at the last, the king made him put on his *basinet*, and then took a sword with both his hands, and strongly with a good will strake him on the necke, and the same day he made three other citizens knights for his sake in the same place.

Stow. Ann. 1361. R. 2.

Therefore he would her doe away all dreid;
And that of him shew mote assured stand,
He sent to her his *basinet*, as a faithful band.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book vi. c. 1.

BASH,
BASHFUL,
BASHFULLY,
BASHFULNESS,
BASHFULNESS.

See to *ABASH*. To *abash*, cast down, depress, humble, degrade, disgrace.

BASH.

BĀSHĀ.

That there in this art even none other man
But as the judges were to Susan then
Forgers to that whereto their lust them prickt—
Beasts, lesser then, the truth hath thus consuet.

Viceroin Authors.

For though in youth I was often overhauled to get my name in
balance of doubtful judgments, yet now I am become so bashful
that I could neither be content to learn the praise of my fellowes,
then to hazard the misconcite of the grane and grail headed
judges.

Georgique. To the Reverend Drunken.

These folks therefore being very desirous to see *Jesus*, of whom
they had heard so wonderful things, yet they were bashful, and
with shamefastness letted to approach unto him.

Udall. *John*, cap. xii.

And as I stode in this bashment, I remembered your incom-
parable eloquence.

Gower. *Dick to King Henry VIII.*

Sophronia she, Orlando might the youth,
Both of our towne, both in one faith were taught,
She faire, he full of bashfulness and truth,
Lou'd much, he'd little, and desired naught,
He durst not speake.

Pacifica. *Godfrey of Bullioigne*, book II.

In view and ashamed, and bash you not to brooch and set abroad,
in the view and face of the world, such mockeries of religion?

Holland's *Lives*, fol. 320.

To whom Cebellians with a bashed countenance (well declar-
ing the inquietudes of his mind) reported all those things which
he had heard of his brother, requiring him that he would declare
the same immediately unto the king.

Breide. *Quinto Curtius*, fol. 156.

It might be either for the lacks of leavynge and good byrnyng
up, (a great and common fault in great princes of Germany) or els
for his bashful nature in youth, which propertie Xenophon wittely
feygned to be in Cyrus at lyke yeares, judging bashfulness in youth
to be a great token of virtue in age.

Aecham. *Report and Discourse*.

Here all the ornament is red and black;
Here the check'd Sun his universal face
Stops bashfully, and will no entrance make;
As if he wou'd Night naked through the glass.

Demant. *Gondibert*, book 2. c. 6.

If you approve what ciphers lawfull think,
Be bold, for number cancels bashfulness;
Extremes, from which a king would blushing shrink,
Unblushing senates act as no excess.

H. 3. c. 1.

We are all naturally endowed with a strong appetite to know,
to see, to perceive truth; and with a bashful shyness from being
deceived and entangled in mistake. *Burrow. Sermon* i. v. 1.

Doubtless, there are men of great parts that are guilty of down-
right bashfulness, that by a strange hesitation and reluctance to
speak, murder the finest and most elegant thoughts, and render
the most lively conceptions flat and heavy. *Tatler*, No. 222.

Our orators, with the most facility bashfulness seem impressed
rather with an awe of their audience than with a just respect for
the truths they are about to deliver; they, of all professions seem
the most bashful who have the greatest right to glory in their com-
munion.

Goldsmith, *Essay* iii.

Sincere and equal in thy neighbour's face,
How swift to praise, how obstinate to blame!
Bold in thy presence bashful sense appears,
And backward merit looses all its fears.

Hemilton. *To the Countess of Eglington*.

BĀSHĀ, the Turkish title *Pādshā*, as improperly pro-
nounced by Arabs, and introduced among us by our in-
tercourse with Barbary. The Turks derived it either
from the Tatarian word *pādshā*, "elder brother;"
which became the title of vezirs, because the first who
held that dignity was the elder brother of Orkhān, the
first sultan, or from the Persian word *pādshāh*, a spar-
row-hawk; (*Idāhu 'ghatādi*, by Hafid Efendi Scutari,
1806, 8vo.) which may well perhaps think the best
etymology of the two. It is the common title of the
beylerbeys (beglerbegs) or governors of provinces in
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BĀSHĀ.

the Turkish empire. (See *TUKEY*.) They are mili-
tary officers, having tūghs or horse-tails born before
them, (see *TUOU*) as ensigns of their supreme autho-
rity. Those of the highest rank, who are also vezirs
or ministers of state, have the privilege of three tūghs
or tails; the others have only two. The officers who
have only one, are called anjak beys. Their emolu-
ments are derived either from the rents of certain
domains called khāss, assigned to them; or consist
in a yearly salary (sālīyaneh) paid out of the revenues
of their Pādshāh, or government. They are attended
by two inferior officers appointed by the Porte; the
deftar-khāss-ā, or treasurer of the province, and the
ziāmet-deftar-dārī, or treasurer of the fleets. The first
superintends the collection of the revenue, and the
other has the management of the lands held on mili-
tary tenure. These officers also are paid by the rent
of estates attached to their office, except in those
Pādshāhs the revenue of which is administered by the
Pādshā himself. Every Pādshā has his court, which is a
copy in miniature of the sultan's household. The
names and offices of his different attendants will be
found in M. de Hammer's excellent work quoted below.
Among the peculiar distinctions of a Pādshā his band
of music should be mentioned; it always plays the
nobet before his tent, or palace, every afternoon. This
with his seven led-horses, seven drums and seven
flutes are the distinctive marks of his supreme military
rank. Those who are acquainted with the institutions
of the Mogul government, will not fail to recollect the
constant use of the nobet by the great nabobs; and we
shall show in a future article (*OTTOMAN EMPIRE*) that
the military institutions in Turkey and in India are
radically and essentially the same. It appears, from
what has already been said, that the Pādshāhs have an
authority, within their own provinces, nearly equal to
that of the sultan himself. They are in fact viceroys, an
appointment which, in a government essentially military,
must give an almost unlimited power. They have no
direct command over the persons or property of the civil
inhabitants of their province; but being supreme in
the executive as well as the military departments; they
can have no difficulty in finding a plea for seizing upon
any one who falls under their displeasure; and being
responsible to the sultan alone, it would be almost
impossible to obtain redress for any injury received
from them. The Kādīs, or judges, are very properly
made wholly independent of them, but it may be easily
imagined that corrupt influence will generally supply
the place of more direct means; and nothing can prove
the baneful effects of such a system more distinctly,
than the consternation which the approach of a Pādshā
universally diffuses. In the better days of the Otto-
man empire, the contributions in money were fixed
and moderate; but those happy times have long ceased
to exist. The sums now paid into the sultan's ex-
chequer, are nominally the same as they were three
centuries ago; but are in reality the price offered by the
highest bidder for the office. The Pādshā, whose tenure
depends on the will of his master, must not only realize
the sum he has engaged to pay, but as much more as he
possibly can obtain in order to enrich himself. He may
be displaced, he knows not how soon; he must there-
fore lose no time, but must extort the requisite supply
by every means in his power. The same system prevails
through every department of the government, the
āghalik, or command of the poorest village is farmed

BASHIL.
—
BASH-
KIRS.

out in the same manner; and the prosperity of the country is continually undermined by a set of petty tyrants, who are sure of being immediately supplanted if they leave a single purk to be squeezed out by the superior dexterity of their rivals. (See Von Hammer's *Staatsverfassung des Osmanischen Reichs*, ii. 243; Volney's *Travels*, i. ch. 10. ii. ch. 23; Olivier's *Travels*, i. ch. 17.)

BASHKEE ISLANDS, five small islands lying in the Chinese sea, and so called by the English navigator, Dampier, who visited them in 1687. These five he called Orange, Moonmouth, Gratton, Gonte, and Bashee. The last appellation appears to have been conferred from an agreeable intoxicating liquor of that name, resembling beer, but prepared from the sugar cane, with which the crew were plentifully supplied at that island. This name, however, has since been applied to the whole group. The first is the largest, being more than twenty miles long, and six or seven broad. In most of the upper parts of this cluster, the soil is red, but in the lower grounds it consists of a black fertile mould, yielding abundance of sugar cane, pine-apples, bananas, plantains, sweet potatoes, and yams. Goats and hogs were numerous, and were the principal animals that were seen. Very few birds were met with, either wild or tame. Gold is said to be produced in these islands, and is chiefly washed down by the torrents from the hills. The Spaniards formed a settlement here in 1763, the chief object of which was to collect this metal. The natives fabricate it into wire, and are said to have some means of judging of its purity. They are described by Dampier as thick short people, of a dark copper colour, with straight black hair; thick eyebrows, and hazel eyes. Their foreheads are low, and noses flat. Both Dampier and M. Surville praise them for their quiet and peaceable dispositions; and, as far as these navigators could ascertain, they appeared to live in great harmony. If this, however, presents a correct picture of their internal state, one circumstance showed that they had been exposed to the incursions of hostile visits from other quarters; as their villages were placed on the most precipitous points of the hills, which were only ascended by very difficult paths, and sometimes merely a narrow flight of steps led to their summits, and were the only means of approach to their dwellings. Their canoes were numerous and well-built, and capable of carrying twenty or thirty persons each. The Bashee islands lie a little south of the tropic of Cancer, and north of the Philippines.

BASHKIRS, (BASH-KIRY, i. e. BEE-HEAD, from their love of beer), a mixed tribe inhabiting the southernmost division of the Uralian mountains, and particularly the banks of the Belai Ural and Iset; they consist of 27,000 families, established, one half in the government of Orenburg, the other in that of Perm, about lat. 55° N. and long. 60° E. They are supposed to be a mixture of Noghais and Bulgarians, (the original Bulgarians) and, according to traditions current among them, settled in the Uralian mountains in the beginning of the seventeenth century. Their language is a dialect very nearly approaching to the Turkish of Constantinople; and probably scarcely different at all from that of the Crimeans. (Adelung's *Mittheilungen*, i. 466, iv. 180.) Their principal occupation is the care of their herds and bees. In summer-time they live encamped in bodies from five to twenty yurts, (hordes); and in winter they settle in villages of fifteen or twenty

houses, like those of the Russian peasantry. A wealthy Bashkir possesses as many as 2,000 horses and 500 hives; one who has not more than forty or fifty steeds, and four or five hives of bees, is considered as a poor man. Some of their tribes have of late years applied themselves to agriculture, and they have a fertile soil with abundance of rich ores to reward their industry. The women are employed in milking the cows and mares; making cheese and butter; drying fish; tanning leather; making felt-caps, and spinning and weaving; while their husbands remain perfectly idle. The Bashkirs are of a strong muscular make; and have the smooth olive-coloured skin, black hair, large projecting ears, and diminutive eyes of the Tatar race. They are bold, obstinate, and warlike; and were formerly much addicted to plunder: they are intelligent and hospitable, but rough and dirty. Their dress much resembles that of the other Tatar tribes; particularly their sheep-skin pelisses. Their common weapons are bows and lances; in modern times firearms have been introduced; and they are expert marksmen, and excellent riders. They are all, with the exception of a few hundreds who have embraced Christianity, zealous Mohammedans. The whole nation is divided into twenty-six volosts, or tribes, each of which is governed by one or two starshins, or elders, elected by the whole body; and all are subject to an Attaman (Hetman) who is probably appointed by the Emperor, as among the Cossacks (Kazaks); for, since their last insurrection, between 1735 and 1741, they have been placed on the same footing as that people. The Bashkirs and the Russians are mutually jealous of each other; but in time of war the former are expected to furnish a corps of 3,000 cavalry, who are to serve on the same conditions as the Cossacks; and are chiefly employed to protect the Asiatic frontier. (See Tooke's *Russia*; Falk's *Travels*, vol. iii.; Georgie's *Description of the Russian Empire*, l.; Pallus and Gmelin's *Travels and Statistische Beschreibung Sibiri* (Statistical Description of Siberia.) Petersburg, 1810.)

BASILAN, one of the Philippine islands, lying in the midst of a group of smaller ones, south-west of Magindanao. It is about sixty miles in circuit, and rises into mountains towards the centre. The lower parts are fertile, and abound in sugar canes, bananas, and rice. Several streams descend from the elevated tracts to the surrounding ocean. Most of the inhabitants live near the coasts, while the interior is chiefly abandoned to wild hogs and deer. The surrounding islands are of much less extent, and the channel that separates the group from the larger islands, is about six leagues in width. The latitude of Basilan is between 5° and 6° north, and the longitude about 121° east.

BASILICA, originally a hall of justice, in which also merchants used to assemble, as in the EXCHANGE of modern times. (Cic. *ad Att.* xi. 29. In *Verrem* vi. *Pro Murena*.) The name is derived from *basilica*, (sc. *stoa*), because magistrates with the power of Kings heard causes in them. The first of which we read was built under the direction of Cato the Censor, and thence called *Forcia*. c. c. 568. (Liv. xxxix. 44.) Victor enumerates no less than nineteen in Rome. The name was transferred to Christian churches in the age of Constantine, who, with the zeal of a recent convert, gave his new palace on the Quirinal mount for the site of a temple to the faith that he had embraced.

BASH-
KIRS.
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BASIL-
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BASILICA.
CA.
BASILICA.
CATA.

This is considered as the most ancient of the Christian Basilicae, although the Vatican itself can date from the same founder, who demolished the circus of Nero and the two temples; to make room for the new edifice. This most ancient church was destined to survive all the incursions of northern barbarism, and all the ravages of civil discord, and was only removed by Pope Julius II. to make room for that edifice which is the proudest monument ever reared by man to the honour of the Deity. The third Basilica of Constantine, that of St. Paul, (*for dell' muri*) yet exists, and may be regarded as affording a complete specimen of the ancient church, which differed but little from the Basilica of Paganism, being a quadrilateral hall, with a flat ceiling, divided by columns into three or five aisles.

It was Justinian who projected a different form when rebuilding the church of Santa Sophia, at Constantinople; and in his adoption of the shape of the great emblem of Christianity, he has been followed by almost every ecclesiastical architect, even to modern times. It was at Venice, in the church of St. Mark, that the earliest Italian copy of Santa Sophia is to be traced; the shape as well as the dome is there faithfully imitated. Santa Maria del Fiore, at Florence, was constructed after the same model; and Bramante, when called upon for the design of St. Peter's, did not feel himself authorized to deviate from a form which had obtained the approbation of so many centuries.

The seven Basilicae of modern Rome are: St. Sebastian, St. Lorenzo, St. Maria Maggiore, St. Giovanni Laterano, St. Croce, St. Paolo, St. Pietro, (Vaticano.)

From the front of these churches, the Pope, on certain solemn festivals, is accustomed to give his benediction to the people, which has rendered it necessary for the architects to introduce galleries, detracting from the dignity of the façade. For example; fine as the west front of St. Peter's undoubtedly is, how much would its magnificence have been enhanced, if either Bramante or Michael Angelo had been permitted to copy the portico of the Pantheon, with its single row of columns, instead of introducing the windows, &c. necessary to afford an opportunity for the Papal benediction.

Even at our own St. Paul's, in which no such ceremony occurs, other considerations obliged Sir Christopher Wren to break that part of the church into two stories, in conformity to the general plan; so that the portico of the Pantheon at Paris must in modern architecture be regarded as superior to both.

BASILICATA is a province in the kingdom of Naples, contiguous to those of Bari, Capitanata, Citra, and Calabria. The appellation of Basilicata may probably be traced to the period when it was possessed by the Greeks under the lower empire; and, like the sister province of Capitanata, it has preserved the name ever since. Though this division comprises a great part of Lucania, a district of some importance in the days of antiquity, it is esteemed by the modern inhabitants to be as little favoured by nature, as it is assisted by art. Its eastern and western extremes touch the gulfs of Tarento and Pulcinello, but they are contracted to the space of twenty-five miles on the one side, and ten on the other; and are consequently deprived of most of the advantages to be derived from a continued line of coast. The inland portion widens considerably; but it is described as stony, unfruitful, exposed to great inequality of temperature, and deficient

in good water, and even tolerable horse roads. The two largest towns of this province are Potenza and Matera.

The eastern part of this province, however, consists chiefly of an extensive plain, which produces considerable quantities of corn, though badly cultivated, and the produce much less than it might be rendered. Yet, when we reflect that two of the most celebrated cities of Magna Græcia, *Metapontum* and *Heraclea*, flourished in these regions which are now depopulated, we must be induced to admit, that physical causes have combined with the ravages of time, and political vicissitudes, to produce so total a change. The former of these cities had a spacious port, and in both wealth and consequence it was only inferior to Tarentum; and it was the plain above mentioned that supplied it with the grain that formed the source of its opulence, and was typified on its medals. But, like many other noted cities of those early eras, *Metapontum* has long been levelled with the ground.

BASILISK, *Basiliscus*, so called, either because it hath on its head something white like a diadem; or because all other kinds of serpents flee from its superior strength. Festus. See *Vossius*.

That sleth right as the basilisk sleth folk by violence of his sight. *Chaucer. The Prioress Tale.*

Then *Macbeth* himself did take

The wreath and puts it on,

And by that means he overcame

The basilisk anon.

Warner. Allion's England, book I.

They could not murder thy allegiance,

Not when before those judges brought to 'th' test,

Who, in the symptoms of thy ruin drest,

Prove me'd thy sentence. *Basilisk*! whose breath

Is killing poison, and whose looks are death.

Charles Cotton. On the Lord Derby.

Wherever it [the gospel] came it miraculously transformed Pagans into Christians, which was as truly wonderful, as for the basilisk to part with its poison, for a wolf to be changed into a lamb, nay, for dogs (such were the Gadizis in our Saviour's language) to be changed into angels of light and purity.

Bates. Of the Divine attributes.

BASILISCUS, Dauidin, Cuvier. *Basilisk*, Shaw. In *Zoology*, a genus of animals belonging to the family *Iguanidæ*, order *Sauria*, class *Reptilia*. Generic character: a sharp scaly crest or fin supported by the vertebral spines, and extending more or less along the back and tail; skin of the throat loose, slightly pendulous; thighs having a row of pores; scales small, and rhomboidal; teeth strong, compressed, and not indented; palatine teeth, none.

The two species of which this genus is composed, belong, in the Linnaean system, to the order *Reptilia pedata*, genus *Lacerta*; one of them to the subdivision *Stelliones*, and the other to the *Iguania*; but why they should not both have been included under the latter subdivision does not appear, for they both possess the same curious crest or fin attached to the spinous processes of certain vertebrae, which is not common to any other reptiles. Dauidin and Cuvier have, however, more wisely than Gmelin, in his edition of *Linnaeus's System of Nature*, formed them into one genus, under the family *Iguanidæ*. The crest or fin, if it may be so termed, forms the peculiar character of this genus; it is composed, like the dorsal fin of fishes, of a scaly membrane, supported by several spines, probably attached to the spinous processes of the vertebrae, and

BASILICA.
CATA.
BASILICA.
CUN.

BASILIS-
CUS.

which is capable of being elevated or depressed at pleasure.

B. Cuculiter, Cuv.; *Lacerta Basiliscus*, Lin.; *Basilic à capuchon*, Daud.; *Basilisk*, Shaw. This is a very rare animal, and the only one which has been figured, it is to be found in Seba's book, entitled, *Locupletissimi rerum naturalium thesauri accurata descriptio*, four volumes folio. Dr. Shaw, in his *General Zoology*, declares, that "there is, however, in the British Museum, a very fine specimen, well preserved in spirits, and which fully confirms the excellency of Seba's figure." As Dr. S. asserts this, there can be little doubt that such an animal does exist, preserved at the British Museum, but unfortunately it is not exposed to public view. Dr. S. must also be blamed for having given but a trifling description of it; and for having omitted Seba's account, in his *General Zoology*. Nevertheless, from that work the present notice must be taken. In this, Dr. Shaw says, that "it is nearly allied to the lizard, except that it has on the back of the head a hood, like a monk's cowl, hollow within, cartilaginous, and covered with scales; its crest similar to the (dorsal) fin of a large perch, extends down the whole back, and is supported by sharp spines, connected by an intermediate scaly membrane; it arises near the neck, and terminates at the beginning of the tail, being broadest on the middle of the back: on the upper part of its long tail, and extending half down it, is another and broader fin, moveable to either side: in swimming or flying, it moves the fins from side to side; but when on land, or in trees, it folds them up, and only raises them in flying from tree to tree: the hood they also inflate, to render their head lighter in flying, and they are capable of discharging the air with which it is inflated at pleasure: the tongue is short and thick: above the eyelids are two semicircular bony rings, white, and having the membranous lids attached to them: the colour of the animal is of a clear brown, with some whitish spots, giving it a marbled appearance: the largest scales cover the thighs, feet, fingers, and extremity of its slender tail: the feet terminate in five toes, armed with very long crooked and sharp claws, those of the hind feet being much the longer: the tip of the tail is uneven, consisting of knotty joints." Dr. Shaw says, that it measures about a foot and a half long, but sometimes grows to three feet. It is believed to be amphibious, but its country is not certainly known; Cuvier thinks it probable that it is a native of the Indies.

Such, then, is the account of this remarkable animal, which, notwithstanding all the poets have sung, (and their songs have been re-echoed by the ancient naturalists,) is not poisonous. The opinion of Fliny about it, in the quaint language of an old translation, is as follows: "To come now unto the basilike, whom all other serpents do flee from and are afraid of; albeit he killeth them with his very breath and smell that passeth from him; yea, and (by report) if he do but set his eie on a man, it is enough to take away his life." So, our own Shakespeare makes Lady Anne reply to Richard of Gloucester, who says,

These eyes, sweet lady, have infected mine.

L. ANNE. Would they were Basilisks, to strike these dead!

Lucan and others might be brought in support of this notion, but their opinions being much the same,

need no repetition. There is in the British Museum a curious figure of the Basilisk, or cockatrice, as title-page to the *Begging Petition* of one James Salgado, a Spanish priest, in which it is represented by an animal something like a cock, with a high comb, and a long barbed lizard's tail; of course purely the invention of the author. This animal is frequently mentioned in Scripture, as incapable of being tamed or charmed with music, (*Jer. viii. 17.*) the Hebrew text calls it teepha, but the Greek basilisk: the English translation, with greater impropriety, renders it cockatrice, an animal which does not exist.

B. Amboinensis, Cuv.; *Lacerta Amboinensis*, Schlosser; *Amboine Guano*, Shaw; *Sos sos* of the natives, *Amboine basilisk*. This animal was first described and figured by Valerius with tolerable correctness; but Schlosser thinks the account was not given from any drawing taken from life, but merely from Valerius's description after he had returned to Europe, as it did not at all coincide with his (Schlosser's) drawing, which was taken from an animal in his own possession; though he admits Valerius's description to be tolerably correct. The animal measures from the snout to the tip of the tail rather more than two feet six inches: the back is strongly serrated, containing above ninety serratures, extending from very near the occiput to the commencement of the tail, from which begins the crest, or fin-like process, supported by seventeen distinct rays, and armed with a hundred and twenty little tooth-like processes, similar to the teeth of a saw, and mostly of the same size: the skin of the under part of the neck and throat is loose, extending down to the middle and lower part of the throat, and terminating in a rounded process not serrated, but forming deep folds, and this Schlosser calls the collar: the tongue is obtuse, fleshy, and filling nearly the whole mouth: in either jaw is a set of flat, pointed teeth, similar to those of the *Squalus Galeus* of Linnaeus, (*Tope*, Pen.) mingling irregularly with one another, of which the posterior are the larger; in the lower jaw are three round short pointed teeth, facing outwards, and four similar in the upper, about two lines and a half distant from the other teeth: the head and collar of the animal are greenish, striped with white; the back and tail brownish; the caudal process tawny; belly grey; the body generally and irregularly spotted with large or small white patches. It inhabits Amboine, and is a harmless animal, living on seeds and worms; Cuvier says he has found leaves and insects in its stomach. The natives eat its flesh, and call it *Sos sos* of the natives, or the Winter Lizard.

See Daudin, *Histoire Naturelle des Reptiles*; Cuvier, *Regne Animal*; Seba *Alh. Locupletissimi rerum Naturalium thesauri accurata descriptio*; Schlosser *Joh. Alh. Epistola de Lacerta Amboinensi*.

BASIN. Fr. *bassin*; It. *bacino*; Sp. *bacia*, *bacina*; Ger. *bekken*, which Wachter derives from *bagen*, *arcare*. (*A. S. byrgan, flectere, curvare, arcare.*) Menage writes thus: *Fas, rosis, vasum, bacinum, bacinum, bacino*.

It is applied to

A vessel bowed, bellied, hollowed out; to earth so formed or shaped by surrounding masses.

But let us go now to that horrible swearing of adoration and conjuration, as don these false enchantments and nigromancers in bowls full of water, or in a bright sword, in a circle, or in a fire, or in a slender bone of a sheep: I cannot say, but that they do curiously and damnablely abuse God, and all the faith of holy church.

Chaucer. *The Parson's Tale*.

BASILIS-
CUS.
= BASIN.

BASIN.

And afterward, he put water into a *basin*, & began to waich the disciplin feet.

Wickl. Jon. chap. xiii.

BASIS.

After that, he poured water into a *basin*, and began to wash his disciples feet.

Ibid.

He (Nurse of Nasser) was an aged man, about threescore yere of age; and of vnaig his bodie was wont to be chafed with a *basin* with hote colen, to make hym sweete, which oftentimes he used and dyd hym so hurt.

Proseart. Craycicles. v. li. C. 116.

To give this particular spot of ground the greater effect, they have made a very pleasing contrast; for on one side of the walk you see this hollow *basin*, with its several little plantations lying so conveniently under the eye of a beholder; on the other side of it there appears a second mount, made up of trees rising one higher than another, in proportion as they approach the center.

Spectator, No. 477.

If from charity then such advantages flow,
That you still gain the mine—the more you bestow;
Here's the place will afford you rich profit with ease,
When the *basin* comes round, be as rich as you please.

Whitehead. Song.

From step to step, with sullen sound,
The fute'd casades indignant leap;
Now sinking fill the *basin's* mead d'round;
There in a dull stagnation doo'd to sleep.

Mann. Ode to a Winter Nymph.

BASING, a small village in Hampshire, near which Alfred was defeated by the Danes in 871. It is still more memorable for the protracted siege sustained by John, the fifth Marquess of Worcester, in his seat of Basing house, against the forces of the Parliament. The investment commenced in August 1645; and the answer made by the Marquess to the summons of the enemy was, that "if the King had no more ground in England than Basing house, he would maintain it to the uttermost." It stood out till October, 1645, when Cromwell took it by storm, and burnt it to the ground. A saying still exists in the neighbourhood, *Clubs trumps, as when Basing house was taken*; and tradition refers this to the surprise of the garrison, who were at cards when finally assaulted. The Marquess had written with a diamond on every pane of glass, *Aymes Loyauté*, which is still the family motto. The plunder obtained by the Parliamentary forces amounted to £300,000, but their loss before the walls exceeded 2000 men. The Marquess died in 1674: he was buried in Englefield church. The epitaph on his monument was written by Dryden. It was upon his first wife, the mother of the first Duke of Bolton, that Milton conferred a similar honour, in the beautiful lines beginning

This rich marble doth later,
The honoured wife of Winchester, &c.

A journal of the siege of Basing house was printed at Oxford in 1645.

BASINGSTOKE, a large town in Hampshire, which by means of a canal, begun in 1778, carries on an extensive trade. Population in 1831, 3165. Poor's rates in 1803, at 9s. £1771. *ss. 3d.* The church is a vicarage, in the patronage of Magdalen college, Oxford. One of its vicars, Sir George Wheeler, the celebrated eastern traveller, annexed a library to the church. This town is the birth-place of Joseph and Thomas Warton, whose father also was one time vicar.

BASIS, *basin*, from *basin*, I go; that upon which we tread, stand, go; the lower part of the foot; any thing low.

Th' best (quoth he) to make these great ones shrinke,
The people love him whom the nobles feare;

There must the rule to all disorders stinke,
Where pardons, more than punishment appeare;
For feeble is each kingdom, frail and weak,
Unless his *basin* be this faine I speake.

Faifus. Godfrey of Bulgine, book v.

Thy models yet are not so fram'd as we
May call them like, and not imit'ry;
No name on any *basin*: 'tis thy skill
To strike the vice, but spare the person still.

Carterwright. To the Memory of Ben Jonson.

Or if no *basin* bear my rising name,
But the fall's ruin of another's fame;
Then teach me, heaven! to scorn the guilty boys,
Drive from my breast that wretched host of pains.

Pope. Temple of Fame.

This university had, in the conclusion of the last century, the honour of giving birth to a stupendous system of philosophy, erected by its disciple Newton, on the immovable *basin* of experiment and demonstration; which, by degrees, supplanted and overthrew a visionary though ingenious representation of nature, drawn by fancy, and supported by conjecture.

Porteus. Sermon viii. l.

BASK, Dutch, *Baecken* in de zonne. *Apricori, capture solem, percoqui in sole*. Kilian. Perhaps, says Skinner, from the verb *To bake*.

To warm or heat in the rays of the sun; at the fire.

As I live by foods, I met a foole,
Who laid him downe, and *bask'd* him in the sun,
And rail'd on lady Fortune in good termes,
In good set termes, and yet a modest foole.

Shakespeare. As You Like It, fol. 193.

Love in her sunny eyes does *bask*ing play,
Love walks the pleasant mazes of her hair;
Love does on both her lips for ever stray,
And sows and reaps a thousand kisses there.

Cowley. The Change.

Then lies him downe the lubbar fiend,
And, stretch'd out all the chimney's length,
Basks at the fire his hairy strength;

Milton. L'Allegro.

Now to continue what my tale began,
Lay madam Partlet *basking* in the sun,
Breast high in mud: her sisters in a row,
Enjoy'd the beams above, the warmth below.

Dryden. The Cook and the Foe.

This said, he sighing cry'd, and gasping dy'd,
His death the young Lychophaex cry'd,
As on the flowery brink he pass'd the day,
Bask'd in the beams, and hither'd life away.

Parnell. Bottle of Frogs and Nips, book l.

While, born on busy wing,
Ye slip the sector of each varying bloom;
Nor fear, while *basking* in the beams of spring,
The wintry storm that sweeps you to the tomb.

Mann. Elegy on the Death of a Lady.

The naked negro, panting at the fire,
Boasts of his golden sands and palmy wire;
Basks in the glare, or stews the tepid ware,
And thanks the gods for all the good they gave.

Goldsmith. The Traveller.

BASKING SHARK, in Zoology, a common name of the *Squalus Marinus*. See *SQUALUS*.

BASKET, *bascunda*, Lat. taken by the Romans (Mart. 14. 99. Juv. 12. 46.) from the British *bagwood*. Junius acknowledges that if *bass*, as applied to rushes, were a British word, *basket* might be supposed to have been derived from it.

Basket is applied to any thing interwoven with rushes and osiers, or other slight material.

BASIS.

BASKET.

BASKET.

— BASLE.

For I wot preche and beg, in sundry houses,
I wot not do so labour with min bones,
Ne make baskets for to live thereby,
Because I wot not beggins idly.

Chaucer. *The Pardoner's Tale*, v. 12378.

To weete thair handis howeandis brecht watter clere,
Sine brede in baskets after thair manere,
With soft sermons to ask thair handis clene.

G. Douglas. *Excuses*, book 1. fol. 35.

The waiters gave the waiters sweets, and princely towels
wrought,
And eke the bread in sundry gales on baskets fast they
brought.

Phaon. *Excuses*.

— His three out, to save life
Your British baskets, with a thousand dishes.

Holday. *Journal*, Sat. 12.

Whereby it appears, that the priests at this time (which was about the year 240.) had every man his allowance delivered per sportulas, that is, by baskets; whereupon they were called fratres sportulantes, basket-brothers or brethren that lived on the basket: And it may be, that some understanding the word, as we now use them for an *almshouse*, could be contented that the mistakers lived in like manner at this day.

Sir Henry Spelman. *On Tythes*, fol. 77.

His pulsant sword into his side,
Near his undantied heart, was ty'd,
With basket-hilt that would hold both,
And serve for fight and shiver both.

Baile. *Hudibras*, part i. c. 1.

Worry'd with debts, and past all hopes of bail,
Th' unpy'd wretch lies rotting in a jail:
And there with basket-almes, scarce kept alive,
Shows how mistaken talents ought to thrive.

Romances. *Rosny on Translated Verse*.

— There was a time,
When other regions were the swains' delight,
And shepherdesses Britanna's rashy vale,
Inferiour, neither trade nor labour knew,
But of rude baskets, homely rustic gear,
Worn of the fæble willow.

Jager. *The Flower*, book ii.

BASLE, BASIL or BALA, one of the twenty-two cantons which constitute the present federative government of Switzerland. It is situated in the north-west of that country, and is bounded on the north by the Rhine, just before it assumes its northern direction. It has the canton of Argau or Argovia on the east, and that of Solence on the south, with the late bishopric of Basle on the west. Since the late arrangements made by the congress in 1815, the area of this canton is estimated at about 450 square miles, and the population at nearly 60,000. Basle joined the Swiss league in 1501; and it was the first canton which was induced by French influence to separate from the old confederacy, and adopt the new constitution framed by Buonaparte, when the French invaded the country in 1798.

The surface of this canton is agreeably diversified, and presents many picturesque scenes; but exhibits none of that physical grandeur by which Switzerland is in general so powerfully characterized. The climate is mild and salubrious, and the country delightful. Many of the hills are covered with vineyards, or clothed to their summits with luxuriant herbage. The Rhine, which flows along its northern base, adds greatly to the effect of its scenery; for in no part of its course does it fill an ampler channel, or roll its mighty stream with greater rapidity. Basle is therefore one of the most fertile of the Swiss cantons, and yields most of the necessities, and many of the delicacies of life.

Grain, wine and fruits are among the plentiful productions of its genial soil; while its forests abound with game, and its rivers with fish. Here, too, the beauty of nature is seconded by the industry of the inhabitants; for not only is agriculture diligently pursued, but manufactures and all their attendant arts are cherished. While these are encouraged by the fertility of the canton, they give energy to its agriculture; thus mutually supported, they flourish together. The principal of these manufactures are silk, cotton, linen, paper and gloves; besides which there are also extensive bleaching grounds, and several dye-houses. The commerce of this canton is also extensive, as the whole of the goods from Germany to most other parts of Switzerland must pass through it, particularly its capital.

Basle sends three members to the general diet of Switzerland; but in reference to the management of its own internal affairs, it is perfectly independent of any other power. The whole canton is divided into three districts, Basle (the town), Wallenburg, and Liestal; each of these is subdivided into fifteen corporations, by means of which the votes of the inhabitants are taken. Its legislative power is composed of a great council, chosen from the whole body of the people. Every inhabitant who rents lands or houses to the yearly amount of 500 Swiss francs, has a vote in the election of its members, who are 135 in number. This council meets at Basle every six months, to deliberate on all the great political and economical interests of the state, to exercise the legislative power, and to dispose of all the principal offices in the canton. The executive power is entrusted to the smaller council of twenty-five members, who are chosen from among those of the larger; and in which two burgomasters alternately preside. For the defence of the canton, and the supply of its contingent to the confederate army, the city of Basle and its suburbs raise six companies of burghers, while the country furnishes two regiments of militia, including both horse and foot soldiers. The inhabitants of this canton are Protestants, and were always remarkable for the gravity of their deportment, and their attachment to their native country, which many of them seem to regard as the only abode of terrestrial happiness.

BASLE, the capital of the preceding canton, and one of the largest and most commercial cities in Switzerland. It stands on the banks of the Rhine, near the part where that river quits the borders of the confederacy, and assumes its long northern course. It is composed of two parts, called by the inhabitants the greater and less towns, which are joined together by a bridge of 600 feet in length. The Rhine is here deep, broad and rapid. Before Basle joined the Swiss confederacy in 1501, it was a city of the German empire; and though it now contains a population of only about 15,000 inhabitants, it was once crowded to excess; and is still extensive enough to accommodate four times that number. Many of the houses are well built; and Basle, upon the whole, makes a handsome appearance. The cathedral, the town-house and the arsenal have all repeatedly attracted the attention of travellers; but Basle has derived the greatest celebrity from its university, and the great men it has produced. This university was founded in 1459 by Pope Pius II. and contains an excellent library, which is more remarkable for its scarce books, than for the number of

BASLE.

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—
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volumes it contains. A cabinet of medals and a botanical garden are also attached to this university, which was long reckoned among the most eminent seminaries of Europe. The fame of this city has also been perpetuated in the literary history of modern times, by the illustrious men to whom it has either given birth, or been the residence. Among these were Ocolampadius, Grynnus, Buxtorf, Wetstein, Icelin, Hermann, the Bernoullis, Euler and Holbein. Erasmus also lived many years at Basle, and lies interred in the cathedral. The situation of Basle on the banks of the Rhine, and the borders of Switzerland, is favourable to its being a commercial depot, and such it has long been considered with reference to all that part of the confederacy. It has likewise manufactures of silk and cotton, and is the principal place of exchange in Switzerland.

BASLE was also the name of a bishopric, situated between Germany and Switzerland. Its general boundaries were the Sundgau on the north, the canton of Basle on the east, Berne and Soleure on the south, and Franche Comté on the west. This extensive district comprised more than 400 square miles, and nearly 40,000 inhabitants. It was separated into two parts by the Pierre Pertuis; the northern part belonging to Germany, and the southern to Switzerland. The bishop did homage to the emperor, as a prince of the German empire for the one part; and was connected with the Catholic cantons of Switzerland by the other, though he was not considered as a member of the Helvetic confederacy. He was elected by the chapter of canons resident at Arlesheim, subject to the confirmation of the Pope. This government was a limited sovereignty, as he was on all important occasions obliged to consult the chapter. The French took possession of that part of the bishopric which belonged to Germany in 1793, which they formed into the department of Mont Terrible, with which they soon afterwards incorporated several of the other districts that were previously connected with Switzerland. This was afterwards included in the department of the Upper Rhine. In 1815, when France was despoiled of her modern acquisitions, the congress of Vienna assigned the greater part of the bishopric of Basle, with the town and territory of Bienne, to the canton of Berne. A small district was attached to the canton of Basle, another was included in the canton of Neuchâtel, while the bailliwick of Schillingen, which lies on the right bank of the Rhine, had been annexed to Baden in 1802. This last contained about 55 square miles, and 4,000 inhabitants.

BASS,
Ba'ssok. } See BASSNET.

Then you should provide a parcel of small outer twigs, (or *basen*) to tie up some of the largest to bleach.

Müller's Gardening Dictionary. Art. Cichoreum.

BASS ISLAND, a rock near the mouth of the Firth of Forth, in the shire of Haddington, in Scotland, long. W. 7° 45' lat. N. 56° 4'. It is about a mile from the south shore, nearly opposite the ruins of Tantallon castle. The rock is circular, in many places 400 feet in height, and somewhat less than two furlongs in diameter. It is accessible only by a narrow path on the south; on all other sides the waves have excavated the base, and fearful precipices hang beetling over the sea. A cavern penetrates it from north-west to south-east; the centre of which is wholly dark, and a deep pool

of water is found in it. On the summit of the rock is a spring, and a little scanty pasture, which once supplied the garrison of a now ruined castle. The family of Lander were the ancient possessors of this island. In the time of Charles II. it was purchased by the crown, and employed in that and the following reigns as a state prison for the Cameroisians. After the revolution, it was long held by a small party of adherents to the abdicating King, and was the last place in Britain which submitted to William III. The fortifications were then destroyed, and the island was given to the President Dalrymple, to whose descendants it still belongs. It is said to have been the residence of St. Beldred; but it is more certainly known as the favourite resort of sea fowl, among which the solan goose (*Felicoma Bassanus*) is most abundant. These birds generally arrive in March, and after depositing their eggs, for the most part quit in October. A few pass the whole winter on the Bass. The capture of these birds used to supply great part of the laird's rental. They were valued at about twenty pence each.

BASS-RALIER, *bas, low, and relief, from reliever*, to raise. *Low*,—but raised from the surface, slightly raised.

Perhaps the only circumstance in which the modern have excelled the ancient sculptors, is in the management of a single group in *basen relief*, the art of gradually raising the group from the flat surface till it imperceptibly emerges into *alto-relievo*.

Sir Joshua Reynolds. Disc. 2.

BASS RELIEF (*It. Basso Relievo. Fr. Bas Relief.*) will be found more fully investigated under the article SCULPTURE. (Div. 11.) It is sufficient here to state that it is commonly applied to a representation of figures in such manner, that no part of them is wholly detached from the back ground. The term belongs to modern art. Pliny (xxxiii. 11.) applies the word *anephoros* to workmanship of this kind; a term by no means as distinctive as that now in use.

BASSA, or GASSA BASSA, a country on the west coast of Africa, about 400 miles south of Sierra Leone, the extent and population of which do not seem to have been correctly ascertained. The American colonization Society has lately obtained a grant of land from the king, for a settlement on this coast. One of their agents, who recently visited this part of Africa, describes the Bassa as living in small villages, or clusters of cottages, in each of which there is a head-man, who has a plurality of wives, and is the owner of all the people in his town. The inhabitants of each village cultivate the ground in common, which is chiefly done by the women and boys; the men employ themselves in fishing, hunting and trade, and in directing those under them. The adults wear a piece of narrow cloth about their loins, but the children are not barked with any kind of clothing. They are very fond of beads and various other ornaments; and are represented as good-natured people, but extremely ignorant and superstitious, depending solely upon their greengrocers and devil worship, to whom they make daily sacrifices, and even dedicate a part of their regular food. Another account describes them as friendly and well disposed, and as quite eloquent in their palavers. The country and climate are also well reported of.

BASSAIM, (Vael or Vael, with the Portuguese nasal, termination,) a port on the coast of Malabar, in the province of Airangabad, in lat. 10° 20' N. and long. 72° 56' E. separated by a narrow strait from the

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BASSADM. island of Salsette. It is advantageously placed at the foot of the Ghats which furnish the tank timber (*Tien, Tectona grandis*) for the docks at Bombay; and the surrounding country is in a much higher state of cultivation than the island of Salsette. It was ceded to the Portuguese in 1531, by the Sultan of Cambayah; was wrested from them by the Mahattas in 1780; and was permanently secured to that power, at the peace of 1802. (Hamilton's *Hindustan*, ii. 150.)

BASS STRAITS, is the channel that separates New Holland from Van Diemen's land. It is nearly fifty leagues in length from east to west, and almost as much from north to south. Several groups of islands are situated in these straits, which are generally barren spots, but they render the navigation dangerous. The early navigators who explored those regions, considered Van Diemen's land as forming the southern extremity of the great Australian continent, till Mr. Bass, a surgeon in the navy, in running down the eastern coast, was persuaded that there were indications of a strait in the parallel of 40°; and he and Lieutenant Flinders were sent in 1798, to bring these conjectures to the test of experience. In the space of about three months, they returned to Port Jackson, with an interesting survey of Van Diemen's land, which they had completely circumnavigated; and thus fully realized the conjectures that gave rise to their expedition.

BASSANO, a commercial and flourishing town of Italy, situated in the Venetian territory, and on the bank of the river Brenta. The town itself is not large, but the suburbs are spacious, and the population is about 12,000 or 13,000. A stone bridge connects it with the large village of Vicentino, which stands on the opposite bank of the river. The situation is salubrious, and the climate of the surrounding district is favourable for the cultivation of the olive and the vine. Silk, cloth, and leather, are the principal articles of trade. This town is distinguished by the printing office of Remontini, from which there annually issues a considerable number of elegant works. When Buonaparte changed the ancient constitution of Italy, and converted the northern part of the peninsula into a kingdom of that name, Bassano was included in the department of Tagliamento; but was afterwards created into a Duchy, with a revenue of £2,500, and bestowed, in 1809, upon his minister Maret, who was then created Duke of Bassano. This town is about 12 miles north of Vicenza, and 80 west of Treviso. Latitude 45° 46' north, and longitude 11° 43' east.

The chief celebrity of this town is derived from Giacomo da Ponte, who from his birth place assumed the title of Bassano. This eminent painter was born in 1510, and received his first instructions from his father Francisco da Ponte, himself also a painter. He afterwards studied at Venice, and is believed to have been a pupil of Titian. The pictures which bear his name are numerous; but as his four sons followed the same art as their father, the genuine works of this artist are doubtless frequently confounded with those of the rest of his family, to whom he was esteemed by his contemporaries not a little superior. His favourite subjects were such parts of Scripture as permitted the introduction of rural scenery, and in these all his figures and objects were copied from nature. His style, though not of the highest class, is vivid and elegant; and his authenticated pictures are highly valued.

BASSE, in Zoology, the English name of the *Peron Labrax*. See *PERCA*.

BASSE TERRE, the principal town in the island of St. Christopher's, one of the West India islands. It is situated on the south-east shore, at the mouth of a small river that falls into the bay or road of that name; and consists of about 800 houses, forming a long street, nearly parallel to the shore. The trade of this port is considerable.

BASSE TERRE is also the chief town and fort in Guadeloupe, one of the Caribbean chain; and is likewise the name of the eastern part of the island itself. The town is situated near the south-west extremity. Its streets are regular, and ornamented with several good buildings. The fountains, gardens, and hedges in the vicinity contribute greatly to enliven the place; but its port is merely an open road. Guadeloupe has always been noted for the beauty of its females; and there are perhaps more handsome women to be seen in this town, than in any other in the West Indies. Latitude 15° 59' north, and longitude 61° 45' west.

BASSET, the name of a game at cards formerly much played, especially in France. It is very similar to the modern Faro. It provoked severe edicts from Louis XIV. and after this was played under the name of *pour et contre*. De Moivre in his *Doctrine of Chances*, has calculated many problems connected with this game.

At Basset the banker deals the cards by pairs. Each punter has a *liet* of thirteen cards, from which he selects one or more as his stake. Then the principle of the game depends upon the answering card in the banker's pack being turned up in an odd or even place, according to which the punter wins or loses. In all cases the advantage is greatly on the side of the banker, although there are various seeming *bonuses* held out to allure the punter. Thus having won the first stake by turning up a corner of his card, he makes a *paroli*, or *risque* both stake and gain; a second corner implies *sept et le va*; a third *quatre et le va*; a fourth *treize et le va*; the last and highest is *seize et le va*, in which the punter, if he has won all the former, may venture to hazard sixty-three times his original stake.

BASSET, a term in mining. When any metallic substance appears on the surface, it is said to *basset*.

BASSIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Dodecandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: calyx of four leaves; corolla eight-lobed, tube inflated; stamina sixteen; drupa five-seeded.

An Indian genus, containing three species, one of which, called the Mahwah tree, is figured in Roxburgh's *Plants of Coromandel*, tab. 19.

BASSOON, (*bas son*, Fr. low sound,) is an instrument which forms the natural base to the *hautbois*. Like that instrument it is played with a reed, and forms a continuation of its scale downwards. The reed is fixed to a crooked mouth-piece issuing from the side of the Bassoon. Three keys communicate to the ventages which otherwise are too remote for fingering. The Italian name *fagotto* is derived from its appearance; it consists of four tubes bound together so as somewhat to resemble a fagot. Its compass is three octaves, from double A in the base, to a in the second space of the treble.

BASRAH, the capital of a pishkirk of the same name, now united with that of Baghdad, lat. 30° 38' N. long. 48° 20' E. It is the residence of the mutsallim

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or deputy of the Pashah, and is one of the principal commercial towns of the Turkish empire. It is on the western side of the Shatt-el-Arab, or united stream of the Tigris and Euphrates, about half way between their point of union and the Persian gulph. It was begun by order of the Khalif Omar, in the year of the Hejrah 14 (a. p. 636), and it was well calculated by its position to command the trade between India and the west. It is placed in a fertile country on a river which has depth enough for ships of the largest burthen; and is not more than sixty miles from the sea. It was once in a very flourishing state (Din Himmak's Geogr. p. 63.) but it is now much fallen off. Its markets are still tolerably well supplied, particularly with fruit; a sufficient proof of the luxuriance of the soil: though the lower grounds are rendered barren by the annual inundations of the river, which is brackish. This evil was doubtless checked by the 5,000 canals of which the old writers speak; nothing now is left during the hottest months but stagnant pools that fill the air with pestilential vapours. It is in vain that the inhabitants endeavour to prevent this mischief by embankments: the government gives them no material assistance; the moulds are seldom strong enough to resist the force of the water long, and Basrah is in summer-time, the grave of those who are condemned to inhabit it. The incursions of the Wahabees, and the successes of the Jowissim pirates, contributed likewise for some years to hasten the ruin of this place: but owing to the vigorous government of Mohammed Ali, Pashah of Egypt, and the gallantry of our countrymen who assisted the Ismael of Mesopotamia, both these evils are now removed. The population, a mixed multitude of Arabs, Turks, Persians, Armenians, Jews, Europeans and Hindis, amounts to about 40,000. They still carry on a considerable trade, which is principally in the hands of the Arabs and some English houses. Coffee from Mokkha; pearls from Bahrein; cloths, silks, embroidery, spices and drugs from India; dried fruits, tobacco, carpets, and musk from Persia; bullion and different manufactured goods from Europe, are the staple commodities in which they deal. Horses from the neighbouring deserts, are also an article of considerable importance. These animals are of the genuine Arab breed, and are highly prized, particularly in India.

Basrah fell into the hands of the Turks, on the taking of Bagdad by Murad IV. in 1638, (a. p. 1648.) but was not made a separate Pashalik till 1668. (a. n. 1079.) It is retaken by the Persians in 1776, after a siege of thirteen months; but was abandoned after the death of Kerim Khan, in 1779. It is now protected by the neighbouring Arab tribes of Khaba on the east, and Muntefik on the west, who receive an annual subsidy of 100,000 piastres (£5,000) for their services. (*Description du Pashalik de Bagdad*, Paris 1809; *Waring's Tour to Sheeraz*; *Mirza Abu Tahi's Travels*, vol. ii.; *Jehân-numâ*, p. 451; *Ottier, Voyages*, ii. 47; *Niebuhr's Reise*, ii. 309.

BASSOVIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Pentandria, order Monogynia. Generic character: calyx quinquepartite; corolla rotata; berry many-seeded, nodulose; seeds membranaceous at the margin, nestling.

This genus contains one species, a native of Cayenne. *Aubl. Plantes de la Guiane*, p. 217. tab. 85.

BASTARD, s.
BA' STARD, s.
BA' STARD, s.
BA' STARD, s.
BA' STARD, s.
BA' STARD, s.

Ger. bastard; Dutch *bastard*; Fr. *bastard*; It. and Sp. *bastardo*.
From *bas*, low, mean, disgraceful; and perhaps *ard*, A. S. source, origin, birth. But see *Hicas*, P. ii. p. 93; Also *Ménage*, *Wächter*, and *Kilian*.

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A bastard is one begotten out of wedlock. To bastard is to declare bastard, or base-born. Bastard, adj. is also applied to any thing not proceeding from a legitimate source; not genuine. *Naaf* is not uncommon, without the termination *ard*, in old writers.

And of jukes blode saye Wyllam *bastard* com,
As ye soille her after yuare, and wiled to wyndon.

R. Gloucester, p. 295.

When he was arjued, he sent to Harald,
And said, Jut a *bastard* to hynom schold.

R. Bruner, p. 51.

And so abee [*Queen Anne*] putting in oblation the *bastardage* of her daughter, delivered into king Richard's hands her son daughter, as lumbes once agayne committed to the custody of the rauenous wolfe,
Grafton, Rich. 3. Ann. 3.

And over this he [*Sir R. Bolyngbrooke*] hadde of *bast*, whiche after were made legitymat, by danc: Katherine Seynford in souys.
Falsen, Ann. 1386. R. 2.

But the chief thing & the weighty of all that inuention, rested in this y^e they should allege *bastardy*, either in king Edward itself, or in his childre, or both. *Sir Thomas More's Works*, lib. 58.
The Queen's Majesty will wink at it, but not stablish it by law, which is nothing else but to bastard our childrenes.

Burnet. Records, v. li. P. li. p. 458.

When thou shalt find the catalogue enroll'd
Of thy misdeeds, there shall be writ in text,
Thy *bastarding* the issues of a prince.

Ford's Love's Sacrifice, act v. sc. 1.

I should have bin that I am, had the maidenlike starr in the firmament twinkled on my bastarding.

Shakespeare. Lear, fol. 286.

Debonaire, after he had rid himself of his nephew by a violent death; and of his bastard brothers by a civil death (having inclosed them with some guard, all the days of their lives within a monastery) held himself secure from all opposition.

Revel's History of the World, pref. x.

O Jupiter, most high, most great, and all the destitute powers,
Who first shall dare to violate the late sworn oath of ours,
So let the bloods and brains of them, and all they shall produce
Flow on the stain'd face of the curst; as now, this sacred juice.
And let their wives with *bastards*, brand all their future race.

Chapman. Homer's Iliad, fol. 44.

The apostle *bastardizeth* those that suffer not. It is a sign of sonship to be chastity'd.

Philippi. Reueler, 57.

Good seed degenerates, and oft obeys

The soil's disease, and into cockle strays:
Let the mind's thoughts be but transcribed on
Lain the body, and *bastardy* they grow.

Danoe. To the Countess of Bedford.

They blot my name with *bastard* bastardy,
That I sprang not from their nobility;
They my alliance utterly refuse,
Nor will a surname shall their name abuse.

Drayton's England's Heroical Epistles.

Bastardy sounds not in king's titles, nor
Sinny and sodomy in churchman's lives,
As these things do in him; by these he thrives.

Danoe. Satire ii.

Not more of sinny beneath black gowne.

Not more of *bastardy* in heirs to crowne.

Pope's Imitation of Danoe.

A *bastard* by our English laws, is one that is not only begotten, but born, out of a lawful matrimony. Blackstone. Commentary i. 454.
From a similar principle to which, though the forest-laws are now mitigated, and by degrees grown entirely obsolete, yet from this root has sprung a *bastard* slip, known by the name of the game law, and now arrived to and waxing in its highest vigour.
Id. ii. 415.

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But upon the king's divorce from Anna Bolyn, this statute was with regard to the settlement of the crown, repealed by statute 28 Henry VIII. c. 7. wherein the Lady Elizabeth is also, as well as the Lady Mary, bastardized, and the crown settled on the king's children by Queen Jane Seymour, and his future wives.

Blackstone's Commentaries, l. 206.

BASTARD, in *English Law*, one whose parents were not lawfully married to each other, previously to his birth. This definition will comprehend those cases, in which a child born in lawful wedlock is yet accounted a Bastard. Some of these cases shall be mentioned in their proper places.

Upon this very important subject, the spirit and inclination of the Common law of this country has ever been in direct opposition to the rules of both the civil and the Canon law. By the two latter, children born before marriage are legitimated by the subsequent marriage of their parents, provided, that at the time of the birth of the children, it was lawful for both of the parents to intermarry. This was established in the Civil law by Constantine, and confirmed by Justinian; in the Canon law by a constitution of Alexander III. in 1160. The doctrine of legitimation prevails with different modifications in France, Germany, Holland, and Scotland. In England it was never admitted; every attempt at its introduction was defeated, and when the clergy at the parliament at Norton, 20 Henry III. moved that all children born before marriage should be legitimate, because the church or the Canon law holds such to be so, all the Earls and Barons answered with one voice in words, which must deeply interest every Englishman's feelings, *quod nolant leges Anglie mutare, que hucusque utilitate sunt et approbate*.

But although the English law has very wisely, for the conservation of morals and the avoidance of disputes, declared those born out of wedlock to be Bastards; yet it has, on the other hand, in this as in other cases, respected the passions of human nature, and has given every encouragement to those who may be anxious to redeem the error and the injury which they may have committed, by providing, that if the offspring of an illegitimate intercourse be born within marriage, such offspring shall be legitimate. This lenient provision is carried to the utmost length. Thus, if a man marry a woman grossly big with child by another, and within three days after, she be delivered, such issue is legitimate. If a child be born within a day after marriage between parties of full age, if there be no apparent impossibility that the husband should be the father of it, the child is legitimate. So also, although the usual time of gestation is forty weeks, yet the law allows for the uncertainty attending these matters: and in one case a child was declared legitimate, notwithstanding the lapse of forty-one weeks and three days, and the lewd character of the wife in addition. *Nam semper presumitur pro legitimatione*.

If, however, there be good reason to suspect that a widow feigns herself with child for the purpose of producing a supposititious heir to the estate, the heir presumptive is entitled to his writ *de ventre inspiciendo*, to examine whether she be really pregnant or not; and if she be so found, to keep her under proper restraint, till she be delivered.

It was blasted above that there are cases where children born during wedlock may be Bastards. This happens when access by the husband was impossible, or highly improbable. Thus, if the husband be out of

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the kingdom, or as the legal phrase is, *extra quatuor menses*, for nine months previously to the birth of a child, such child is illegitimate.

In a divorce a *mens et thoro* the subsequent issue of the wife are Bastards, unless access be distinctly proved; but in a voluntary separation by agreement, the children shall be presumed legitimate, unless the contrary be proved.

In a divorce a *vinculo matrimonii* in the spiritual court all the issue of the marriage are illegitimate; because such a divorce always rests upon the ground that the marriage was void *ab initio*. By parity of reason, the children of a person guilty of highway are Bastards.

Modern decisions have considerably narrowed the operation of the old rule of *extra quatuor menses*. It is now held that the husband's being within the four seas is not conclusive evidence of the legitimacy of the child, and it is left to a jury to determine whether the husband had access or not. 3 P. W. 275, 276. 2 Sir. 925. And evidence may be given, that the husband was from natural or incidental causes impotent. 2 Str. 940. 1 Roll. Abr. 338. 1 Salk. 193. But in this latter case an impossibility must be proved, and not a bare improbability.

As to the rights of Bastards, they are of two sorts, natural and civil. 1. Every Bastard, besides the political liberties common to every subject of the crown, has a right of maintenance from his parents by the English law, which, unlike the Roman law in certain cases, refuses to visit the crime of the father and mother upon the innocent offspring, by depriving him of all claim during his infancy upon his natural protectors. The English law also recognizes the relationship of blood existing between them for other purposes. Thus a man shall not marry his Bastard sister or daughter.

2. A Bastard, by law, has no father. He is called *filius nullius* or *filius populi*. Hence he has no surname by inheritance, though he may gain one by reputation. As he is son to nobody, he is heir to nobody, and therefore can in no case inherit any thing lineally or collaterally. The following case is hardly to be considered an exception to this rule, because the right is only attainable through the voluntary laches of the lawful heir: viz. If a man be seized in fee, and hath issue two sons, the eldest (termed in law) *Bastard signat*, and the youngest *mulier pueri*, and the father die, and the Bastard enter claiming as heir to his father, and occupy the land during life without entry made by the mother; if in this case the Bastard die seized and his issue enter, the right of the legitimate heir is barren for ever. For, although the father had never any right, and might have been ousted at any time, yet his issue is the heir as lawfully as if he himself had been the first purchaser; and the uncle who has been so grossly indifferent to his rights during the life of the father, shall never evict the son, whom the law now regards as the true heir to the grandfather.

A Bastard may purchase as well as a legitimate person, and may of course transmit his possessions to his own lineal descendants. If he dies intestate without issue, it was formerly held that the Ordinary might seize his goods and dispose of them in *pious uses*. But it is now usual to procure letters patent, or other authority from the King; and then administration is granted of course to such appointee of the Crown.

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BASTE.

It only remains to add, that a Bastard may be legitimated and rendered capable of inheriting by the transcendent power of an act of parliament; as was done in the case of John of Gaunt's children by Katherine Swinford, in the 20 Rich. II. 4 Inst. 36.

BASTE, *v.* } Swe. *basa*, to cut, to strike;
BASTINA/DK, *v.* } whence Ibre thinks the English
BASTINA/DO, *v.* } *baste*; Fr. *bastonner*; It. *bastonnare*;
BASTINA/DE, *n.* } Fr. *bastonnade*; Sp. *bastonada*; It.
BASTINA/DO, *n.* } *bastonato*.
Bastonner, to strike, beat, bang, bethwack, (with a cudgel.) Cotgrave.

But so it was that he [John Davies] being a high-spirited young man, did, upon some little provocation or punctilio, *bastonnado* Richard Martin [afterwards Recorder of London] in the common hall of the Middle Temple, while he was at dinner.

Wood. *Athenae Oxon.* i. 545.

Also, if any man disclose their secrets, especially in time of warre, he receiveth an hundred blowes on the backe with a *bastonnado* lay'd on by a tall fellow.

Hobbes. *Voyages*, &c. *The Turke*, v. l.

Who hath this wonder wrought?

The late late *bastonnado*. No I thought

What several ways men to their calling have;

The bodie's stripes, I see, the soule may save.

Johnson. *Epigram on a Reformed Gentleman*.

He glist the *bastonnado* with his tongue

Our ears are cudgel'd, not a word of his

But *bastetta* better than a fist of France.

Shakespeare. *King John*, fol. 7.

Tir'd with dispute, and speaking Latin,

As well as beating and bawling,

And desperate of any course,

To free himself by wit or force.

Better. *Andronicus*, part II. canto I.

The braver soldier proves most mindful,

That, like his reward, endures the scurril,

And justly's held more formidable,

The more his valour's unkillable;

But he that fears a *bastonnado*,

Will run away from his own shadow.

Id. part II. canto I.

A waiting-maid to travelling nobles chose,

If his own laws would surely impose,

Till *bastonnado* back, again he went

To learn those manners he to teach was sent.

Dryden. *Amour et Amour*.

In Turkey, says Montaigne, where little regard is shown to the lives or fortunes of the subject, all causes are quickly decided. The *basha*, on a summary hearing, orders which party he pleases to be *bastonnado*, and then sends them about their business.

Blackstone. *Commentaries*, iii. 423.

BASTE, *v.* To baste meat, Skinner believes, is the same *baste*—to strike; because formerly it was the custom to rub the meat with a stick covered with fat; though now the liquid is dropped upon the meat from a distance.

For in their onely railing standeth all their reuil, with onely raytinge is all their rude meate *basted*, and all their potts seasoned.

St. Thomas More's *Works*, fol. 866.

Many a gossip's cup in my time have I tasted,

And many a broche and spyt have I both turned and *basted*.

Gentleman's *Curiosities*, act I. scene I.

Not any sir, is it dinner time?

S. DRO. No sir, I think the meat wants that I have.

ANT. In good time sir; what's that?

S. DRO. *Roasting*.

ANT. Well sir, then 'twill be that.

S. DRO. If it be sir, I pray you eat none of it.

ANT. Your reason?

S. DRO. Lest it make you cholericke, and purchase me another *dish* *basting*.

Shakespeare. *Comedy of Errors*, fol. 88.

These, all bound together in one chain, almost dead with famine, and wasted with torments, having had their naked bodies *basted* or dropped over with burning tallow; Raleigh also, to his great reputation, deliver'd from their captivity.

Old. *Life of Sir Walter Raleigh*, fol. lxxviii.

Brown and L'Estrange will surely charm whom'er

The frothy pertness strikes of weak small-beer.

Who steep the calf's hot loin in gramy sauce,

Will hardly taste the praise that haunts an ass.

Armstrong. *On Taste*.

BASTE, *v.* *Basten*. Fris. *Siccomb*. To sew or stitch together slightly. Kilian.

For out of town we list to goe

The score of brides for to here,

That on the benches singen cleve

That in the sweet season that life is

With a thrice beating my clevis.

Chambers. *Romanes of the East*, fol. 116. c. 8.

And on her lips she painted buskins wore,

Basted with beads of gold on every side,

And mailles between, and laced close above.

Spenser. *Fairie Queen*, book v. c. v.

BEVE. Nay moke not, moke not; the body of your discourse as sometimes guarded with fragments, and the words are but slightly *basted* on neither.

Shakespeare. *Mark Ide about Nothing*, fol. 163.

Shakespeare. Shall the proud lord

That *bastes* his arrogance with his own science,

And sever suffers matter of the world

Ester his thoughts; since such as do resolve

And raminate himself. Shall he be worship'd,

Of that we hold an idol, more than hee.

Id. *Troilus and Cressida*, fol. 88.

BASTIA, the former capital, and now the second town, of the island of Corsica. It was the ancient *Martinorum Oppidum*, and stands on the acclivity of a hill, overlooking the sea, on the north-east side of the island. Its trade is chiefly in skins, wine, oil, pulse, and fruit, most of which are produced, in great abundance, in the neighbourhood. It is chiefly noted for its manufacture of stilettoes, which are much valued by the Italians. It has often been besieged and captured, and now contains a population of about 3,000. Lat. 43° 42' N. and long. 9° 36' E.

BA/STILLE, or } Bastille Fr.; *bastide* Sp. From
BA/STILLING, } the Fr. *bastir* to build; q. d. *edificium* *bullicum*. But whence *bastir*? Perhaps, says Skinner, from the Greek and Latin *basia*; q. d. *basire*, i. e. to raise upon a base or foundation.

These lordes caused *bastilles* to be made rounde about the citty, with the which they troubled their enemies, and annoyed the walls.

Hall. *King Henry VI.* fol. 166.

The same reason there was captivus at Calais Sir John De-launoy, who occupied the lynchpitt and his company with secret loye; and so they landed lynch and lynch, and all their hewes and baggage, and so lodged in Calais and there about, in *bastilles* that they made dayly.

Frasier. *Cronicle*, v. l. C. 329.

On the next day in the morning, the Frenchmen altogether issued out of the town, & wance the *bastille* of Saint Louis by assault, & set it on fire.

Stowe. *Ann.* 1429. M. 6.

Our soldiers rose at the call of their captains, and removed their munitions far from the wall, providing to fight more close and short along the high *bastilles*, or counter-murres, which now that they were finished overtopped the walls.

Holland. *Ammanius*, fol. 162.

And that they should lack neither injurie nor spite in the Pope's dogges, when the emperor saw that, whether he would or no, the Pope would needs fall in with France, then he devised the way that such *bastilles* and fortres of fence as were made about Mirandula when it was besieged, might either be delivered to his men hands, or else defaced, that the Frenchmen might not have them.

Johnson. *Report and Discourse*.

2 a 2

BASTILLE.

Nowe was there upon the promontorie, 'whyche is agaynst Salomayne, on the cote of Megure, a bastillion which certayne sooldiours Athenys did kepe, and in the sea breetheth them thre galleys.

Nichols. *Thucydides*, fol. 69.

—The Bastille,
Ye horrid tow'rs, th' abode of broken hearts,
Ye dungeons and ye cages of despair,
That monarchs have supplied from age to age
With music such as suits their sov'reign ears—
The sighs and groans of miserable men!
There's not an English heart that would not leap
To hear that ye were full at last; to know
That ev'n our enemies, so oft employ'd
In forging chains for us, themselves were free.

Cooper. *Task*, book v.

BASTILLE, the chief prison of state in France. There were several state prisons dignified with this title, but that which was termed *The Bastille*, by way of distinction, was situated at the gates of Paris, near the road to St. Anthony, and is the only one sufficiently celebrated to require notice in this place. It was originally projected in the reign of Charles V. by Hugh d'Aubriot, mayor of Paris, who laid the first stone, on the 24th of April, 1370. D'Aubriot was a native of Dijon, in Burgundy, born of obscure parents, but raised by his merit into such favour with his sovereign, that the charge of the capital was entrusted to him; and the Pont au change, the embankment along the Seine, near the gate of St. Anthony, and the first subterranean drains to carry off the filth of the town, were evidences of his ingenuity and care.

The Bastille, as planned by d'Aubriot, consisted only of two round towers, one on each side of the road leading into Paris from the suburbs St. Anthony; they were joined together with a high and strong wall, in the centre of which was the gate of the town. Some years afterwards two other towers were built opposite to the two first, and under Charles VI. several others were erected; and, by means of intervening walls, two complete courts were formed, which may be regarded as the body of the edifice: at the same time the road was turned off to the right of the castle, and the whole building enclosed with a deep ditch, and secured by a counterscarp of nearly thirty-six feet from the bottom. There were, indeed, other buildings subsequently erected, but of no very material importance. The usual entry into the Bastille was from the street St. Anthony. Over the first gate was an armoury: to the right of the entrance was a guard-room. In the first enclosure were barracks for the garrison; coach-houses, and stables, for the governor and officers; and shops for sutlers. A gate led thence to the arsenal. The way into the second enclosure was by a draw-bridge: on entering it was a guard-room to the left, and on the right the governor's house. At the end of this court was a terrace, with rows of trees, and a pavilion. Immediately opposite to the governor's house was the entrance into the castle; and between the two were kitchens and other offices, erected on a blind bridge thrown across the ditch. The passage into the castle was over a draw-bridge, and within the gate was a third guard-room. The first court was 102 feet long, and 72 broad, with six towers, and was terminated by a modern building, on the ground floor of which was the council chamber and library; and above, the apartments of the Lieutenant du Roi, the major, surgeon, and other officers, with some rooms, appropriated for prisoners of distinction. The second court was 75 feet long, and 42

broad, and contained two towers, with lodgings for persons belonging to the castle.

It was in the towers of the Bastille that prisoners were usually confined. The entrances to these were secured by double doors of oak, about three inches thick. In each tower was a winding staircase, which descended to a dungeon below, and led to the rooms above. The dungeons were arched, paved, and lined with stone, and most of them had a slit towards the ditch, that let in air, and a very small degree of light. There was no stove or fire-place in any one of them. It was said that they were intended as places of temporary punishment, for prisoners who attempted to escape; but there were other occasions on which they were used. It was in these dungeons that the unfortunate Princes of Armagnac, sons of James, who was beheaded, were confined, by Louis XI. The eldest lost his senses in prison, the youngest obtained his liberty, after the death of the tyrant, and related a tale of suffering that now almost exceeds belief, although it was, at that time, fully credited. Above these dungeons were four stories, containing each a single room; and some of these had a small dark closet adjoining to them, made in the thickness of the wall. The three first stories were irregular polygons, of about 16 feet in diameter, and as many in height; the fourth, or the room at the top of the tower, called *la calotte*, was not quite so large, nor so high, and was arched to support the stone roof or platform. The walls were strongly built of stone and mortar: they were near seven English feet thick at the top, and the thickness gradually increased towards the foundations. The rooms had one window each, glazed within and doubly grated; one near the centre of the wall, and again at its exterior surface. The walls were perfectly dry; and, owing to their extreme thickness, persons long confined in the Bastille, declared that they were not so much incommoded by the cold in winter, or heat in summer, as they had been, at the same season, in the town of Paris. All the rooms, except the dungeons, had a fire-place or stove. The vents of the chimneys were secured by strong iron grates, placed at certain distances from each other: the walls and ceilings were plastered and white-washed, and the floors laid with tile, or stone. The doors of the rooms were double, and with as many locks and bars as those that shut the entrances to the towers; and to many of the rooms were double ceilings, one of lath and plaster, and the other of oak, on which rested the stone floor of the room above. The staircases were lighted by narrow windows, with iron grates, like those of the rooms. Such we believe to be a tolerably accurate description of this place of horror, in which hundreds were confined, at the mere will and pleasure of a monarch, or a minister; and, so rigidly were the wretched victims concealed, that many have been shut up for years, and denied communication with all mankind, except the keepers of the prison; so that neither friends nor families have been able to discover what was become of him whom they had so mysteriously lost.

The officers who had the charge of the Bastille were a governor, Lieutenant du Roi, a major, with two adjutants, a surgeon, and his assistant, a chaplain, and four turnkeys; these, with a company of invalids, and its usual number of officers, lodged in the castle; and, besides them, were a physician, two priests to assist the chaplain, a keeper of records, a clerk, a super-

BASTILLE.

BASTILE. intendant of buildings, and an engineer, whose services being only required occasionally, lodged in the town. The king allowed the governor a certain daily sum for the maintenance of each prisoner: for a Prince of the blood, the allowance seems to have been 50 livres a-day; for a merchant of France, 36; a Lieutenant-general, 24; a person of quality, or member of the Parliaments, 15; an ordinary Judge, a priest, or person in the finances, 10; and a respectable citizen, 5; and, in addition, the governor received a salary for firing, candles, and washing. The mode of arresting prisoners was by *lettres de cachet*, which were sometimes signed by the king himself, and always countersigned, either by the minister of Paris, or by one of the secretaries of state. The following is a good specimen of one of those fatal instruments:

"*Mon Cousin,*

"*Etant peut satisfait de votre conduite, je vous fais cette lettre, pour vous dire, que mon intention est qu'aussitôt qu'elle vous aura été remise, vous ayez à vous rendre en mon château de la Bastille, pour y rester jusqu'à nouvel ordre de moi. Sur ce je prie Dieu qu'il vous ait, mon Cousin, en sa sainte garde. Ecrit à Versailles, le 25 Juin, 1748.*

"*Signé, LOUIS,*

"*Foyer d'Argenson.*"

It was inscribed,

"*A mon Cousin, le Prince de Monaco, Brigadier en son Infanterie.*"

As soon as a prisoner arrived, he was examined in the council chamber, by the major, in presence of the *Lieutenant du Roi*; every thing was then taken from him that could be employed to commit violence on himself or others, or to facilitate his escape. These were put into a box, and labelled with the tower, and number of the chamber in which he was to be confined, and by which he was afterwards called; so that on no occasion was the name of a prisoner ever pronounced, the appellations being No. 1, *de la Bertaudière*; No. 2, *du Trivier*; No. 3, *de la Liberté*, &c.

But the best idea of the Bastille, and mode of treatment, will be derived from the account of a person confined there, under the mildest regime, for more than eight months. It was communicated to the author of the *History of the Bastille*, by the writer himself, who is characterized as one of scrupulous veracity, and is as follows: "About five in the morning, on the 2d of April, 1771, I was awaked by a violent knocking at my chamber door, and was commanded, in the name of the King, to open it. I did so, and an Exempt of the Police, three men and a Commissary, entered my room. They desired me to dress myself, and began to search the apartment. They ordered me to open my drawers; and, having examined my papers, they took such as they chose, and put them into a box, which, as I understood afterwards, was carried to the Police-office. The Commissary asked me my name, my age, the place where I was born, how long I had been at Paris, and the manner in which I spent my time. The examination was written down, a list was made of every thing found in the room, which, with the examination, I was desired to read and sign. The Exempt then told me to take all my body-linen, and such clothes as I chose, and to come with them. Having shut and sealed the drawers, they desired me to follow; and, in going out,

they locked the chamber door, and took the key. On coming into the street, I found a coach, into which I was desired to go, and the others followed me. After sitting for some time, the Commissary told me they were carrying me to the Bastille, and soon afterwards I saw the towers. They did not go the shortest and direct road: the coach stopped at the gate in the street St. Anthony. I saw the coachman make signs to the sentinel, and soon after the gate was opened; the guard was under arms, and the gate shut again. On coming to the first drawbridge, it was let down, the guard there also being under arms. The coach went on, and entered the castle, where a third guard was stationed. I was conducted to a room that I heard named the council chamber. After an examination similar to that of the Commissary, I was desired to empty my pockets, and lay what I had in them on the table. My handkerchief and snuff-box being returned to me, my money, watch, and indeed every thing else, were put into a box, and an inventory having been made, sealed up in my presence. The major then called for the turkey whose turn of duty it was, and asked what room was empty. He said the *cellote de la Bertaudière*. He was ordered to convey me to it, and to carry thither my linen and my clothes. The turkey having done so, left me, and locked the doors. The weather was still extremely cold, and I was glad to see him return soon after, with fire-wood, a tinder-box, and a candle. He made my fire, but told me, on leaving the tinder-box, that I might in future do it myself, when so inclined. At eleven the turkey entered with my dinner. Having spread the table with a clean napkin, he placed the dishes on it, cut the meat, and retired, taking away the knife; the dishes, plates, fork, spoon, and goblet, were of pewter. The dinner consisted of soup and bouillie, a piece of roasted meat, a bottle of good table wine, a pound loaf of the best kind of household bread. In the evening at seven he brought my supper, which consisted of a roast dish and a ragout. The same ceremony was observed in cutting the meat, to render the knife unnecessary to me. He took away the dishes he had brought for dinner, and returned at eight next morning to remove the supper things. Fridays and Saturdays being fast or *maigre* days, the dinners consisted of soup, a dish of fish, and two dishes of vegetables; the suppers of two dishes of garden stuff and an omelet, or something made with eggs and milk. The dinners and suppers of each day in the week were different, but every Friday was the same: so that the ordinary class of prisoners saw in the course of the first week their bill of fare for fifty years, if they staid so long. I had remained in my room about three weeks, when I was one morning carried down to the council chamber, and again examined by the Commissary. He then asked if I had any knowledge of some works he named, meaning those that had been written by me: if I was acquainted with the author of them; whether there were any persons concerned with him; and if I knew whether they had been printed? I told him, that, as I did not mean to conceal any thing, I should avoid giving him needless trouble; that I was myself the author of the works he had mentioned, and guessed I was there on that account; that they never had been printed; that the work which I conceived was the cause of my confinement, had never been shewn to any but one person, whom I thought my

BASTILE. friend; and, having an accomplice, the affeece, if there was any, rested solely with myself. He said my examination was one of the shortest he had ever been employed at, for it ended here. I was carried back to my room, and the next day was shaved, for the first time since my confinement, it being usual never to shave a prisoner till after his first examination. A few days afterwards I wrote to the Lieutenant of the Police, requesting to be indulged with the use of books, pen, ink, and paper, which was granted; but I was not allowed to go down to the library, (a collection of about 500 volumes, founded by some prisoner in the early part of the eighteenth century,) to choose the books. Several volumes were brought to me by the turnkey, who, when I desired it, carried them back and brought others.

"After my last examination, I was taken down almost daily, and allowed to walk about an hour in the court, within view of the sentinel; but my walks were frequently interrupted; for if any one appeared, the sentinel called out 'au cabinet!' and I was then obliged to conceal myself hastily in a kind of dark closet in the wall.

"The sheets of my bed were changed once a fortnight; I was allowed four towels a week, and my linen was taken to be washed every Saturday. I had a tallow-candle daily; and in the cold season a certain number of pieces of fire-wood. After being detained above eight months, I was informed that an order had come to discharge me. I was desired to go down to the council chamber; every thing I had brought with me was returned, together with the key of my apartment, which I found exactly in the state I left it. During my confinement, I wrote many letters to several of my friends, which were always received with civility; but not one of them had been delivered."

It will not be supposed that all prisoners were treated with the lenity and indulgence shewn to the individual whose account we have now given, although no proof of the iron cages and instruments of torture, which were commonly imagined to be appendages to this establishment, was discovered at the destruction of the edifice. Solitary confinement, in itself the most dreadful of all punishments, seems to have been the principal use to which the Bastille was devoted; and it will not be surprising, if many persons, worn out by care and anxiety, with all the horrors of uncertainty as to their own fate, or that of the nearest and most beloved relatives, sank under their misfortunes, and either lost their reason, or terminated their sufferings in a slow and lingering death.

The most extraordinary prisoner ever confined in the Bastille, was the man with the mask, concerning whom curiosity and conjecture have been equally excited and disappointed; for to the present moment nothing authentic has transpired as to the name of the unknown. He was brought by Mons. de St. Mars, then newly appointed governor of the Bastille, from the island of St. Marguerite, in 1698; was attended with the greatest respect, and had every possible indulgence granted him till the time of his death, which was Nov. 19, 1703. When M. de St. Mars was successively promoted from the keeperships of St. Pignerol and St. Marguerite to the Bastille, this mysterious prisoner accompanied him; he was carried in a litter, accompanied by several men on horseback, who had orders to put him to death if he made the smallest

attempt to shew his face, or otherwise to discover himself. His face was concealed by a mask of black velvet, with springs of steel, which were so contrived, that he could eat without taking it off. Whilst in the Bastille, he had the best accommodations that place would afford; nothing was refused him that he desired; his table was the most sumptuous that could be provided, and the governor seldom sat down in his presence. He was accomplished, for he read much, and played on the guitar, and his chief taste was for lace, and linen of the finest texture. A physician of the Bastille, who had often attended him when indisposed, said, that he had never seen his face, though he had frequently examined his tongue and parts of his body. He added, that he was admirably well made; that his skin was rather brown, and his voice interesting. Voltaire, who has expressly written on this mysterious affair, says, that the secret was known to M. de Chamillard; and that the son-in-law of that minister conjured him, on his death-bed, to impart to him the name of the man with the mask; but he replied, that it was a secret of state, which he had sworn never to divulge. Whilst at St. Marguerite, a circumstance occurred, which shews the importance attached to the concealment of his person. The prisoner one day wrote something with his knife on a silver plate, and threw the plate out at a window towards a boat drawn on shore near the bottom of the tower. A fisherman took up the plate, and brought it to the governor, who, with evident astonishment, asked the man if he had read the writing, or shown it to any other person. He answered, that he could not read; that he had but just found it, and that no one else had been made acquainted with the circumstance. He was, however, confined until the governor was certain he could not read, and that no other had seen the plate. He then dismissed him, saying, "It is lucky for you that you cannot read." The Abbé Papou relates another, but more tragical adventure. "In the year 1778, I had the curiosity to visit the apartment of this unfortunate prisoner; it looks toward the sea. I found in the citadel an officer in the independent company there, seventy-nine years of age. He told me that his father had often related to him, that a young lad, a barber, having seen one day something white floating on the water, took it up: it was a very fine shirt, written almost all over; he carried it to M. de St. Mars, who having looked at some parts of the writing, asked the lad, with an appearance of anxiety, if he had not had the curiosity to read it. He assured him that he had not; but two days afterwards the boy was found dead in his bed."

M. de Jauca, for many years Lieutenant du Roi, kept an exact journal of all that passed in the Bastille. He thus records the death of the black mask. "Monday, Nov. 19, 1703. The unknown prisoner, whom M. de St. Mars brought with him from the island St. Marguerite, where he had been a long time under his care, and who has always been masked with a mask of black velvet, found himself worse yesterday in coming from mass, and died this evening at ten o'clock, without any great illness. The smell, however, is not less offensive. Monsieur Girault, our chaplain, confessed him yesterday: his death being sudden, he had not an opportunity of taking the sacraments; but our chaplain exhorted him a few minutes before he expired. He was buried on Tuesday,

BASTILE the 26th of November, in the burying-place of our parish of St. Paul. His burial cost forty livres." Immediately after the prisoner's death, his apparel, linen, clothes, mattresses, in short every thing that had been used by him, were burnt; the walls of his room scraped, the floor taken up, and every precaution used that no trace of him might be left behind. The most singular circumstance perhaps of the whole is, that during the confinement of this man with the mask, no person of importance in Europe was missing; and yet that this person was of importance, there can exist no doubt. A prisoner told M. de Grange Chancel, that he was lodged, with other persons, in the room immediately above that where the prisoner with the mask was; and that they found means of speaking to him by the vents of the chimneys: having one day pressed him to tell who he was, he refused, saying, that if he did, it would cost his own life, as well as the lives of those to whom the secret might be revealed. And the same writer records, that on the road from St. Marguerite to the Bastille, M. de St. Mars was overheard to reply to a question from the unknown, relative to any design against his life, "No, Prince, your life is in safety; you must only allow yourself to be conducted." Various have been the persons supposed to be the masked prisoner: the Duke de Beaufort, the Count de Vermandois, a foreign minister, and the Duke of Moemonth, have in turn been guessed; but there are conflicting dates and circumstances, which prove the impossibility of either being the person. The most probable conjecture is, that he was the twin brother of Louis XIV. whose birth was concealed by the advice of Cardinal Richlieu; but himself preserved, in ease, by the death of his brother, it should be necessary to avow him.

After this long digression, which will, we hope, be pardoned on account of the interest of the subject, nothing remains to be added relative to the Bastille, except its destruction. In July 1789, the mob of Paris attacked the building, which held out for a few hours only, when M. de Launoy, the governor, yielded it up, partly from the knowledge that he had no supplies, and partly by the recommendation and entreaty of the other officers: his own impulse was to defend it to the last, and even then to blow up the building rather than permit its surrender. He was, however, overruled, and the populace were triumphant. The use they made of their victory was such as might be anticipated. The governor was immediately seized, and as he was carried through the streets, was murdered, and then beheaded: the major and the aid major were killed in the streets, as was the lieutenant of the invalids; another lieutenant, more fortunate, after receiving four wounds, was carried to a place of safety, and recovered. To the defence of the place, one soldier only was killed, and four wounded; but numbers were wounded, and one invalid killed, by the populace, as soon as they gained possession, and two were hanged by them at the Grève. Seven prisoners only were found in it: Tavernier, de Solages; Fajade, La Roche, Canonge le Comte de Solages, and Bechade, (imprisoned for a forgery of bills of exchange); and White, an Englishman, who had been committed in 1784, and was then deranged. These men were carried about Paris, fested and made public spectacles of. Tavernier and White were afterwards sent to the hospital at Charenton, and the others we believe

escaped. The mob, of their own impulse, destroyed **BASTILLE** the governor's house, and most of the adjacent buildings; but the mayor and committee finally decreed that the whole edifice should be demolished, and it was accordingly levelled with the ground. Boulan-villiers, *Histoire de l'ancien Gouvernement*, tom. iii.; *Mémoires du Maréchal Duc de Richlieu: The History of the Bastille*, Lond. 1790. 8vo.

BASTON, or **BASTION**. From the Fr. *bastir*, to build, raise, erect. See **BASTILE**.

Upon the third day, they joined and encountered in battelwise, and prestient to fight with bloud waters and bastions; yea, and lashed one at another darts and javelins, rounded at the point end with hale, in quater of fulen.

Holland. Livius, fol. 624.

Nova Palma a late fortress of the Venetian, is built according to the exact rules of the most modern enquiry, being of a round form, with nine bastions, and a street level to every bastion.

Howell. Letter xlii, book i.

More dismal than the loud displayed roar
Of beaten enquiry, that crumblen stones
The bastion of a wall-built city, deem'd
Impregnable.

Philips. Cider, book i.

Tame flocks ascend the breach without a wound,
Or crop the bastion, now a fruitful ground,
While shepherds sleep, along the rampart laid,
Or pipe beneath the formidable shade.

Titchel. On the Prospect of Peace.

Though many a bastion just
Purch from the ramparts elevated mound,
Vain the poor providence of human art,
And mortal strength how vain!

Smart. On the Power of the Supreme Being.

The very man who in his bed would have trembled at the aspect of a doctor, shall go with intrepidity to attack a bastion, or deliberately snore himself up in his quarters.

Goldsmith. Citizen of the World.

BAT, v. } *Bat*, *batt*. A. S. *bentan*, to beat; Fr.
BAT, n. } *báton*. That which beats, strikes, hits,
BATLET, } batters. Though the verb is not com-
BATROX, } mon in writing, it is in speech, particu-
BATTEE, } larly among cricketers—at Westmin-
ster, Eton, and "All England;" as, he bats well, &c.

So *Judas* son of the twelve cam, and with him a gret company
with swordis and *batts* sent fro the princis of the prettis and fro
the eldes men of the puple. *Wiclif. Mathew*, chap. xxvi.

This was cleped of the common people the parliament of *battes*:
the cause was, for proclamaconys were made, y^e men shoule traie
theyr *averdis* and other *repeyns* in theyr *lumpis*, the puple take
gret *batts* and *staveys* in theyr neckes, and so solowed theyr
lordes and maiesties into the parliament.

Fabyan. Ann, 1426. H. 6.

The grounds was white leggalled, labourd and *battowd* with
riche clothes of silkes knitte, and fret with cuttes and *lindres* and
sundry newe castes. *Hall. King Henry VIII*.

Here were we first *shatterd* with the darts
Of our owne fees from the bayr couples top.

Burton. Arctis, book ii.

Esbours the ape himselfe gan to yvverre,
And on his shoulders high his hat to beere,
As if good service he were fit to doe.

Spranger. Mother Holbord Tale.

And I remember the kissing of her *battel*, and the comers dogs
that her prettie chapt hands had milke'd.

Shakespeare. As You Like It, fol. 181.

The second *Arctostaphylos* or *Birchwort* is taken to be the male
and hath a root as thick as a good *bazen* or staffe, growing long-
wise to the length of foure fingers.

Holland. Plinij, li. 226.

BATAVIA. Chinese arrack. To China, besides these articles, they send birds-nests, (of the edible swallow,) *lèche do mar*, (sea slug, or *Aeolotharia*); cotton, spices, tin, rattans, sapan-wood, sago, and wax. To Borneo and the Moluccas, piece-goods, opium, and a few European articles. To the other Dutch settlements, rice. Bullion was the principal article imported from Europe before the French revolution: the remaining articles were European manufactures for the use of the Company's servants stationed in the different factories.

Climate.

This city is proverbially unhealthy; particularly the left wing of the fort, where the mortality in the garrison is almost beyond calculation. This extraordinary want of salubrity evidently arises from two causes; the peculiar position of the town, and its injudicious embellishments. The plain in which it is situated is flat, and filled with rice-grounds, which must necessarily be often laid under water; the streets have each its canal and row of evergreens, which at once occasion pestiferous exhalations, and prevent a free circulation of the air. One part of the plain, on the left of the fort, is an impracticable morass, and the vapours continually rising from it cannot fall, in a tropical climate, to produce intermittents of the worst description. The thermometer at Batavia is seldom above 90°, and usually as low as 84°: it is not excess of heat, therefore, that makes it so unhealthy; but the mortality is such, that one-fifth of the European inhabitants are annually cut off.

Society.

Much, however, in this, as in other parts of the East and West Indies, is owing to the intemperate luxury in which many of the European inhabitants indulge. The fertility of the soil makes all the tropical productions abundant to excess; and the heat of the climate enervates the mind as well as the body; so that facility in pampering the appetites combines with an increased disposition to indulge them, and betrays many into excesses to which they were strangers in Europe. The state of morals and general tone of society are such, as render this far from an agreeable place of residence. The debauched habits of the Pagan and Mohammedan natives, with whom the Europeans cannot avoid all intercourse, have also a bad effect upon the lower orders; and the known unhealthiness of the place makes it difficult to find men of respectable character and talents who will accept of appointments here; so that even the principal servants of the Company are not always such as wish to correct these defects. The multitude of domestic slaves, moreover, is a continual source of mischief, and constantly gives nourishment to the worst passions and habits. Most of the women are natives of the country; a degenerate, debased race, lost in indolence and sensuality; ignorant of the simplest elements of knowledge, and scarcely forming any part of what may be called rational society. The men have usually the faults of their countrymen in Europe, without many of their commendable qualities. There are of course occasional exceptions to this general character; and such writers as Rumphius Van Rheede, and the members of the Batavian Literary Society, have left honourable testimonies of their ability and learning. The slaves, who, as appears from the statement above, are the great majority of the inhabitants, are principally imported from Celebes and the Eastern islands. Their condition is said to be

wretched in the extreme; and the punishments inflicted by the Dutch, on such as have entered into conspiracies for the recovery of their freedom, are so exquisitely cruel, as to exceed belief, if they had not been coolly detailed by the very persons who devised them. It is gratifying to humanity to learn, that while these merciless punishments have not secured the Dutch from perpetual insurrections, the tranquillity of the English at Bencoolen has scarcely ever been disturbed under a system of the most opposite leniency. The Chinese, who, after the slaves, are the most numerous part of the population, are indefatigably industrious, but excessively artful and dishonest. "The Dutch," they say, "have only one eye, but the Chinese have two." Almost all the mechanic trades are carried on by them; and the more wealthy among them are merchants, some of whom farm the customs and taxes from the Dutch government. They inhabit a separate town, or *campung*, close to the city; and it is the centre of business, hustle, and confusion: for the streets are narrow and shabby, and crowded to excess with men and pigs, of which the Chinese keep some hundred thousand. The Malays, who are Mohammedans, have a very bad character; but they have been misrepresented by the Dutch, whose narrow, tyrannical policy has alienated the affections of most of the native inhabitants. The Amboynees are bold and turbulent, and are generally employed as builders, a trade in which they excel: bamboos and split canes are the materials with which they work. The other inhabitants are either travelling merchants, or seafaring men, not permanently resident in Batavia.

In the early part of the seventeenth century, the Dutch contracted with the king of Jacatra, a petty Javanese prince, for the produce of his territories; and, suspecting him of unfair dealings, they soon afterwards built a fort in the neighbourhood in order to overawe him. This excited the jealousy of the English, who espoused the cause of the natives, sent a fleet to oppose the Dutch, defeated them, and took possession of Jacatra in 1618. The Dutch commander applied for assistance to the viceroy of Bantam, who immediately dispossessed the ally of the English, and drove him to a remote corner of the island. Peace was soon afterwards concluded; and the English abandoned their factory at Jacatra. But the Bantamers proved worse foes than the English. The Dutch commander was carried a prisoner to Bantam, and detained there till Commodore Koen returned, with a strong reinforcement, in 1619, and compelled the king to release his prisoners. Koen immediately afterwards laid the foundations of Batavia; and so prompt and successful were his countrymen, that it soon became the powerful and flourishing metropolis of their East Indian possessions. In 1629, it was invested by an army of 200,000 Javanese, who were compelled to retire, after a siege of several months, by the courage and good conduct of the garrison. Not long afterwards, the viceroy rebelled against the emperor of Java: the Dutch did not fail to turn this circumstance to their own advantage; and at length contrived to get these sovereigns completely into their power, under colour of assisting them. Their avarice and injustice, however, made the natives very anxious to emancipate themselves from their thralldom. In 1722, a most alarming and general conspiracy was discovered, only just in time to prevent its execution; and in 1740, not twenty

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years afterwards, 19,000 Chinese were massacred in one day, by order of the governor, on the plea of a conspiracy, as extensive and atrocious as the preceding. The history of this dreadful massacre involved in great obscurity, and it is one of the many cruel and perfidious acts which throw so deep a shadow over the history of the Dutch establishments in the East and West Indies. This, however, is their last act of a very disgraceful character; and the return of the local authorities to the old and arbitrary system, (which had been abandoned, with the happiest results, by Sir Stamford Raffles), is to be ascribed rather to habit and prejudice, than to any real intention or design of cruelty, or to any preference for oppressive measures. (Hamilton's *East India Gazetteer*; Stannton's *Embassy to China*, i.; Stavovinus's *Fogager*, i. and iii.; *Fogager de Grant*, p. 214.)

BATAVORUM INSULA, in ancient Geography, the island of the Batavi, forming a part of the present kingdom of the Netherlands. It was bounded by a branch of the Rhine on the north, and the Vahalis, or Waal on the south. According to the description given by Tacitus, the Rhine divided into two branches on its entrance into Batavia. The one retained its name, and passed through Germany till it reached the ocean; the other, which from flowing through a more level country, spread into a broader and more gentle stream, washed the borders of Gaul, and was called the Vahalis till it joined the Mosæ or Meuse, when it took the latter name. From this representation, it must be understood that the ancient *Insula Batavorum* was encompassed by the Rhioe, the Vahalis, and the Ocean. Ptolemy also gives a similar account; but in the time of Cæsar it does not appear to have been so extensive, as a part was subsequently added by a canal which was cut from the Rhine to the Ocean, considerably north of its former bed. The whole inclosed space was flat, and was to be constituted a foundation from the waters by which it was surrounded. His opinion was agreed on by the Romans, and the island was accordingly transferred to the original inhabitants of this insular tract. Some have supposed that the aborigines were driven from their abodes by the Cimbræ and the Teutones, when they invaded the Roman dominions. The Batavi, however, afterwards took possession of it, and by that persevering industry by which they were distinguished, they ultimately became a powerful people; for the account of whose progress we must refer to the historical part of our work.

BATCH, the past part of *bake*, to bake. A batch of bread is the bread baked at the same time. Tooke ii. 161.

Any entire quantity.

Ye see a lytle leasen souereth the whole *batche*, wherwith it is myngled, casting by lytle the sources of itself, throughout the whole dows, whiche before was swete.

PAT. Here comes Therites.

ACTUAL. How now, then, cure of envy?

Thou trusty behest of nature, what's the news?

Shakespeare. Troilus and Cressida, fol. 100.

LUKE. What are they?

Hals: A whole batch, sir.

Almost of the same heaven : your needy debtors.

Penny, fortune.

Messinger. The City Madam, act iv. sc. i.

BATE, } Rate as in de-bate, Skinner thinks
Ba'TABLE, } is from the A.S. *betan*, to beat, to
Ba'TEFUL. } strike. More generally to fight, strive,
struggle, contend.

Batable ground, *terra pugnabilis*, from the Fr. *BATE*.
battre, *pugnare*. Skinner.

—————The power
Of them that bene the worldes guides,
With good counsell on all sides,
Ben kept vpright in such a wise,
That bare broke nought thassie
Of loue, which is all the chiefe
To kepe a reigne out of mischiefe.

Gov. Conf. Am. Prot., fol. 2.

Among which fooles (mark Baldwine) I am one,
That would not stay myselfe in mine estate :
I thought to rule but to obey to bene,
And therefore fell I with my kindred here.

Mar. for May, p. 347.

Item it is agreed and spoynted that no person of England or Scotland shal during the said truce, build, ease, or sowe any landes or ground beyng within the boundes of the hostile ground, but to suffre the same to continue in the same condicion that it now remaureth. *Hall. King Richard III. fol. 35.*

These appear unto us like unto the *batubi* ground lying betwixt England and Scotland, (whilst as yet two distinct kingdoms) in so dubious a posture it is hard to say to which side they do belong.
Fuller. General Worthes, c. xii.

He wears his boot very smooth, like unto the signe of the
legge; and broodes no less with telling of discrete stories.

They, doyng accordingly to his exhortatyon, left betwene bothe companies a great quantitie of grounde, whiche at this daye we call Intelle. *See Thos. Rhyat. Gouverneur, 169.*

The fertile land of happy Britannia
Bringeth forth Alban a martyr right worthy.
Stowe, Ann. 301. *The Romans.*

This case informs this late-binding view

This cooker that cooks on low's tender spring.

This carry-over, discussion begins

That sometimes true news, sometimes false doth bring

Shakespeare, Venus and Adonis.

Pictyng the lawe,
For evry strawe,
Shall proue a thirifty man,
With hate and strife,
But by my life
I cannot tell you when.

Sir Thomas More, fol. 1.

Naked, as from the wombe we came, if we depart,
What toyle to seek that we must leave? what bote to vex the hart?
What lyf leade testy men, they that consume their dayes
In howards frosts, untemper'd hares, at stryfe with sun alwaies.

Shewen. Eccles. chap. iv.

BATE, } See ABATE. A.S. *beatan*, to beat;
 BA'TELESS, } to beat down. Skinner. To *beat* or press
 BA'TEMENT, } down; to lower, to depress, to lessen,
 BATING, } to diminish; to sink or cause to sink,
 to deduct from, to shorten, by *beating* or pressing into a
 smaller space or compass.

t ain Thomas your hope, to whom ye eric & grete,
Martir of Cantebire, your balm salte I kepe.

N. Brown, p. 148.

And as the hooded hawk, which heaves the partridge spring,
Who though she feels his self fast tied, yet beats his beating wing.
Gauleigne. An about Dame, &c.

with, of twice the amount.

I'de rather than the worth of thirre the summe,
Hail sent to me first, but for my mindes sake :
I'de much a courage to do him good. Eet now returne,
And with their faint reply, this answer sayne ;
Who sares mine honor, shall not know my coyse.

Shakespeare. Timon of Athens, fol. 86.

Sanskrit. *Text of Atcharya*, vol. 10.

Yet I argue not
Against heaven's hand or will, nor bate a jot,
Of heart or hope, but still bear up and steer
Right onward. *Milton. Sonnet 22.*

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Happy that name of chaste unhappily set
This *hathless* edge on his keen appetite;
When Collation unwisely did not let;
To praise the clear unsmirched red and white
Which triumphed in that sky of his delight.

Shakespeare. The Rape of Lucrece, chap. v.
He made no more ado but caused the money to be paid presently; but the merchant being a man of some conscience, and thinking indeed the price too high, gave two of them back againe unto Lucretia; whereas being ill used, I beseech you, (qd. he) for this *bathing* of the money hath much impaired the worth of the stone.
Holland's Plume, li. 661.

Ah, lest some thou should pierce thy tender foot,
Or then should'st fall in flying my pursuit!
To sleep uneven ways thy steps decline;
Attune thy speed, and I will bide of mine.

Dryden. Ovid's Metam. book i.

The kiope [i. of France] took all occasions to mortify him, (prince of Coode) which the ministers knew well, and seconded him in it, so that *bathing* the outward respect due to his birth, they treated him very hardly in all his pretensions.
Bishop Burnet's Own Times, li. 5.

To *bath*, is to waste a piece of stuff; instead of asking how much was cut off, carpenters ask what *batment* that piece of stuff had.
Mason's Mechanical Exercises.

But I hate disputes; and (therefore *bathing* religious points on such a touch society) I would also subscribe to any thing which does not chink me in the first passage, rather than be drawn into one.
Stearns. Tristram Shandy.

BATHÉ, } A.S. *bathian*; Dutch and Ger. *baden*;
BATH, } Swe. *bada*. To whet, to wash, to soak
BATHO, } in water or other liquid, to cover,
steep, immerse or overwhelm in a bath.

Behold his sons after hym kyng was twenti yere.
He bigan þe town of Bath, and þe hote bates þer
In þe vrynes of þe water, as y' doþ yf walkie.
A. Gloucester, p. 28.

The sloer of himself yet saw I there,
His herte-blood hath bathed all his here.
Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, v. 2069.

Hu herte bathed in a bath of blame,
A thousand time a-row he gan hire kine.
Id. The Wif of Bathes Tale, v. 6836.

Faire in the sonde, to bath hire merily,
Lith Petrelote, and all hire sisters by,
Aftin the sonne and Chaussechere so free
Sang merier than the mermaid in the see.

Id. The Nonnes Preestes Tale, v. 15273

The bathes weren than araisid
With herbes tempered and assaid,
And lason was warmed soone,
And did, as it befelle to doome,
Into his bathes he went anon,
And wishe hym cleane as any bone.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 104.

On Friday at dinner served the kyng all such as were appointed by his highness to be knights of y^e bath, whiche after dyner were brought to their chambers, and that night were bathed and shroven accordyng to the old usage of England.

Hall. King Henry VIII. fol. 213.

— 'Tis but the lees
And settlings of a melancholy blood:
But this will cure all straight; out she of this
Will bath the drooping spirits in delight,
Beyond the bliss of dreams.
Milton. Comus.

God commendeth sundrie bathings, and washings: yet unto them, that most precisely used the same, Christe saide: *υποβαπτεσθαι* you y^e scribes and Pharisees.

Jerome's Defence of the Apostles, fol. 66.

And therefore virgin, give the stranger food,
And wine; and see *bat* him in the flood,
Neare to some shore, to shelter most enclia'd;
To cold *bat*-bathes, hurtfull in the wind.

Chapman. Homer's Odyssey, fol. 93.

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She rear'd her arm, and with her sceptre struck
The yawning cliff: from its departed height
Adown the mountain the gushing torrent ran,
And cheer'd the valleys: there the heavenly mother
Bath'd, mighty king, thy tender limbs.
Prior. First Hymn of Callimachus.

He [King James II.] went and visited the queen at the bath, where he staid only a few days, two or three at most: and she continued on in her course of *bathing*.

Burnet. His Own Times, li. 404.

Each lip a ruby, parting, shows
The precious pearl in even rows,
And all the Loves and Graces sleek
Bathe to the dimples of her cheek.

Lloyd. A Familiar Letter of Rhymes.

Alloping, are two other little *bathing-rooms* fitted up in an elegant rather than costly manner: annexed to this, is a warm bath of extraordinary workmanship, wherein one may swim, and have a prospect, at the same time, of the sea.

Menneth. Pilgr. Letter xvii. book li.

BATH, a Bishop's see, and Borough town, situated on the river Avon, in a valley in the north eastern part of the county of Somerset, is bounded on the NW. and S. by elevated hills, in lat. N. 51° 24' 30" and W. lon. 2° 21' 30"; 107 miles W. of London, and 12 E. of Bristol. It is impossible to state with any degree of accuracy, the exact period when the hot springs, to which this city principally owes her celebrity, were discovered, or to assign the name of its original founder: the legend which gave to the British King Bladud, the honour of finding out the virtues of these waters, is now wholly discredited; and, although the place might be known for its warm springs previous to the arrival of the Romans, yet no traces of buildings remain of an earlier date, than after the conquest of the western and south-western parts of the island by Flavius Vespasian. Bath has at different times been known by a variety of names, most of them have a reference to its situation, and medicinal waters. The Britons called it *Caer Baddona*; the Romans knew it as *Aqua Solis*, *Fontes Calidi*, *Thermae Achaeanorum*, and *Bodina*; and the Saxons as *Acanmannes-ceastre*, *Acanmannes-þeap*, and *Leceþeðan*. It very early became a principal and favourite station of the Romans in the western provinces, who were probably attracted by the discovery of the properties of the waters. The legions could enjoy the luxury of the bath, and they erected buildings for the security of the springs, the remains of which were discovered a few years since, and are considered to be fine specimens of architecture. Like other Roman colonies, Bath possessed the privilege of a mint, and in the reign of the emperor Adrian, a fabric or college of armourers was founded here, and became the chief place in the west for the manufacture of the arms, and the ensigns of the soldiery. The city was laid out according to the form usually adopted by the Romans, approaching to a parallelogram, extending on one side, so as to form an outline somewhat pentagonal; and stretching in length from east to west about 400 yards, and in the broadest parts from north to south 380 yards. Recent discoveries lead to a conjecture, that the wall which enclosed this space was twenty feet in height above the ground, sixteen feet wide at the base, and eight at the summit. It was fortified with five towers rising from the angles, and having four gates facing the cardinal points; the entrances were connected together by two grand streets, dividing the city into four parts,

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and intersecting each other in the centre. The foundations of the magnificent Roman baths were discovered in 1755, over the springs near the centre of the city, at the depth of twenty feet below the surface of the ground. These edifices appear to have extended 240 feet from east to west, and 120 from north to south. According to the description given of one of them by the late Mr. Wood, an architect, whose taste and ability have been displayed in adorning the modern city with some of its finest buildings and streets; the form of one of them was semicircular, fifteen feet in diameter, paved with smooth flag stones. Seven steps led down into it. Near this was an oblong bath, with two sudatories adjoining, which together formed a vault for retaining the heat necessary for the rooms above. The floors were composed of bricks covered by terras, supported by pillars four and a half feet high. The walls within the apartments were set round with tubulated bricks, eighteen inches in length, with a small orifice opening inwards, by which the stream of heat was conducted; near these rooms were two circular sudatories and many other apartments used by the Romans previous to entering hot baths: such as the *frigidarium*, in which the bathers undressed; the *tepidarium*, which was moderately heated; and the *closethoron*, a small room for perfumes and ulla. Some of the apartments were beautifully tessellated, and the whole was surrounded by a wall, eight feet high, of wrought stones and terras. The various remains of Roman grandeur which have been found at different times, are collected by order of the Corporation, and are deposited in a building purposely erected to preserve them, in Bath-street. They consist chiefly of altars with inscriptions of *Dea Solina Minerva*; an imperfect basso relievo of Geta on horseback; and the pediment, friezes, cornices, fluted pillars and other fragments of a grand temple dedicated to Minerva, situated on the east side of the great foss way running through the city from north to south, now the site of the abbey church and Pump room. The coins which have been found, are chiefly those of Claudius, Vespasian, Trajan, Adrian, Antoninus Pius, Severus, Maximian, Carausius and Constantine. And near the burial places of the Roman soldiery under Lansdown, quantities of urns, *fibule*, *ermille*, and chains, have been dug up. Called from the government of their distant provinces by the decay of power in the seat of their mighty empire, and the inroad of the barbarians which threatened the destruction of their capital, the Romans evacuated Britain in 486. Bath, with many other places in the west, remained in tranquillity after their departure, until about 483; when an army of Saxons under the command of Ælia and his three sons, encamped on Lansdown, and laid siege to this favourite seat of their predecessors. Monkish chronicles relate, that they were defeated in a bloody battle by the heroic Arthur, who, after the lapse of some years, again rescued *Aqua Solis* from the attacks of the invaders; but in 577, Cautlin and Cuthwin, (the former, King of Wessex,) with their forces, marched towards the north-east part of Somersetshire, and advanced to Dyrham, within eight miles of the city; here they defeated the three British kings, Commall, Canididan and Farinmail, who vainly attempted to defend the hitherto unconquered Kingdoms of the island from the arms of the Saxons. Bath was then annexed to the kingdom of Wessex, and enjoyed the privilege of a burgh. The efficacy of the hot springs being now

generally known, it obtained the appellation of *Akemonaster*, the city of sick men. Before its conquest the Christian religion had been partially introduced; now it was openly professed, and through the power of Osric, Saxon King of the Hwicci, a monastery was established here in 676.

Numerous were the devastations committed on the Roman edifices, during the time it remained in the power of the princes of Wessex; but in 775 it was seized by Offa, King of Mercia, who established a college of secular canons, and in some measure restored the former grandeur of the city. During the havoc caused by frequent incursions of the Danes in the eighth century, Bath became convulsed by contests, and was almost destroyed; but in the reign of Athelstan, it once more recovered from its decay. He granted permission for coins to be struck, and augmented the grants to the monastery of Offa. King Edgar was inaugurated here by Archbishop Dunstan, and gave many privileges to the town, of which Leland says, the inhabitants retained the recollection, by the joyful ceremonies observed for years at Whitsuntide, the festival of the King's coronation. Many of the Danish monarchs resided here; and several of the coins struck at Bath in the reign of Canute are preserved. In the early part of the Confessor's reign, it was held by his unfortunate consort Editha; but it reverted to the crown after her father's death. It was attached to the royal demesnes in the time of William the Conqueror; but in the succeeding reign of Rufus, it was again exposed to ravage and destruction. During the insurrection of Otto, Bishop of Bayeux, Geoffrey, Bishop of Coutances, Robert de Mowbray, and the Norman lords who espoused the cause of the unfortunate Robert, it was plundered and burnt. The city owes its restoration to the spirited liberality of a native of Tours, John de Villula, who purchased it of Rufus for 500 marks, in 1090, and obtained leave to remove the Bishop's seat from Wells thither, uniting it to the monastery and church which he rebuilt. In some degree he may be considered as its second founder, as the public edifices were rebuilt by him; and when he became Bishop, in the reign of Henry I. he bestowed large endowments on the monastery, the possessions of which were afterwards much increased by the grants of the English monarchs and private individuals. The monks are said to have applied their wealth to useful purposes, by encouraging manufactures for woollen cloth, for which branch of trade the city was long distinguished. In time, however, abuses crept into the holy order; and in the reign of Henry VII. Olive King succeeding to the Bishopric, introduced strict regulations to correct their misconduct. To his spirited piety and munificence, Bath is indebted for the abbey church dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul, built in the form of a cross, and considered to be a fine specimen of pure Gothic architecture, begun by him in 1495, and finished in 1532. During a midnight meditation, the legend states the Bishop to have seen, in a vision, the Holy Trinity, with angels ascending and descending by a ladder, near which was a fair olive-tree, supporting a crown; at the same time, he heard a voice say, "Let an Olive establish the Crown, and let a King restore the Church." This subject was carved by his orders in rich workmanship to adorn the western front. The dimensions of the windows are nearly uniform; they are large and beautifully formed: from the centre of the cross rises a

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BATH. tower 166 feet high, crowned with light open battlements. The body of the abbey is 310 feet long from east to west, and 136 from north to south; and the breadth of the body and aisles is 72 feet. The principal entrance at the west is through a fine arched doorway, and the attention of visitors is forcibly arrested by the excellent proportion and beautiful symmetry of this noble pile. In the interior are numerous marble monuments, which do not produce a good effect, from being too much crowded; but an altar-tomb to the memory of Bishop Montague, is a conspicuous ornament to the nave and transepts. The vestry, containing a small library founded by Bishop Lake, is on the south side of the choir. Bath contains four Parishes, each of which has its church. The abbey church is in the Parish of St. Peter and St. Paul; the names of the three others are St. James's, a freestone building erected in 1768, at the west end of which rises a square tower containing eight bells: St. Michael's, which was begun in 1734, has a fine dome, and is of the Doric order: Walcot church is dedicated to St. Swithin, and was rebuilt in 1780; this Parish has a church entirely devoted to the accommodation of the lower orders, and it also contains four chapels of ease. In the reign of Elizabeth, the several Parishes of Bath were consolidated into one Rectory; and the civil government of the city was then placed in the hands of a mayor, recorder, ten aldermen, and twenty common councilmen, by a charter which constituted it a sole city of itself; in 1794 the citizens obtained new franchises, and the authority and rights of the Corporation were much increased thereby. The election of two members for the House of Commons, is vested in this body corporate of thirty-one persons.

During the early part of the civil wars, Bath was a garrison for the King, who increased the fortifications considerably; but it speedily surrendered to the enemy, and became a post for the Parliamentary forces. The battle of Lansdown, in which many of the royalists were slain, was fought in 1643. In this Sir William Waller, the General of the Parliament, was driven from his post, and compelled to retire from Bath.

The picturesque situation of Bath is well calculated to display the fine freestone buildings, which rise in regular elevation to the summits of the surrounding hills; and the city received much of its architectural embellishments from Mr. Wood, who designed Queen-square, the northern side of which is built with houses of the Corinthian order. The Circus is of highly ornamented fronts of the Doric, Ionic and Corinthian orders; this, together with the north and south Parades, and several streets in the northern part of the old city, prove the taste and execution of their designer. The New Assembly rooms, built in 1771, were generally admired for their elegance. The Old or Lower rooms near the north parade were well laid out; they were destroyed by fire in 1820. Sydney gardens are on the western side of the Avon, and terminate the perspective view from Laura-place and Pulteney-street; the houses of which are considered as some of the handsomest in the city. These gardens afford agreeable walks in the summer season, as they are open in the day time; but, like Vauxhall, they are resorted to chiefly for concerts and fireworks in the evenings. The Guildhall is well arranged for the purposes of public business. The Pump room built in 1796, is a neat building; the interior is ornamented with three-quarter

Corinthian columns, with a semicircular recess at each end, and is lighted by two tiers of windows on the sides. A statue of Richard Nash, Esq. better known as Beau Nash, the *arbiter elegantiarum* of Bath, stands in a niche at the west end. The Pump is rented on a lease of three years from the Corporation, at a rent of 800 guineas. The four public baths are the property, and under the management of the Corporation. The King's bath (supposed to have received its name from the former residence of the Saxon Kings in this city) stands west of the abbey church; it is in the form of a parallelogram, is length 65 feet 10 inches; in breadth 40 feet 10 inches, and the bottom is 19 feet below the surface of the ground. It fills itself in nine hours; the spring is in the centre, and is covered over with a large reservoir to restrain its rapid motion, and to disperse the water more equally around the bath. The Queen's bath is supplied with water from the former through no arch, and is more temperate, being at a greater distance from the spring. The Cross bath is south-west of the King's; it has a spring, and is a handsome triangular building. The Hot bath, south-west of the Cross bath, is considered the hottest of all; it contains a public bath, private ones, dry pump rooms and sudatories continually kept warm, from the fires of the adjoining dressing rooms. The Kingston or Abbey baths are the property of Earl Manserv. According to the experiments of Dr. Bryan Higgins, a Winchester gallon of Bath water contains

	oz.	dwt.	gr.
Calcareous earth combined with vitriolic acid in the form of selenite	0	0	319½
Calcareous earth combined with acidulous gas	0	0	22½
Marine salt of magnesia	0	0	23½
Sea salt	0	1	14½
Iron, combined with acidulous gas	0	0	0½
Acidulous gas, besides that which is contained in the above earth and iron	12	0	0
Atmospheric air	2	0	0

Dr. Monro, speaking of these waters, gives the highest degree of heat attributed to them by

	Dr. Hewart.	Dr. Charlton.	Dr. Lucas.
from the (King's bath) ...	113	116	119
pump (Hot bath) ...	115	116	119
of the (Cross bath) ...	108	110	114

and that on evaporation, a gallon has been found to contain iron $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{5}$ parts of a grain; of calcareous earth 22 grains; selenites 31½ grains; Glauber's salt 25 grains; sea salt 51 grains; and these were mixed with an oily matter, but not more so than is common to all waters. From this and other accounts, it appears that the Bath waters are acidulous chalybeates, in which iron and earth are kept suspended by means of aerial acid; and that they are impregnated with a small portion of selenites, sea salt, and unriated magnesia. Indeed these waters were for a long time esteemed to be sulphureous; but certainly this is not so; for they do not affect the colour of silver or metallic solutions, nor produce any other effect of water impregnated with sulphur. It has been doubted whether hydrogen or azotic gas is contained in these waters; and there is some probability that the latter is an active ingredient in them, but its existence has never been properly ascertained. Dr. Gibbs has lately added to their impregnations the silicious earth. But we are

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still unable to discover in their contents any ingredient sufficiently active to account for their effects. They operate powerfully by urine, and they promote perspiration; if drunk quickly and in large draughts, they sometimes purge; but if taken slowly and in small quantities, they have an opposite effect. These waters are adapted to weak and exhausted constitutions, to atonic gout, to visceral obstructions, ophthalmic complaints, and dyspepsia. Externally they relieve in all the complaints for which the more active stimulant power of the *balneum* is employed. To the young and plethoric they are frequently injurious; and unless some evacuations are premised, they often disagree with the patient at first, occasioning headache, heat in the hands, drowsiness, and giddiness. The seasons for drinking Bath waters do not greatly differ. In the hot dry summers, the waters are strongest; but the spring and autumn are preferred, from fashion probably rather than season.

BATH, a post town in the district of Maine, and

conity of Lincoln, in the United States of America. It stands on the west bank of the Kennebeck river, about twelve miles from the sea, and thirty-five miles north-east of Portland, the capital of the district. Its situation is favourable for commerce, as the river is seldom frozen; and it is, therefore, one of the places in the district which trades most extensively. The shipping belonging to the port a few years ago, exceeded 30,000 tons. There are also two Banks, an Academy, and three houses for public worship. Latitude 43° 55' north, and longitude 69° 49' west. Population nearly 3000.

BATHGATE, a town and parish of Scotland, in the county of Linlithgow, about eighteen miles from Edinburgh, and on the road between that city and Glasgow. Numerous petrifications are found in the neighbourhood, as well as iron, coal, and limestone. It is about six miles from Linlithgow; and, according to the enumeration of 1831, contains a population of 3,383 individuals.

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"The practice of BATHING was instituted, (says an ancient writer) with a view to cleanliness, to the increasing the body's heat, for the preservation of health, or for voluptuous gratification." But immersing the body in water has been occasionally used for the additional purpose of cooling or reducing temperature; and in modern times this has been done pretty extensively upon scientific principles, and in a systematic manner, so that the above position in reference to the motives for immersion requires to be accordingly modified.

We may be said to bathe either for pleasure or for health; that is, with a view to immediate gratification, to guarding the body against disease, or to the actual counteraction of disease itself: and in the present article we shall confine ourselves to the consideration of the modern practice, in reference especially to its salutary effects when it is judiciously had recourse to; and to its injurious tendency when misemployed.

Under the life of GALEN, in the Biographical division of our work, will be found a general account of the ancient modes of Bathing, and of the maladies for which it was used. In our treatise on ARCHITECTURE, the form and nature of the ancient Baths will be described; and in the article MEDICINE, the subject will of course be found repeatedly adverted to, under the head of those several affections in which Bathing has either properly or improperly been recommended and employed.

We first propose to treat of *cold Bathing*, or immersion in water under eighty degrees of Fahrenheit's scale. We shall then discuss the subject of *warm* and *hot Bathing*; and finally we shall make a few remarks on the contested question, whether medicinal powers are capable of influencing the system by the impregnation of waters or vapours that are used for the purpose of total immersion, or of partial application.

Cold Bathing, in the abstract, is vulgarly imagined

to be a strengthening process; and so it is fact is, when had recourse to under proper regulations; but its bracing operation has been inferred too generally from the constringing effects of cold upon some kinds of inanimate matter; and an erroneous theory has often led to a mischievous practice. Again, it has been thought that immersing the body occasionally in a medium of a lower temperature than the atmosphere, may prove useful, by accustoming the system to natural and necessary variations of heat and cold; and thus may be especially applicable to the inhabitants of so changeable a climate as is that of Britain; in this case also the influence has probably been too precipitately made, and drawn out too largely; since the transition implied by cold Bathing, is at once too great, and too rare in its recurrence, to ensure the alleged effect precisely in the manner and to the amount supposed.

We have known indeed several instances of individuals becoming far less sensible to the unpleasant feeling, or the injurious influence of cold, by the daily practice of immersion; and one gentleman in particular has lately told us, that he has scarcely known what taking cold is, since he adopted the practice of plunging into a pond in his garden, every morning during the year, immediately upon rising from his bed; but in these cases it is, to say the least, questionable whether the preservative against catarrhal complaints which cold Bathing proves, may not be referable rather to the generally strengthening and exciting operation of the measure, than to the principle of accustoming the body to vicissitudes in temperature.

It is admitted by all, that the beneficial effects resulting from cold immersion, are only then obtained when a glow or reaction, as it is termed, succeeds to the first shock; an acknowledgment of this fact is inconsistent with the notion of any great good being accomplished by the constringing or tonic power of the cold itself; indeed, if any corollary can be deduced

BATHING beyond that taught by mere empirical observation, as to the advantages of plunging into cold water, or having the same poured suddenly over the surface of the body, we should be disposed to say, that the operation upon the sentient system is the first instance, and the subsequent excitement in the second, are those circumstances to which the good is mainly attributable: (the excitement of which we speak, of course implying altered vascular conditions and effects upon the various secretions.) Hence the utility of the practice in those cases in which perception is morbidly affected, as is instanced in convulsions and insanity, both of which conditions have occasionally been beneficially treated by cold immersion and affusion. Hence, likewise, the good that is sometimes done by this remedy in those examples of irregular excitement which pass under the general denomination of fever, in which maladies the double indication of treatment often presents itself, viz. that of suppressing morbid, and raising up healthy excitement and heat.

"The first effects of a cold bath," says a modern writer, "are well known. The whole body is constructed; the bulbs of the hair are conspicuous; and the skin resembling that of a newly plucked goose; has been styled *cutis asserina*. The debility and tremor are considerable; a sense of weight is felt in the head: the respiration is quick and laborious. These symptoms are followed by a very different series: a glow soon returns to the surface; the weight in the head is almost instantaneously relieved, and every function appears to be carried on with increased activity. If a person stays longer in the cold bath, the glow will be slighter, and soon disappear; while every previous symptom of debility will return and continue.

"If the immersions are at due intervals repeated, and the stay in the bath be not improperly continued, the general health and spirits are greatly improved, the different necessary evacuations properly carried on and supported; and the body and mind appear to act with increased vigour."

The explanation which has been given of these "first effects" is, that the cold represses the circulation in the extreme vessels, and the fluids are consequently accumulated in the larger arteries and veins: that the operation, however, is partly mechanical, and dependent upon the different density and pressure of the new medium of immersion, is proved by the fact, that the application, however sudden and complete, of the same volume of air, of like temperature, would not be attended with precisely similar effects; as well as by the circumstance of plunging into water producing, in a degree, the effects in question, although its temperature may not be lower than that of the surrounding atmosphere.

On what the reaction depends, there has been much ridiculous controversy, hinging a great deal upon mere verbal differences; and, after all, we can do no more than refer it to a law of the animal economy, by which increased action follows temporary suspension. "To the frequent exertions of this rectifying power," says the author from whom we have made the above extract, "am I inclined to attribute the tonic effects which cold bathing produces. I have often remarked, that the constitution gains energy by the exertions of those powers, which preserve life and correct deviations; and I think the benefit obtained by the practice in question, is a proof of that position."

The states, then, of the body, in which cold immersion is likely to prove beneficial, are those in which there is a general torpor of the nervous system, which is either so confirmed in its nature, nor so severe in its extent, as to prevent reaction from being fully effected after the primary shock; this torpor not being connected with such partial congestions as shall interfere with the uniformity of the reacting process. In almost all the *scrofulas*, and in several of the *cocheries*, of Dr. Cullen's arrangement of diseases, cold bathing may be occasionally had recourse to with propriety and effect; such as palsy, indigestion, hypochondriasis, chlorosis, convulsions, St. Vitas' dance, hysteria, melancholia, mania, atrophy, rickets, scrophula, &c. always, however, under the recollection of the above restricting circumstances, viz. of too much weakness for full and steady reaction, and of attendant internal affections. In the *pyrexia* of the same author, (which comprises actual inflammation of organs), cold immersion is for the most part more objectionable; with the exception of its application to febrile states, for the purpose already alluded to, of reducing temperature, and stimulating to new actions: but to discuss the principles and practice of cold bathing, in respect to the remedial demands of fever, would be to extend the present article far beyond our prescribed limits. See *MISCELLANEA*.

When inflammatory affections are present in the pulmonary organs, or even when irritation exists in the lungs to a degree that may be under the grade of actual or active inflammation, cold bathing should be especially shunned, as likely to prove, if we may so say, specifically detrimental; and we feel disposed to insist particularly on this point, inasmuch as material injury has been done by an injudicious recourse to the cold bath for the purpose of counteracting prevailing debility, while something of a local kind, of far more moment than mere weakness, is pressing upon the vitals, to which the measure in question is calculated to produce an irreparable injury. The promising son of the celebrated author of the *Mineral*, was, by the shewing of his historian, manifestly hurt by the supposed salutary practices of bathing and swimming; and the following narration, given on the authority of the late Dr. Butey, of Hildesford, is one among very many that might be cited with the same bearing. "T. C. was rickety in his infancy, and very weakly for several years after. In the winter of 1759, he had pleuritic symptoms; a rheumatic fever left him next summer afflicted with chronic rheumatism; he was advised to go into the cold bath; he did so; but on coming out again felt such an increased load, fainting, and anxiety about the precordia, that he thought he should hardly recover the shock it gave him. Nevertheless, he ventured in again a day or two after, but experienced the former symptoms in an aggravated degree; and from this time dated the disorder which terminated his life."

As much solicitude is often manifested by mothers, respecting the question of cold bathing in reference to their offspring, we think it not proper to conclude this division of the subject, without introducing a remark or two on this head; and we cannot state our opinion more explicitly or concisely than we find it already done, in the following transcript from a modern writer, (Reid, on Consumption.)

"Two infants may be supposed of one family, with

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BATHING reverse constitutions. In the one a general torpor, debility, and great susceptibility to cold shall prevail; in the other, comparative vigour, activity, and warmth. To pursue without discrimination the same course with respect to immersion in water with each of these infants, would obviously be improper. That degree of cold which would refresh and invigorate the one, would confirm debility and augment torpor in the other. A bath which is not cold to the sensations must in the first instance at least be resorted to for the weaker infant; and in neither case should immersion in cold water be practised, when the external temperature of the body is inferior in degree to its general standard; when, after immersion, the body appears to be chilled, or when returning heat is attended with febrile languor, instead of the grateful, genial warmth characteristic of the appropriate action of exciting power. If the practice of immersion be guided by a cautious observance of these particulars, it may be pursued with safety, and will be attended with success; but a total neglect of Bathing were greatly preferable to the severe and incontinent manner in which infants are frequently exposed to these violent and rapid changes of temperature."

The following may be taken as general rules for the employment of cold Bathing by the adult, when the measure shall be judged expedient:

1st. Every cold bath applied to the whole body ought to be of short duration. 2d. The head ought to be the first part to receive the shock. 3d. Immersion ought to be sudden. 4th. Gentle exercise ought to precede the immersion, upon the principles to which we shall advert in a subsequent part of the present paper. 5th. The morning or forenoon are the best times for visiting the bath; in some cases it will be better to take breakfast an hour before the immersion, than to go in fasting. 6th. Weakly individuals should only give one plunge, and come out of the water immediately; and even the strong ought not to remain long in the bath, nor to be inactive while in the water. 7th. After immersion, a free and general friction ought to be employed for some time over the whole surface of the body with a rough cloth, and moderate exercise taken out of doors.

The above rules are extracted, with some variation, from Dr. Willich's *Lectures on Diet and Regimen*.

Shower bath. Affusion, or pouring water over the head and different parts of the body's surface, was a mode of bathing employed in the earliest periods; but the shower bath, in which the water is made to fall through numerous apertures, is a modern invention. This plan of applying cold water is often more practicable, and more applicable than the mode of Bathing by a plunge. No house indeed ought to be without a shower bath. Beside the advantages which shower Bathing possesses in common with immersion, it has some, as just intimated, peculiar to itself. It is frequently very efficacious in counteracting constitutional tendencies to those kinds of headaches which are at once occasioned by nervous weakness and vascular fulness. It may be used with caution for the purpose of preventing the recurrence of apoplectic seizures: it constitutes a good part of regimen for gouty habits, and is in fine an excellent expedient, even in health, for ensuring pleasurable sensations, and freedom from the adverse influence of cold.

Air bath. Attention to this mode of reducing the

temperature of the body for a time, and procuring a healthy reaction, in place of febrile irritation, has been much excited by the statements of the celebrated Franklin. It merely consists of jumping out of bed in a state of nudity, and after remaining a little while in the cold apartment, returning; or of undressing to the skin, and again putting on the clothes, after a short exposure to the air. This species of bath may occasionally be resorted to with beneficial effect; and sponging the body all over with cold water, upon first rising in the morning, (afterwards rubbing the surface with a coarse towel) is found by many individuals a very salutary practice.

Warm Bathing. As the beneficial effects of cold immersion have been attributed to the constringing properties of the medium employed, so by a similar kind of reasoning has it been inferred, that warm Bathing is a relaxing measure, by virtue of the "softening and moistening power" of the tepid water. The objections, however, which have already been urged against this mechanical reasoning, may apply perhaps with equal force in the present as in the former case; the softness and flexibility induced in the skin and muscles by the practice of immersion in the warm bath, being traceable more correctly to the influence of the process upon the circulation and secretions, than to any immediately mollifying agency upon the fibre. Warm water, however, expands, as cold contracts; and the bulk of a limb that has been immersed in it for some time, is actually increased; an effect which must either be occasioned by the expanding and exciting power of heat, or brought about by the reception of some portion of the fluid into the body: both, however, of these effects have been questioned, and even denied, as may be seen by the following extract:

"There is not the slightest evidence," says Dr. Parr, "of the fluid penetrating beyond the surface; indeed the oily fluid below the skin must prevent it; the idea," continues Dr. Parr, "of a rarefaction of the blood from the increased temperature, is supported by all the appearance of external fulness. The language is echoed in every medical work, without careful examination. In fact, the blood is one of the least expansible fluids by heat that has ever been tried. Sauvages enclosed it in a thermometrical tube, and found that at 212 it did not expand $\frac{1}{12}$ part. Haller exposed it to a still greater heat, with a similar result." The validity of the first of the above objections will briefly be inquired into in a subsequent part of the present essay; and in reply to the latter it may be said, that although blood is thus in a great measure inauscceptible of expansion from heat, that the secretions and exhalations from it may not be in like manner incapable of being transformed; and that the augmented bulk of a body or limb that has been immersed in hot water, may result in part from an increased secretion from the blood, occasioned by the application of warmth, and in part be occasioned by a degree of rarefaction effected upon these secretions themselves by the very power which excites their superabundance.

Dr. Parr made particular observations on warm Bathing at 96, 98, 100, 102, 104, and 106 of Fahrenheit, and he gives the following account of its general effects:

"At 96 the pulse, if at first slightly quickened, was soon natural; the respiration, in the earliest period a little more rapid, soon became free and easy, and but little change was produced in the heat of the body.

BATHING "At 98 the pulse was slightly increased in quickness, and did not subside; but the heat appeared to remain stationary. There was no sweat, though a free copious perspiration; the urine was not increased; and after some time the pulse became slower than before the Bathing. The cuticle was observed to be slightly corrugated.

"At 100 the pulse was increased from 60 to 79; the respiration much affected; the face red and swollen, and a copious sweat broke out; the cuticle appeared more corrugated. The heat was raised two degrees; and after about ten minutes, fainting came on. The perspiration was free and copious; and after a short time every disagreeable symptom vanished, the pulse sinking a little below its natural standard.

"At 102 the pulse was soon raised from 68 to 100; and, in ten minutes, the sweat on the face was copious, the vessels turgid, the skin not corrugated, and the heat of the body raised from 98 to 102. A beating noise was heard in the head; and in half an hour giddiness came on. When laid between blankets, the sweat was copious and free, the pulse soon became natural, and the quantity of urine was not increased.

"At 104 all these appearances were still more striking and more rapid; a vertigo coming on at the end of about twenty minutes, put a stop to the experiment.

"At 106 the effects came on still more quickly and more violently. The faintness and sickness supervened more early; the sweat was more copious, but the frequency of the pulse did not subside even after twenty-five minutes."

From the contrasted effects of warm and cold bathing in their immediate operation, it might be inferred that they stand in a sort of antithetical relation to each other, and that where one is improper, the other would from the same cause be applicable and salutary. This, however, is not exactly the case. It was stated, when we were mentioning the maladies in which cold Bathing is occasionally useful, that febrile disorders and mental affections are often successfully treated thereby; now in both these modifications of morbid being, the warm bath has likewise been had recourse to with the best effect; but for the principles upon which these apparent contradictions are reconciled, we must again refer the reader to other parts of our work. (See *MEDICINE*, under the head of *FEVER* and *INANIMITY*.)

Warm Bathing, as well as cold Immersion, is used for the purpose of excitation; but it will be perceived how different the kind of excitation is, which is produced by the one and the other expedient. In the reaction after cold Bathing, there is not that sensible augmentation of bulk which the tepid Immersion ensures; there is not that immediate increase from the emunctories which we have seen to be the effect of the latter, when the temperature of the medium is carried up to my height; and there is, farther, this very important distinction between the operation of cold and warm Bathing, that in the latter the stimulus is immediately applied from without,—is direct and noninterfering; while in the former, on the contrary, the excitement is ensured by the subduction rather than the application of exciting powers.

From the expediting effects of warm Bathing it seems necessarily to follow, that its employment must be objectionable, and indeed hazardous, in those con-

ditions of the frame which are marked by plethoric fulness, and tendency to local congestion. True it is, that its influence upon the secretions, especially upon the production of sweat, serves in a degree to counteract its injurious tendency from the source now referred to; but this will not always be effected sufficiently early to prevent mischief; and, it may be here stated, by way of illustration, that in convulsions, cramp, and other disorders incident to children of a full habit, injury is not seldom done by immersion in hot water (prior to the emptying of blood vessels, or otherwise reducing the frame,) under the feeling that there is a sort of abstract and specific virtue in the warm bath.

In apoplectic affections the same objection applies; and in hemorrhages warm Bathing would appear to be decidedly contraindicated. In those maladies, however, which result from hemorrhages and fulness, connected with and frequently occasioned by weakness, it may often be employed with propriety and effect.

"In cases of hemiplegia," says an author whom we have already quoted, "there have been many doubts respecting the use of the warm bath. These chiefly arise from the disease being often occasioned by effusions on the brain, which the necessary stimulus might increase; and many instances have been adduced of its producing in such cases a fatal apoplexy. Undoubtedly, where the marks of a determination to the head are strong; where the patient has not passed the meridian of life; or where the vessels have been stimulated by a continued excess of wine and spirituous liquors, warm Bathing is a precarious remedy. In palsies in general, however, it may be allowed; and in hemiplegia, the effusion having once taken place, the disease is continued, in consequence of the injury which the nervous system has received from the compression. We may then disregard the cause, except in the younger and more inflammatory constitutions just described. It should, however, be managed with caution; a drain from the head should be established by a perpetual blister, and the bowels freely emptied previous to its employment."

In chronic rheumatism, which is a disorder somewhat allied to palsy, warm Bathing is of generally allowed utility; and in other articular affections, as well as in some cases of contracted limbs, the continued use of hot water, either in the way of immersion or forcible affusion, evinces occasionally high remedial efficiency.

With respect to pulmonary ailments, much care and discrimination are requisite, in order to insure the patient against the injurious tendency already noticed. To consumptive irritations, a judicious use of the warm bath not seldom proves highly beneficial; but on the other hand, where there is a constitutional bias towards hemorrhage from the lungs, assisted by disturbance prevailing in these organs, we must be cautious against the too free use of a measure which may become hurtful, by seconding us it were the hemorrhagic inclination.

Warm Bathing is an obvious expedient in catenane disorders of a chronic kind; and there are scarcely any of the eruptive affections that are untended by fever, in which it has not been proposed and employed. These morbid conditions of the surface are, sometimes, manifestations of internal derangement; and at other

BATHING times consist solely of indolent or irregular action in the superficial vessels, either of circulation or secretion; and in both cases, more especially in the latter, it is easy to conceive that a measure which excites these vessels into new and more vigorous actions, promises to prove remedial. When determinations, as they are called, from internal parts to the surface are demanded, warm Bathing is also likely to be of service. After violent perturbation of mind, after fatigue from inordinate exertion, after the debilitating exercise of protracted thinking, warm Bathing soothes, refreshes, and stimulates—thus proving that the practice, so far from being in the abstract, and in moderation, relaxant and weakening, is in fact the contrary.

Indeed going into a warm bath when the body is heated, will frequently be followed by an immediate reduction of temperature, which is an effect that would not have been very readily anticipated. Dr. Currie has proposed an explanation of this circumstance, and suggests, whether in the production of sweat, heat may not be absorbed and lost to the sensations, by becoming latent, in consequence of this latter fluid (the matter of perspiration) having a greater capacity for heat than the blood. This hypothesis is highly ingenious but not perhaps quite satisfactory; its discussion however in the present article, would lead us into too wide a field. (See *MEASURES*, article *FEVER*.)

Does warm immersion or hot Bathing render the body more than commonly susceptible of cold? Were the vulgar notions respecting the *modus operandi* of cold Bathing, quite correct, or were the opinions generally entertained on the subject of transitions from cold to heat founded in absolute truth, we should expect that an individual who is in the constant practice of warm Bathing, would therefore be more obnoxious than another to the hurtful operation of cold. That this however is not the case, daily experience testifies; and indeed the universally sanctioned practice of going first into warm baths in order to prepare for sea or cold Bathing, is inconsistent with the assumption now referred to. On the laws of heat and cold in reference to the living power and actions, it may not be inexpedient here to introduce a few remarks.

Passing from a heated apartment to a cold air, or in any way subjecting the system to the precipitate influence of cold after it has been inordinately heated, has been, and for the most part still is, supposed to be highly dangerous. Several physiologists, however, (and among them stands prominent the late learned and amiable Dr. Currie of Liverpool,) have aimed to prove that the supposition is not only erroneous in itself, but that the habits it inculcates are fraught with mischief. "The popular opinion (says the author just referred to) that it is safest to go perfectly cool into the water is founded on erroneous notions, and is sometimes productive of injurious consequences. Thus persons heated and beginning to sweat, often think it necessary to wait on the edge of the bath until they are perfectly cooled; and then plunging into the water feel a sudden chilliness that is alarming and dangerous. In such cases the injury is generally imputed to going into the water too warm, whereas it in truth arises from going in too cold." These physiologists would further contend, that waiting in an anti-room after an assembly, in order gradually to encounter the cold air, upon the same principles that the ancients used to

employ the *frigidarium* subsequently to the hot bath, **BATHING** is decidedly wrong, since the body is better able to contend with cold when filled and as it were saturated with heat, than when it has lost a great portion of that heat by the cooling process supposed.

Dr. Currie indeed lays it down as an axiom, that in all cases the safety with which cold may be applied, is in proportion to the previous heat, and he appeals to the much talked of experiments of Dr. Fordyce and Sir Charles Blagden, in vindication of this assumption. "These experimentalists passed out of the heated room (where the temperature of the air seems to have been 240° and sometimes 260°,) after every experiment, immediately, into the cold air; without any precaution: after exposing their naked bodies to the heat, and sweating most violently, they instantly went into a cold room, and staid there even some minutes before they began to dress; yet they did not receive the least injury."

The same principle, it is argued, applies to drinking cold water; and we are told that "there is no situation in which the application of cold to the body, whether to the surface or the stomach is so safe, or in general so salutary, as when the heat of the body, from whatever cause, is preternaturally great, provided the body is not already in a state in which it is rapidly parting with this heat, and no disease has taken place in the general sensibility, or in the structure of the parts." The author from whom we have made the above quotation, rebukes an erroneous and dangerous the following rules given by Dr. Rush, as means of preventing the mischievous effects of drinking cold liquids in a heated state. "The individuals who cannot be restrained from drinking cold water when preternaturally heated, should grasp the vessel out of which they are about to drink, for a minute or longer with both hands, that a portion of heat may be extracted from the body and imparted to the cold liquor; 2d, if they are not furnished with a vessel to drink out of, but obliged to drink at a pump or a spring, they ought always to wash their hands and face previously to drinking, with a little of the cold water. By receiving," says Dr. Rush, "the shock of the water first on those parts of the body, a portion of its heat is conveyed away, and the vital parts are defended from the action of cold."

It is pretty certain in our minds, that the general principles of Dr. Currie and those physiologists who advocate his doctrine, in reference to transition from heat to cold, are in the main well founded: certain occurrences, however, occasionally take place which would seem in some degree to qualify, if not to invalidate the general bearing of the assumptions and inferences of these ingenious specialists.

We have not met with any thing on this interesting controversy, more satisfactory than the following suggestions, which we shall therefore extract, and with this extract conclude the subject of temperature.

"The state of the body in reference to its susceptibility of being affected by cold media, has more reference to the kind than degree of previously existing heat; or more correctly speaking, although an equal quantity of actual heat may be present in the system, such heat may be extracted with greater or less facility and safety, according to the mode in which it has been generated. The increase of temperature occasioned by what is termed an inflammatory action pervading the whole system, such as is sometimes observed in

BATHING violent inflammation of the lungs; that attended by an extremely debilitated state of the vital powers, as in instances of what has been improperly termed putrid fever; the heat consequent upon violent exercise, and that produced by communication from without, as in the example of hot baths, or exposures to other sources of great heat while the body continues inactive, are all essentially different in their nature; and although in each case the quantity may be equal, and a thermometer applied to any part of the body's surface shall indicate the same temperature; yet, from such temperature alone, it would be improper to form a judgment on the expediency and safety of the sudden application of cold. In the author's recollection, a case occurred of violent inflammation of the whole thoracic viscera, which speedily terminated in death, almost immediately following a large draught of cold water, when the body had been heated from unusual exercise. The deceased was, previously to the event, a strong and healthy man, in the prime and vigour of life. In this case the injury appeared to arise, not from the sudden abstraction of heat, but from the precipitate interruption of those actions by which the increase of temperature had been generated. Had the same quantity of water equally cold been suddenly swallowed by a person oppressed and debilitated by febrile heat and irritation, these fatal consequences would not have succeeded; because in this latter case the cold fluid would have operated in deducting from the superfluous quantity of generated and oppressive heat, and the refreshing sensation excited in consequence would have stimulated the languid frame. The same principle likewise applies in the application of cold media, either partial or general, to the external surface. Dr. Beddoes relates the case of an obstinate eruptive affection being produced on the face, in consequence of 'the immersion of that part in cold water, when the subject of the affection was heated and thrown into perspiration by play.' Had this immersion immediately succeeded to hot bathing, or been made during the existence of dry febrile heat, the injurious effects would not have resulted; for this reason, that the action of the cutaneous vessels would not, in the latter cases, have been injuriously interrupted, and thus indirectly stimulated into inordinate excitement.

"The seeming contrarieties of speculations on the subject of temperature, may, perhaps, likewise in some measure have arisen from neglecting the very important circumstances of cooling applications, acting through successive moments or by successive quantities. If a person in a heated state drink half a pint of cold liquid, that may not sensibly reduce him below the natural healthy state; but if he pour down a double quantity at once, the last half pint may be regarded as operating upon the system reduced by the first, and sinking into a dangerous chilliness: so immersion for a moment in a sunny river may strengthen and refresh, as many pedestrian travellers have experienced; whereas delay in the water would be attended with great hazard, on account of the continued operation of a heat-abstracting medium upon a system sufficiently reduced in its temperature and actions by the first plunge.

"Whatever might have been the actual condition of Alexander (Dr. Currie contends that the Macedonian conqueror was in a debilitated exhausted state), when he plunged into the Cydnus, the injurious effects of his

BATHING bathing, unquestionably originated from the sudden reduction of heat below the standard of health. '*Lique ingressi subito horrore arina nigrae caperunt; pallor deinde suffusus est, et totum propemodum corpus vitalis calor reliquit.*' In this case, perhaps, an exposure to cool air, or immersion in water of a superior temperature, but which would nevertheless have abstracted a certain degree of heat from the languid frame, would have displayed effects exactly contrary to those which the historian here relates. In like manner the Russian who, reeking from his vapour hagnio, immediately rolls in snow, or who, after immersion in a bath which has been heated almost beyond endurance, instantaneously plunges into contiguous cold water, requires that the medium to which he is first exposed be extremely great, or the succeeding cold application would debilitate and perhaps destroy.' Upon this principle likewise the statement of Dr. Fordyce is explained, that a person passing from a violent degree of heat to much cold, will gradually return to his proper standard of temperature—while from a sudden change from heat to cold, when the heat has not been so high, diseases will often be generated."

Medicinal Baths. Whether substances can be made to penetrate through the outer skin, this being whole and entire, is still a *sub-judice* question in Physiology, and until this question be satisfactorily determined, it is not perhaps possible to decide with certainty respecting the alleged virtues of materials, whether applied in a liquid or vaporous form to the surface of the body, for the counteraction of diseased states.

To suppose for a moment, that the notion of Medicated Baths is founded in error, and is a mere expedient of empiricism, will be to excite surprise in the minds of many readers; but every one must be aware, that faith, indifferent medicinal processes and articles, often gains for a time a very firm footing upon very slippery ground, and that maladies are not seldom cured by the unassisted influence of the imaginative power.

That the bulk of the body or of a limb, is increased by immersion for a time in hot water or vapour, is a fact to which we have already adverted; but it has also been said, that this increase of size is possibly attributable to other principles, than that of the actual entrance of the fluid from without, so that this circumstance in itself would prove nothing; if by the same process the weight of the body were increased, we should seem to approach somewhat nearer to certainty on the point in dispute. We shall again therefore almost immediately refer to this particular; but, first, it may be right to state one or two of the leading arguments that have been adduced in favour of an imbibing power possessed by the surface of the body.

That the system may be impregnated, in an unequivocal manner, by the application externally of materials, as in the case of mercurial unguent, is a fact sufficiently established; and the mere laying some substances on the skin even without friction, has been supposed in certain cases to give decided proofs of internal effect.

It is likewise well known, that thirst is oftentimes much alleviated by bathing the body in water; a practice to which sailors in long voyages often have recourse, when their supply of fresh water fails them. Dr. Monard, in his *Treatise on Bathing*, assumes this to be so satisfactory in proof of absorption by the skin, that he says "no naturalist will rate the sufferings of

BATHING Tantalus very highly." The effect by others, however, who disbelieve in cutaneous absorption, has been attributed partly to the grateful sensations produced by immersion, and partly to the sympathetic relations which the organs concerned in thirst have with the netions of the skin.

The following experiment of the late Bishop of Llandaff, has been thought much more conclusive in favour of the supposition that something is positively received from without.

Dr. Watson gave a Newmarket jockey previously to a race, a single glass of wine, which weighed little more than an ounce, and upon weighing him immediately after the enure, he was found to have increased thirty ounces, although he had taken nothing more than the glass of wine, and notwithstanding that something considerable must have been lost by the pores of the skin. The objector to cutaneous inhalation replies to this curious fact, that the additional matter might have been taken in by the lungs, and that no decisive results can be obtained without instituting processes which shall take pulmonary exhalation and absorption into the account. Under this impression, Dr. Rousseau of South Carolina made the following experiment: he poured a pint of spirit of turpentine on a table in a close room, and walked backwards and forwards for half an hour; at the end of that time he found that his secretions manifested most unequivocally that the system was impregnated with the material. He then provided a long pipe which communicated with the external air; he breathed through it, cautiously excluding all communication with the air of the room. He then again poured out the same quantity of the spirit of turpentine, and found that no impregnation had been produced. He then immersed his arm in the same fluid for two hours, luting the vessel to the skin, so that no vapour could escape; and in this case also both his urine and perspiration remained without the slightest impregnation; as was the case likewise when he smeared his body all over with the spirit of turpentine, while he guarded against the inhalation of the vapour by the lungs.

Other experiments have been instituted with a view to ascertain, whether by immersion in the warm bath, the weight of the body is increased, and in those trials which have been marked by the greatest accuracy, the result seems unfavourable to the supposition of any fluid being imbibed through the epidermis. To the statement, however, that no increase of weight follows Bathing, the objection naturally and obviously suggests itself, that the absorption may be counterbalanced by the increased exhalation. In order to meet this objection, M. Seguin, an antiabsorptionist, dissolved in the water of the bath in which he made his experiments, substances which produce a specific effect when actually taken into the system. He employed the oxygenated muriate of mercury in solution, and while the epidermis was entire, he never perceived a single instance of salivation or mercurial influence. But in cases where a considerable portion of epidermis was injured or destroyed, the specific effects of mercury on the system were produced. "The experiments of M. Seguin are very numerous, and appear to be devised so as to meet every objection. He concludes from the whole, that while the epidermis is entire, the absorbents of the surface take up neither water nor air, nor any substance diffused or dissolved in either," and

Dr. Currie expresses it likewise to be his opinion, **BATHING** "that though the exhalents of the skin pierce the epidermis, and come into contact with the external air, the mouths of the absorbents terminate under it, and are covered by it; and that while it remains unirritated, and entire, no absorption of solid, liquid, or aeriform elastic fluid takes place on the surface."

In cases of positive influence on the frame from unguents and local applications, "it will be found (it is urged) that the article absorbed is forced through the epidermis by mechanical pressure, or that it first irritates and corrodes this tegument, and then coming in contact with the mouths of the lymphatics under it is of course absorbed."

Experiments are still, perhaps, wanting to establish either the one or the other doctrine on an immovable footing; but we think, to say the least, that the doubts which have been thrown on the permeability of the outer skin to extraneous matter, are such as to make us cautious in believing that much efficacy can fairly be ascribed to medicinal baths (whether the impregnation be natural or artificial), beyond that which is derived from temperature applied to a liquid or aerial form. In instances of cutaneous affection, indeed, the case may be different, because in most of these last disorders, the actual skin, and therefore the mouths of the absorbents, are brought into contact with the material employed—the epidermis or scarf-skin being broken down in several points by the morbid action going on upon the surface—and when these cutaneous derangements happen to be manifestations of internal disorder, the impregnated bath may prove of service in two ways: 1st, by exciting new actions in the superficies of the body; and 2dly, by so influencing the general frame, as to subdue the force of the morbid process, whence had emanated the disease of the skin.

Scepticism with respect to the specific influence of medicinal baths, would be likely to extend itself to the consideration of sea Bathing; and it does seem difficult upon abstract principles to imagine any peculiarity of virtue in salt water either warm or cold. It will be observed, however, that we have refrained from committing ourselves either by absolute denial or by unqualified reception of the antiabsorbing tenets, with the inferences deduced from them; and, as well in these as in all other matters, where philosophical certainty is denied us, mere observation of effects, without reference to *rationale*, must possess some weight in practical questions.

"Three causes of preference (says a modern writer,) have been assigned for sea Bathing beyond the consideration of temperature: one is the greater pressure of water impregnated with salt; the second the stimulus of the salt on the skin; and the third the absorption of the salt." On the third head he declines to state his sentiments; but in reference to the two former assumptions, he expresses himself in the following terms. "Each may have some effect, and the latter ground of preference is assuredly more certain than the former. We cannot easily conceive how the momentary increase of pressure can have any considerable effect except by the increase of momentum; and the stay in the sea is too short to expect much advantage from this source. The river water, heated from the vicinity of the shore, is less active than the sea water, whose heat is uniform in summer and more so in winter; and the sea water, warmed from 75° to

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ENGUS.

89° may be a useful bath for invalids, preparatory to immersion in the sea. In these baths of a higher temperature, the patient should stay a longer time

than in the sea or fresh water. It is an observation of BATHING Galen, that a more temperate bath is not less useful than a cold one, if the stay be protracted in it."

BATRA-
CHUS.

BATHURST, the capital of the new settlement near the great fish river, on the east side of the colony of the Cape of Good Hope. Though so recently founded, it is rapidly increasing, and several good houses have already been finished, and many more are advancing towards completion. A large inn has also been built, for the accommodation of visitors; and as the site has been well chosen, Bathurst is expected very soon to become one of the first towns in the colony.

BATHURST is also the name of the new British settlement on the island of St. Mary, at the mouth of the river Gambia, on the western coast of Africa. Of this place, Sir George Collier, in his second report on the settlements on this coast, observes; "The island of St. Mary, upon which Bathurst, the capital, is rising, with the same rapidity that the most healthful climate, and most fruitful and productive country could desire, is a barren sandy spot, in many places scarcely above the level of the sea. Buildings combining neatness and beauty are appearing, and St. Mary bids fair to rival every spot on the lengthened line of coast of western Africa, in commerce and industry."

BATHYERGUS, from *Bathyergus*, to work deeply in the earth, Illig. Cuv. *Cape Mole Rat*. In *Zoology*, a genus of animals belonging to the order Rodentia, class Mammalia. Generic character: incisor teeth large, not covered by the lips, and wedge-shaped; canine none, grinders four on either side, above and below, the posterior sloping deeply outwards; muzzle broad; eyes small; auricles none; tail short and bristly; toes five on each foot, short and armed with thin flat nails.

The two species of which this genus is composed, are both found at the Cape of Good Hope, and differ little from each other except in size. Illiger however has placed the smaller animal in a different genus; but Cuvier thinks without reason, as he has satisfied himself that their structure is the same.

B. Maritimus, Illig. Cuv.; *Mus Maritimus*, Lin.; *la Grande Taup du Cap*, Buff.; *African Rat*, Penn.; *Sand Mole of the Dutch*. This animal is about the size of a rabbit, and of a cinereous brown colour; having a large head without auricles, and the nose slightly flattened, wrinkled and black: the legs are short, having four toes with long claws, and a thumb with a short claw on the anterior extremities, whilst the hind legs are long, having five toes armed with short claws. It inhabits the Cape, where it is known by the name of "*Zand Molt*," living near the shore, and in burrowing throwing up billocks, which render travelling on horseback dangerous; "the ground" says Pennant, "breaking every six or seven minutes under the horses feet, and letting them sink up to the shoulders."

B. Capensis, Cuv.; *Mus Capensis*, Lin. Pall.; *Taup du Cap de Bonne Esperance*, Buff.; *Cape Rat*, Penn. About seven inches long, of a dusky rufous ash brown colour, with a white stripe round the eye and ear, and on the vertex; muzzle black. It is very common in the gardens at the Cape, and called "*Bleu Molt*" by the inhabitants.

See Linnæi *Systema Naturæ*; Pennant's *History of*

Quadrupeds; Buffon *Histoire Naturelle*; Cuvier *Règne Animal*; Illiger *Prodromus Systematis Mammalium*.

BATIS, a genus of plants, class Diœcia, order Tetrandria. Generic character: calix, æment pyramidal; corolla none; stamina, filamenta four; anthers oblong; pistil, germ quadrangular; style none; stigma obtuse, pericarp, berry one-celled, seeds four.

The only species is the *B. Maritima*; *Maritima Erecta* or *Kali Frutescens*, a native of Jamaica.

BATON ROUGE, a post town in Louisiana, on the east bank of the Mississippi, and about 140 miles above New Orleans. The hill on which it stands, is the first rise that appears on the banks of this river from its mouth, and is only about twenty-five feet above the common level of the water. This is a flourishing settlement, and the population of the whole parish is estimated at five or six thousand persons, though perhaps not more than a tenth of them live at Baton Rouge.

BATRACHIA, in *Zoology*, one of the orders or great divisions of the class Reptilia.

BATRACHUS, from *Batrachos*, a Frog, Schneider, Cuv. *Frog Fish*. In *Zoology*, a genus of animals belonging to the family Percæ, order Acanthopterygii, class Pisces. Generic character: head flattened horizontally, larger than the body; ventral fins straight attached under the throat; first dorsal fin short, supported by three spinous rays; second dorsal long and soft, opposite to which the anal fin also soft; mouth and gills very large; gill flap spined; lips sometimes bearded.

This genus was first established by Schneider in his edition of Illoek's *Ichthyology*, and named from the immense size of the head, resembling that of the Frog. The species of which it is composed inhabit the southern hemisphere, and lie in ambush in the sand for the purpose of catching those fish on which they prey. They may be separated into two divisions, in consequence of not all possessing beards or cirri on the lips.

* With beards.

B. Didactylus, Schneid.; *Two Fingered Frog Fish*, is about sixteen inches long; body flattened before, compressed behind; skin thick and loose; head naked; mouth large and furnished with small sharp teeth facing inwards; beard-like processes at both corners of the mouth, and many on the edge of the lower lip; tongue and palate rough; eyes near the upper lip with the nostrils opening before them; posterior terminating in two short points, and the hrunchal opening large; belly large, vent in the middle; scales small, soft and round; rays of the fins thick and not bearded; pectoral and caudal fins round, dorsal and anal longitudinal; no lateral line. It inhabits the Guinea coast.

B. Tux, Schneid.; *Gadus Tux*, Lin.; *Toad Fish of the Americans*; *Caroline Frog Fish*. This fish gets its specific name from a yellow stripe more or less irregular, and similar to the Greek letter tau, situated between the eyes and the neck; it is about a foot long; the body scaly and of a yellowish brown colour spotted with

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black; head very large and flattened; eyes large, with the irides of a bright yellow colour; mouth large, the lower jaw projecting beyond the upper and bearded; rays of the first dorsal fin three-spined, those of the second soft; first ray of the ventral broad and sword-shaped. Dr. Gardeus states that this animal is called by the inhabitants of Carolina, the "Toad Fish;" by the French it has been called "*Cropond de Mer*." Its habits are very little known, but it is considered predacious. It is found in hot climates, and is taken on the coasts of Carolina.

B. Grunniens, Schneider; *Cottus Grunniens*, Lin. Block; *Grunting Bull Head*, Shaw; *Grunting Frog Fish*. This animal is about ten inches long; of a brown colour marked with white on the sides; the fins pale and spotted with brown; it has no scales; lower jaw projecting and ciliated; ventral fins bearing three rays; tail rounded; posterior operculum spined. This fish when taken, makes a noise like the grunting of a pig, by suddenly expelling air from the internal cavities through the mouth and gill flaps. It inhabits the Indian and American seas.

** Without beards.

B. Surinamensis, Schneider; *Surinam Frog Fish*. About sixteen inches long; mouth smooth; anterior dorsal fin having three spines; ventral having nine rays, rounded; scales oblong; vent nearer the head; lateral line straight. It inhabits Surinam.

B. Indicus, Schneider; *Indus Frog Fish*. This fish was confounded by Block with the *Cottus insidiator*; it has the body flat with longitudinal rugae on the upper surface; tongue obtuse; anterior opercula bearing two spines, posterior one; ray of the first dorsal fin very short; ventral fins far apart. It is found in Asia.

B. Guayana, Schneider; *Guayana* of the Spaniards. Head small, broad and smooth; jaws armed with numerous fine sharp teeth; eyes vertical; body round; caudal fin round; scales small. It inhabits the Havannah and is considered good eating.

B. Triglodes, Schneider; *Callionymus Triglodes*, Forster; *Trigrid Frog Fish*. About six inches long, and rather more than an inch broad; body oblong, covered with small close imbricated scales variegated with brown and yellow above and white below; head very large, forming one-third of the whole body, somewhat triangular, flat below and compressed almost to an edge above before the eyes, behind then rather flatter with the sides depressed; gill flaps composed of three pieces, tealy; first dorsal fin triangular, having seven rays slightly spinous, the second having twenty-two rays; pectoral fins with seventeen bearded rays; and the first ray of the ventral also bearded; tail rounded having twelve rays. It is found in the sea near Terra del Fuogo.

B. Bupius, Schneider; *Callionymus Bupius*, Forster; *Two Spined Frog Fish*. About three inches long, three quarters of an inch broad; body and head depressed anteriorly, compressed behind; oblong, smooth, of a blackish brown colour varied with red, beneath of a pale flesh colour; posterior gill flap having two spines; the first dorsal, the ventral and the anal fins bearded; tail rounded and varied with flesh colour and brown. It is also found in the same seas as the preceding. *B. Triglodes* and *B. Bupius* were described by Schneider from the manuscripts of Forster, who accompanied Capt. Cook in his Voyage round the World, now in the Royal Library of Berlin.

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BATTA.

See Cuvier *Régne Animal*; Block *Systema Ichthyologie*; *carante* Schneider; Linnæi *Systema Naturæ*.

BATSEN or BATSCN, also sometimes called Bacs, is a county in Hungary, which takes its name from its principal town. It is bounded on the west by little Cumania and the Theysa, and on the west by the Danube. Since the introduction of the Spanish breed of sheep into Hungary, the trade in fine wool in this district has been considerable. Batsen has also frequently been the scene of conflict between Austrian and Turkish armies; and has, since the reign of Joseph II. been united to the county of Bodrog.

Batsen, the capital of the preceding county, situated about four miles from the north bank of the Danube, and twenty from the confluence of this river and the Drave, was formerly the see of a Bishop, and a more flourishing place than at present. Latitude 46° 18' N. longitude 19° 10' E.

BATTA, a country is the island of Sumatra, stretching along the south-western shore between the rivers Siakell and Tukhyong, and extending wholly across the island. Very little is yet known respecting the interior of this district; but as the Christian benevolence of Britain has reached these shores, and some missionaries, are before this time settled among the Battas, on the bay of Tappanooly, and are learning their language, we shall, doubtless, soon be furnished with more correct information respecting both the interior and the inhabitants, than we at present possess. It is understood that a large lake occupies a considerable tract in this district, and that several rivers overflow the lower parts of the country during the rainy season. The surface, however, towards the interior, opposite to the East India Company's settlement at Natal, as far as the missionary, Mr. Bortos, was able to penetrate in the autumn of 1821, was composed of rugged hills, chiefly covered with thick forests, and separated by ravines which often formed the beds of rapid streams. This journey, however, only extended as far as Mora Summa, a station which has lately been chosen by the Company's resident at Natal, for the purpose of maintaining a free and uninterrupted communication with the Batta people. It is situated about the middle of the range of lofty mountains seen in a north-easterly direction from Natal hill, and within three days walk of the Mendeling country, which is spoken of in the highest terms by the Princes near the shore, who have visited it; and is supposed to contain a population of at least 100,000 individuals. That the whole of the interior of this part of Sumatra, even in ascending the range of mountains towards Mora Summa, is not altogether unproductive or uncultivated is obvious; for in reference to one of these tracts, Mr. Bortos says, "The country round here is the most beautiful I have seen on Sumatra. It is cultivated chiefly with linings, for several miles in every direction. There is no awkward ground. The Batta people of this place, unlike their neighbours, and unlike Batta people of other places, live on their respective farms, and not collected together in dusuns (villages). The houses scattered upon the surrounding hills, reminded me much of my favourite Gloucestershire, as I viewed them at a distance." Respecting the physical state of the country near the termination of his journey, this enterprising missionary also remarks. "On reaching the summit of the last hill, the prospect presented was very interesting. Behind us, we looked down

BATTA. upon the beautiful country of Pulumpungan, (the district above referred to,) where nearly every hill has its farm-house, and a crop of ripe paddy waving to the breeze. In the front, about one thousand feet below us, was the Company's station at Mora Summa. This is situated on a plain from three to four miles in circumference, and washed on three sides by three noisy rapid rivers, whose junction at this place gives it the name of Mora Summa, or the conflux of waters. All round the plain the hills rise to a considerable height, and form quite an amphitheatre, which is overlooked on two sides by the gloomy black mountains that rise almost perpendicularly from it to the height of four thousand feet, and eight thousand, I should suppose, above the level of the sea.

Among the chief products of the country, are plantains, pepper, Indian corn and paddy. The camphir tree is also one of its valuable vegetable products, also cassia, cotton, indigo, and gum benzoin. Gold and sulphur form part of its mineral treasures; the first of which Mr. B. had an opportunity of seeing the natives procure. It is chiefly obtained from the beds of the rivers; the mud of which is washed nearly in the same way as in South America. Among the animal tribes, monkeys are numerous; while elephants and tigers are frequently met with, but very few birds were seen.

The Battas who lay in Mr. Barton's route in this expedition, he describes as fine, tall, stout, good-looking people, much superior in appearance to the generality of the Malays. They have nothing of the soft expression of the Malay countenance; but on the contrary have a peculiarly fierce and independent look. They are well dressed in cotton cloths, manufactured by the women, and ornamented with English beads, chiefly procured at Natal. "These people," remarks the same traveller, "are perfectly independent; they have no idea of their own inferiority to any people on earth, and their carriage and behaviour tell you so. They are very polite in their own way, are good speakers, and know perfectly well how to manage every point of an argument, so as to turn it to their own advantage. Ife among them is the most celebrated chief who possesses undaunted courage, and can make the best of a bad cause. They are divided into a great number of tribes or clans, under separate chief Rajahs, who on particular occasions appear in court dress, which is, in fact, undress from the waist upwards. They fasten their clothes with a band round the middle, which hangs down in tassels in front. These tassels are ornamented with beads, and contain at the end a purse for their gold dust. Each of the Rajahs seen by Mr. B. had five keesees (daggers) hanging from his belt, which gave him a very fierce appearance. Their head-dress is a piece of blue cotton cloth, of an oblong shape, rolled up like a mop, and tied round the head so as to leave the top uncovered, and the two ends projecting like horns, before and behind. The females do not appear to be encumbered with much dress, and such as are unmarried, have generally several strings of beads about their necks, as an indication of their being single."

The Battas, though savage and depraved, do not appear to be sunk so low in the dark scale of ignorance as many of the other tribes of the eastern archipelago; for they have a settled language, which is extensively written and understood, and many of their books are neatly executed. The whole population of these regions

is estimated at a million; two or three hundred thousand of whom can read. The usual materials of which their books are composed, is the bark of a tree; but some of them are now written upon English paper, which is procured at the Company's stations along the coast. The language has many words in common with the Malay; and respecting it Mr. B. says, "I have begun to read it, and find there is nothing to fear relative to its acquisition; the character is remarkably simple, and every sound having its representative mark, the language may be pronounced correctly by any person who has acquired the character, though he may not understand what he reads."

Mr. Prince, the Company's resident at Natal, drew up a brief account of the religion of these people, at the request of the Hon. Sir T. S. Raffles, from which it appears to be compounded of the most ridiculous and barbarous superstitions, founded upon human depravity. They do not, however, worship images, but they believe in the existence of certain deities; and the attributes assigned to them indicate a much greater degree of knowledge and civilisation at some former period, than is manifested at present. *Dee Battah asee asee* is considered as the Creator and Father of all things, and is supposed to have appointed three brothers as his agents to instruct mankind. *Bateragourou* was the God of justice; *Seerce Padah*, the God of mercy; but *Mahalahoolas*, the third brother, soon disagreed with the other two, separated from them, and propagated tenets directly in opposition to theirs. He is therefore described as the source of "discord and contention—the instigator of malice and revenge—the inciter of anger—the source of fraud, deceit, lying, hypocrisy and murder." He has the chief influence among the Battas, and they acknowledge that petitions are seldom offered to either of the others. The only semblance of a priest among them, is a person named *Watton*, who is skilled in all their superstitions; and there is generally one of these to every village; but the only religious ceremonies the existence of which Mr. Prince could ascertain, appeared to consist in an invocation of the names of the dead. "The influence of the Dattoos over the deluded Battas is such," says Mr. P. "that they will not engage in any undertaking, however trifling, without first consulting them. They expound all their religious books, and according to their interpretation, a day is chosen as propitious to the accomplishment of the desired object, whether it be a suit, a journey or war. The moral conduct of these people appears to be influenced by all the vile passions of an irregular and irritable constitution. Truth is seldom regarded when in the way of their interests or feelings; and honesty is never founded on principle, but on the fear of detection. The general tenor of their lives has obliterated the recollection and practice of the laws of *Seerce Padah* and *Bateragourou*, and they have no priesthood or Rajah to recall them, or to reprove their obstinate adherence to the principles of *Mahalahoolas*, who is certainly no other than the devil."

Gaming seems to be one of the chief amusements of this people; and this they practise in a very cruel manner, thus described by Mr. Burton, as witnessed in his late journey. Having visited one of their bazars, he says, "here were about one hundred persons amusing themselves with a most cruel game. They drive a small stake into the earth, and round it draw a circle, which they divide into four equal parts; in

BATTA.

BATTA. each of the partitions different individuals put equal sums of money; to the stake is tied a young fowl, whose throat being cut, it flutters about for a short time, and then expires. The person whose money happens to be in the partition where the fowl lies after death, sweeps the stakes. The circle may be divided into as many parts as there are persons who wish to follow the amusement. The man officiating as cut-throat was the *Innam* (or priest) of the place. The cruel and hardening influence which this game must have on the dispositions of the people, is sufficiently obvious. It is now become such a favourite amusement in these parts, that fowls and even eggs, are difficult to be procured at any price at Natal. On another day, when he went to the hazard about nine o'clock in the morning, he found a great concourse of people boisterously engaged in this game, and not fewer than twenty fowls had already been killed.

BATTAIL, v.

BATTAIL, n. Fr. *bataille*; It. *battaglia*; Sp. *battalla*. From the A. S. *beatan*; to beat, strike, fight. See **BATTLE**.
BATTALION, n.
BATTALLIA.

For þo leo come to *battell*, heo turnede a geyn hym echen :
Heo mæte wile were here frend, so wylc we here son.
R. Gloucester, p. 79.

He sauh þat tresson geðe, donn went his powere.
He sauh Sir Edward ride, *battellid* him agyea,
Gloucester þe toþer side, þan wist þe eric ceterþa,
His aide said donn felle. *R. Brunne, p. 221.*

Sir Edward also none þe gile gan he knowe,
Dight him to *battell* houe, his trumpes did he blowe.
Id. p. 294.

Last year about it was assailed,
Fol well about it was *battellid*.
And round emiron *erle* were set
Fol many a rich and fat touret.
Chaucer. Remount of the Rose, fol. 201.

And *erle* of the senate, hana wilred to gone distroyen me, whom
they haue seen alway *battellid* and deciden good men.
Id. Boccass, book i. fol. 213.

One taltþ his father was Pallant,
Whiche in his time was a geant,
A cruell man, a *battellous*.
Geoff. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 50.

The noble Cesar Julius
Whiche was kynge of Rome londe
With great *battellid*, and stronge hounds
All Greece, Persie, and Chaldie
Wan, and put vnder.
Id. Præloger, book i. fol. 5.

Soone after this, I saw an elephant,
Adorn'd with bells and bosses gorgeously,
That on his backe did beare (as *battellous*)
A gilden towre, which shone exceedingly.
Spenser. Vision of the World's End.

Which when the wakefull eyes perceived, straight way
He started up, and did himselfe prepare,
In sun-bright armour, and *battellous* array;
For with that Pagan proud he combat will that day.
Id. Faerie Queene, book i. c. v.

He through the armed files
Farts his experience't eye, and soon perceives
The whole *battellous* vye, this order due,
Their ringes and stature as of gods,
Their number lost he senses.
Milton. Paradise Lost, book i.

We find by a sad experience that few questions are well stated; **BATTAIL**
and when they are, they are not concerted to; and when they are
agreed on by both sides that they are well stated, it is nothing else
but a drawing up the armies in *battail* with great skill and disci-
pline; the next thing they do is, they thrust their swords into one
another's sides. *Taylor. Sermon vi. p. 161.*

See, with what outrage from the frosty north,
The early valiant Swede draws forth his wings
Is *battailous* array, while Volga's stream
Sends opposite, in shaggy armour clad,
Her borderers. *J. Philips. Bismarck.*

There were letters of the 17th from Ghent, which give an ac-
count, that the enemy had form'd a design to surprise two *battail-
ons* of the allies which lay at Alost; but those battalions received
advise of their march, and retired to Dendermonde.

Tattler, No. 1.

Two rival armies all the plain o'erspread,
Each in *battailous* rang'd, and shining array'd;
With eager eyes beholding both from far
Namus, the prize and mistress of the war.

Congress. To the King, on the taking of Namur.
Near and more near descends the dreadful shade,
And now in *battailous* array display'd;
On sounding wings, and screaming in their ire,
The cranes rush onward, and the light troops retire.

Bentley. Pygmalion-Gerona-Machin.
Ten thousand hoar in thunder sweep the field,
Down to the sea-beat margin, on a plain
Of vast expansion, in *battailous* wait
The eastern bands. *Geoffrey. Leisner, book iv.*

BATTALION, in the English army, is applied to an
indeterminable body of infantry; but generally varying
from 600 to 1000 men. Regiments, according to
their number, are divided into one or more *Battalions*,
which are afterwards subdivided into companies.

BATTEL, v. See to **BATT**. *Battel*, (a term
at Eaton for the small portion of
food, which in addition to the col-
lege allowance, the college boys re-
ceive from their dormitory,) is *battel-
ous*. *Bat-ful* (a favourite term) is *battel-
ous*. Drayton.) is a similar compound
of the two participles *batt* and *full*. Tookes. i. 123.

Upon this noun *battel*, the verb appears to have been
formed; and to be applied consequently;
To fatten, to fertilize; to render fruitful or produc-
tive; because abounding in baits, bites, or hits.

This is the grumpy of mustard seed which was it no fine
and so little that the valiantest sort of English men could scarce
possibly feel or taste it, ye of your exceding charitie & sele towards your
country folkes, did in such wise helpe to sowe in the field of
Englander, and did so charitably with the fable *battellous* youth of
the paraphrase, that where before it was in the lyne of the relet-
tered, the least of al seeds, it is now shot up and growe muche
larger in broodth, the any other herbe of ye field. *Udall. Luke. Pref.*

The best advantage was of bad, in let her
Sleepe out her fill, without encumberment;
For, sleepe (they said) would make her *battel* better.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book vi. C. 8.

For in the church of God, sometimes it cometh to passe, as in
our *battle* grounds, the fertile disposition whereof is good; yet
because it exceeds the proportion it belongeth forth abundantly,
through too much richness, things lesse profitable.

Hooker. Eccles. Pref. B. v. § 3.
For well known it is, that they be loving to their children and
humbands; and this their natural affection, is like unto a fertile
field or *battell* soil, capable of many, not sufficient for persuasion,
nor multitude of the graces.
Calander. Plutarck, fol. 943.

He saith moreover, that the sowing of some grain is as good
as dunging to the ground: for these be his very words. The fruit
itself of the earth is a *battell* to the earth, and namely, lupines,
beans, and vetches, for they sucke the lands.
Id. Plin. l. 508.

BATTER. — **BATTER.** Masaniusa made many inward parts of Barboric and Namadila in Africk (before his time incult and horrid) fruitful and *entirely* by this means.
Bacon. Abst. of Med. p. 57.

Thomas Sorencold, or Sorencold was born in Lancashire, became a *batter* or student of Brasen-nose Coll. an. 1578, aged 17 years or thereabouts.
Wood. Athenae Oxon. l. 277.

The *battell* pastures feed'd, and most with quick-set mound,
The *manly* sorts of soil, diversity of ground.
Drayton. Polythion, Song lii.

Whereas the lowly rale, as earthily, like it self,
Doth never further look than how to purchase self.
And of their *battell* sies, the vales that boast them thus.
Ne'er had been what they are, had it not been for us.
Id. B. Song vii.

Measure the *battell* March, until they be imbrac'd
In Sabina's sovereign arms.
Id. B.

Witness the fair pasture aigh Haddon (belonging to the Earl of Rutland) so incredibly *battell* of cattle that nee proffered to surround it with shillings to purchase it; which because to be set side-ways (not edge-ways) were refused.
Fuller. Worthies, Derbyshire.

BATTEN. This word seems to have succeeded, and to have supplanted, the verb to *battell*: and to be from the same A.S. verb *batan*, to bite, to feed, and consequently to fatten.

CORIO. Follow your function, go, and *batten* on colds his.
Shakespeare. Coriolanus, fol. 22.

ITHA. Why, master, will you poison her with a mess of rice Porridge? I that will preserve life, and make her round and plump.
And *batten* more than you are aware.
Marlowe. The Jew of Malta, act iii.

SKEET. A man may *batten* there in a week only, with hot leaves and butter, and a hotty cop of muscadine and sugar at breakfast, though he make never a meal all the month after.
Ford. Perkin Warbeck, act iv. sc. ii.

Some wallowing in the grass, there lie awhile to *batten*;
Some nest away to kill; some thither brought to fatten.
Drayton. Polythion, Song xliii.

The meadows here, with *battening* oxen curle'd,
Give spirit to the grass; three culls high
The jointed herbage shoots; the 'mellow'd globe
Yearly o'ercomes the graucous with store
Of golden wheat, the strength of human life.
J. Phillips. Cider, book i.

While paddling ducks the standing lake desire,
Or *battening* hops roll in the sinking mire.
Gay. The Shop. Week.

While ardent Sirius shoots a thirsty ray,
And autumn yet without's recreating day,
They range at large, and gambol through the stream,
Frisk on the beach, or *batten* in the beam.
Brooks. Universal Beauty, book vi.

Go there: the moon of woe demands thine aid;
Fride's licenc'd outrage claims thy slumbering rest;
Pale genius roams the bleak neglected shade,
And *battening* swarthy mocks the tawny lye
Bentley. The Judgement of Paris.

BATTEN is also a term used by carpenters to express a scantling or piece of wooden stuff, from two to four inches broad, and one inch thick. Thus Battens are fixed to walls, in order that the laths, upon which plaster is afterwards fixed, may be nailed to them. A wall or piece of timber is said, in technical language, to *batten* when it leans out of the perpendicular from a person, in contradistinction to *overhanging* when it leans to a person.

BATTER, v. } Fr. *battre*; It. *battere*; Ger. *batten*.
BATTER, n. } From the A.S. *bætan*, to beat.
BATTER, v. } To beat or knock against, to
BATTERY. } strike; to bruise; to wear out with hard usage.

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Than smother the sinne of countenance or strife and chere, and *batter*eth and forgeth by villana revengings.

Chaucer. The Persones Tale.

The Frenchmen learming wit by this great perill, left their *sculage*, and desired dayly, howe to *batter* and breake the wallies & fortifications.
Hall. King Henry VI. fol. 155.

Well on (as yet) our *battered* barke old passe,
And brought the rest within a myle of lande,
Then thought I sure now aclede not I to passe,
For I can swimme and so escape this sande.
Gauequin. Hoorbe.

When Jupiter from hye doth threat
With mortall mace and dint of thunder
The liest billies bene *battered* off,
When they stand still that stoden vnder.
Horace. Uncertain Authors.

He called the inhabitants and meane of werte together declar-
ing their great necesseitie, and sayd the *battery* of the wallies dis-
courage vs not, but the greute necesseitie of vittalles.
Hall. King Henry VIII. fol. 89.

When Cupide seeld first the foot
Wherein my hart lay wounded sore,
The latory was of such a sort
That I must yelde or die therfore.
Horace. Uncertain Authors.

For now were the walls beaten with the rams, and many parts thereof shaken and *battered*; and at one place above the rest, by continual *batterie* there was such a breach, as the towne lay open and naked to the enemy.
Holland's Lieut. fol. 287.

Moreover, take but three sextaries or quartis of it being steeped, and it will yeld a measure called modius of thicke greeuell or better called in Latin yule.
Id. Plinie, v. l. p. 358.

"Bring me," saith he, "the harness that I wore
At Treabury, which from that day no more
Hath felt the *battier* of a chull strife,
Nor stood between destruction and my life."
Sir J. Beaumont. Beauvoir Field.

Nor are these masters such *batterers*, or demolishers, of stately and elegant buildings.
Taylor. Art's Handicraft, p. 165.

While the land deputy lay before the fort, there arriv'd in the bay of Smerwick, vice-admiral Bingham, and soon after Sir William Winter, admiral of the fleet, with fresh supplies: hereupon the land deputy resolved to besiege the fort by land, while the admiral should *batter* it by sea.

Old's Life of Sir Walter Raleigh, fol. xv.

These revolutions are as insufficient to fortify them against the new incursion of tempting objects, as a wall of glass to resist the *battery* of cannon; for there is no permanent overruling principle in the heart, that makes the resolution steadfast against sin.
Bacon. Sermon. The Sure Tread of Uprightness.

The levee *surrounds*, as if, in golden pond,
Were character'd on ev'ry statesman's door,
BATTER'D AND SINKING FORTUNES MEN'D HERE.
Gower. The Task, book iii.

Whoever knew an honest bray,
At law his neighbor prosecute,
Bring action for assault and *battery*,
Or friends beguile with lies and *battery*.
Goldsmith. The Logicians Refuted.

The different military Batteries will be found described under the article FORTIFICATION.

BATTERSEA, a village in Surrey, which gives the title of Baron to the St. John family. Population in 1821, 4992. The church is a Vicarage. It is here buried the remains of Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke, (who was also born here,) and his second wife, who was a niece of Madame de Maintenon. On the site of Bolingbroke House, which was pulled down about the year 1775, has been erected a horizontal windmill of very large dimensions. The height of the main shaft is 140 feet, and the diameter at the bottom 52. This mill is similar to one at Margate,
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BATTER. invented by Captain Hooper. In 1771, a wooden bridge was built over the Thames at Battersea, under the direction of Mr. Holland, at an expense of £888,500.

BATTLE.

BATTLE, v.
BATTLE, n.
BATTLEMENT.
BATTLEMENTED.
BATTING.

See **BATTAL**. To fight, also to prepare for fight; to put in a state of defence; to fortify. *Battle* appears to have been applied to a particular division of the army; the mid or main body, as distinguished from Van and Rear.

If houses strongly built,
 And towers battled be,
 By force of blast be overthrown
 When Riots impes doe flie.

Therbellat. Pyndere's Answer.

For he that fighteth in a battell shall not be crowned but he fighte lawfulli. *Wiclif. Tyms. cap. ii.*

But yet that his worke should big indure all tempestes and stormes, he adoth a *battlement* and westwarden to asyde and shote of the rynde, for ferre it should soke in and make his budyng decay. *First's Worke, fol. 60.*

And he is bred out of that bloodie straine,
 That haunted vs in our familiar pathen:
 Witness our too much memorable shame,
 When Cressy battell fatall was strucke,
 And all our places captiv'd, by the head
 Of that black name; Edward, black prince of Wales.
Shakespeare. Henry F. fol. 76.

Yet leader needs'd
 Each warrior single as in chief, expert
 When to advance, or stand, or turn the way
 Of battell: open when, and when to close
 The ridges of grim war.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book vi.

— In Ausonian land
 Men call'd him Melchior; and how he fell
 From heat's, they tell'd, thrown by angry Jove
 Sheer o're the chrysal battlements.

Id. A. book I.

Neither had it been so dishonourable unto him, when he came to joyne with Darius hand to hand, if he had been maner'd among a number of great horses, with the swordes, glaives, and battel-axes of the Persians fighting for the empire.

Holland's Platerch, 1046.

And so for Colotes, he resembled for all the world young children who newly begin to learn their A. B. C. for being used to pronounce and name the letters which they see engraven on their *battlers*, when they find them written elsewhere, they stick at them, and are much troubled.

Id. 916.

Does he delight to hear bold swarthe tell
 How Michael batt'd, and the dragon fell;
 Or mix'd with milder charivins, to glow
 In hymns of love, not ill requit'd below.

Titchell. To the Earl of Warwick.

These with discerning hand thou know'st to range,
 (Vnting as thou wast), and in the well-fram'd models.
 Thou show'st where towers or battlements should rise,
 Where gates should open, or where walls should compass.

Prior. Second Hymn of Callimachus.

He is, answered he, a character you have not yet perhaps observed. You have heard of *battle-painters*, have mentioned *battle-poets*; but this is a *battle-critic*.

Tatler, No. 65.

Then, wide as air, the livid fuge spread,
 And high her head above the stormy clouds,
 She blas'd in oceans, swell'd the groaning winds
 With wild surmises, bawlings, sounds of war.

Thomson. Liberty, part iv.

Such virtus Cella, Cocles, Marston rood'd:
 Such were the Fabii, Decii, so impud'd.
 The Scipion battled, and the Gracchi spoke;
 So Rome the Roman state.

Dryden. The Rains of Rome.

What constitutes a state?

Not high rain'd battlements or labor'd mound,

Thick wall or moated gate;

Not cities built with spires and battlements crown'd.

Sir William Jones. An Ode in imitation of Alcaeus.

BATTLE.

BATTLE.

FIELD.

BATTLE, TRIAL BY. One of those usages of her elder law, which have long been nearly obsolete on account of their impety and absurdity, though they derived their origin from the pious belief, and were maintained by the grave approbation of our forefathers. *Trial by Battle*, or the solemn decision of certain cases, by the personal combat of the parties or their champions, instead of the ordinary modes of trial, was introduced into this country at the era of the Conquest; having formed a part of the Norman code of judicature. It is said to be derived from the Burgundi, a German clan, by whom part of the north of Gaul was colonized. And, as has been observed by some learned writers on Swedish law, a passage in Velleius Paterculus, (wherein the attempt of Varus to introduce the Roman forms of trial amongst the Germans, is said to have been considered as an innovation, "ad solita ARMIS DECERNI jure terminarentur.") seems to shew, what, indeed, is in itself most probable, that this mode of legal appeal to Providence was common to the whole German people.

It was permitted by the laws of our country in three cases: first, in courts martial, or courts of chivalry; secondly, in appeals of felony; thirdly, in writs of right, which are the highest and last decision on questions of real property. As the manner in which these combats were conducted, is fully detailed by Blackstone in the twenty-second chapter of his third book, we do not think it necessary to give here any account of the solemnities attending them. The legal student will find much learning on this subject, in the report of the case of *Ashford v. Thornton*, (1 Band A 405.) The defendant in that case having been acquitted of the murder of a young woman, of whom the plaintiff was brother and heir, the latter, by the right given by the old law to certain near relations, brought his "appeal of death," and the defendant, or *appellee*, waged his *battle*, i. e. claimed the right of this mode of trial. After legal argument on the several points arising out of the case and pleadings, the matter was dropped: but the legislature, dreading the recurrence of a case which might induce the necessity of a *trial* so abhorrent to the spirit of the age, passed an act wholly annulling the *Trial by Battle*, as well as the appeal of felony and death in all cases. Stat. 59. Geo. III. c. 46.

BATTLE, a market town in the county of Sussex, anciently called *Epitoe*. It received its later name from the memorable conflict between Harold, King of England, and William, Duke of Normandy. William before the engagement, vowed to build an abbey on the field if he was victorious, that thanks might be daily offered for his success, and continual prayers for the souls of the slain. This abbey was built in the year following his victory, and was dedicated to St. Martin, and filled with Benedictine Monks. Great privileges were annexed to the mitred Abbot of the establishment; and its remains still attest its former magnificence. Its circuit is little less than a mile. The population of *Battle*, which is a Rectory, in 1821, was 2852.

BATTLEFIELD, a village in Shropshire, about five miles E. of Shrewsbury, distinguished as the scene of

BATTLE-
FIELD.
—
BAVA-
RIA.

the memorable battle in which Henry IV. overthrew Hottspur's rebellion, in 1402, in memory whereof he founded a collegiate church, part of which still is used for divine service. A mound adjoining the churchyard, marks the burial place of the slain; and a plot of ground called King's Croft distinguishes the place in which Henry's tent was pitched.

BATTOLOGYZE. Πρωτοτυπος δι μι βαρτολο-
Batto Logoz, } γησας. But when ye pray, use
Batto Logoz, } not vain repetitions, Mat. vi. 7.
The Greek, says (Dr. Hammond) is literally, to do as
Battus did. He adds from Suidas; *battologie* is multi-
plication of words. The word itself is taken from one
Battus who made long hymns consisting of many
lines, full of tautologies. Hesychius explains it, empty,
idle, unsensational discourse.

After the eastern mode, they wagged their bodies, bowing their
heads, and *battologizing* the name Although Whodda and
Mahomet very often. Sir T. Herbert's Travels, p. 191.

Should a truly dull *battologizer*, that is of Ausonius's character,
even pause, quam diu loquatur Attici? that an hour by the glass
expresseth nothing; should such a one, I say, and a deserving
eminent preacher change sermons; people would not only come
thicker, but return satisfied.

Whitlock's Manners of the English, p. 399.

I cannot see how he will escape that heathenish *battologie* of
multiplying words, which Christ himself that has the putting up
of our prayers, told us would not be acceptable in heaven.
Milton. Annot. upon the Ninemonths, &c.

BATTON, BATTUNE, or BATTON, (Fr. *baton*.) in
Heraldry, a staff truncheon, used as an abatement in
coats of arms to denote illegitimacy.

BATURIN, a town of European Russia, in the
government of Czernigov. Its castle was formerly the
residence of the *Hetmans*, Commander-in-Chief of the
Cossacks. When the Hetman Mazeppa went over to
Charles XII. of Sweden, in 1706, Baturin was taken
and burnt by the Russians, and all the inhabitants
put to the sword. The Empress Elizabeth afterwards
made a grant of it, with part of the surrounding ter-
ritory, to the Hetman Rasumowski, by whom it was
rebuilt. It stands about 80 miles nearly south-east of
Czernigov, the capital of the province.

BATZ, BATZEN, BAT, or BATZ, a small copper coin,
mixed with a slight portion of silver, current in parts
of Germany, and in Switzerland, and varying in value
according to its alloy.

BATTO-
LOGIZE.
—
BAVA-
RIA.

BAVARIA.

BAVARIA, *Cracca* or, was one of the Circles
of the German Empire, previous to its dissolution,
in 1806; and now forms the principal part of the
modern Kingdom of Bavaria. It occupies the south-
east portion of Germany, and is bounded by Fran-
conia and Bohemia on the north, by Austria on the
east, by the Tyrol on the south, and by Sushia on the
west. Its whole extent was estimated at 16,500 square
miles, and the population at 1,300,000, which is 79
persons to each square mile. This Circle comprised
numerous states, which were divided into two distinct
classes, called the ecclesiastical and secular benches,
from their rulers forming two separate councils. The
first of these benches consisted of the Archbishop of
Salzburg, the Bishops of Ratibon, Passau, and Frey-
singen, the princely Provostship of Berchtola-
gaden, with the Abbays of St. Emeran, Nieder, Ober-
Munster, in the city of Ratibon. The secular bench
was composed of the Elector of Bavaria, the Dukes
of Neuburg, and Salzburg, the Landgrave of Leuch-
tenberg, the Prince of Steinstein, the Counts of Haag
and Ortenburgh, with the Lords of Ehrenfels, Saltz-
burg, Pyrbam, Hohen-Waldeck, and Breitenneck,
and a representative from the Imperial town of Ratibon.
The Elector and the Archbishop possessed the
power of convoking these states, over which they
alternately presided; and their meetings were held
either at Ratibon or Wasserburg. This Circle, how-
ever, only sent one member to the Imperial chamber
of the empire. The greater part of it belonged to
the Elector, who was at that time one of the most
powerful Princes in Germany. Before the French
Revolution, his dominions in this Circle comprised
the countries which sent members to the secular

bench, as enumerated above. In addition to these
territories, he was Sovereign of most of the country
of Erbach, in Franconia; of the Lordships of Wiesen-
steig, Meindilheim, and Schwabach; in Sushia; of
the Palatinate of the Lower Rhine, in the Circle of
that name; and of the principalities of Simmern,
Lautern, and Veldenz, with two-thirds of the country
of Spenheim, and half the Baillage of Homburg,
in the Circle of the Upper Rhine. In the Circle of West-
phalia, the Duchies of Juliers and Berg were also
under the jurisdiction of Bavaria.

BAVARIA, *Duceny* or. This formed one material
part of what was formerly the Circle, and is now the
Kingdom of the same name. It bordered upon Aus-
tria, Passau, and Salzburg on the east; upon Tyrol
on the south; Sushia on the west; Neuburg and
the Upper Palatinate on the north. It comprised Upper
and Lower Bavaria; and included a space of about
12,000 square miles, and a population of between eight
and nine hundred thousand inhabitants. The number
of towns is about ninety, but none of them are large
except Munich, the capital. Bavaria has experienced
a variety of changes, a brief sketch of which will form
the best preparation for illustrating its present state.

It originally formed a part of the *Rhetia Fimelicina*
and *Noricum* of the ancients, and received its Latin
name of *Boaria* or *Bojaria*, from the *Boii*, a people
of Celtic Gaul, who are understood to have settled in
these regions at an early period. They were governed
by native Princes till Charlemagne seized the country,
and committed the government of it to some of his
Counts. On the partition of his empire among his
grandsons, Bavaria, with the rest of Germany, was
assigned to Louis the German. It bore the title of

Boundaries
and extent.

Origin of
the name,
and pro-
gressive
geography.

BAVARIA. Margraviate, till Arnold, the reigning Prince, was raised to the title of Duke, in 920. The title was continued to his successors, till Maximilian I. was invested with the Electoral dignity, in 1623, by Ferdinand II. as a reward for the services which he had rendered him against the Bohemian insurgents, with whom he was engaged in a war about that time. One of the most important events in the earlier part of its recent history, however, was the disputed succession, which followed the extinction of the reigning branch, by the death of the Elector, in December, 1777. From its contiguity to her dominions, and the door it opened for the exercise of French influence, Austria had long cast an eager eye on Bavaria, and this appeared a favourable opportunity for realizing her wishes in its annexation. Little opposition was to be apprehended from France, as Louis XVI. was young, and married to a sister of the Emperor Joseph. The great age of Frederick II. too, might induce a hope that his conduct on this occasion would not be characterised by that energy and decision, which he had so often displayed when former events seemed to demand their exercise. But though he was now approaching his seventieth year, he was equally prompt and energetic in supporting the independence of Bavaria; and by the measures he took, the cabinet of Vienna was induced to renounce the greater part of its ambitious intentions. This, with the recollection of the seven years war, the opposition which was expected from several of the minor states, and other circumstances, produced an adjustment without bloodshed. From the settlement of these claims, the Electorate of Bavaria enjoyed the blessings of peace, till the progress of the French Revolution had once more involved Germany in the flames of discord and war. The Elector continued on the side of the Imperialists, till the French marched a powerful army to his capital, in 1796, and concluded a treaty for the cessation of hostilities; and the treaty of Campo Formio, which was signed during the following year, showed the influence which the French were gaining in Germany. This was still further developed by the treaty of Lunéville, concluded in October, 1801. By the first of these, all that part of the German dominions on the left bank of the Rhine was annexed to France; and the Elector of Bavaria consequently lost the Palatinate of the Rhine, the Duchies of Juliers and Deux Ponts, with all his possessions in the Netherlands, and Alsace. Subsequently to the latter treaty, he received, as indemnities, the Bishopsrics of Freysingen, Bamberg, Augsburg, and Kempten, with ten abbeys, fifteen imperial towns, and two imperial villages, besides the western part of the Bishopric and the town of Passau. In the conflicts which then took place between France and the continental powers, the Elector of Bavaria remained neutral till 1805, when he entered into an alliance with Buonaparte, and was soon afterwards raised from the dignity of Elector to that of King, and had his dominions aggrandized by the annexation of several provinces.

Origin and progress of geography.

BAVARIA, known as it is, is now one of the most considerable of the secondary states of Germany, comprising the former Duchy and Circle of that name, with various recent acquisitions. It took its rise in 1806; and after the disasters of that campaign had induced Austria to purchase peace by the sacrifice of a part of her dominions, the services of Bavaria were rewarded by a participation in these cessions. The extent of the

Kingdom was then increased by the addition of the eastern part of Passau, Tyrol, and Eichstadt. The Brigau, Konigssee, Rothenfels, and some other districts, were at the same time annexed to the previous territories. When the ancient German Constitution was dissolved, and the Confederation of the Rhine formed, Bavaria resigned the Duchy of Berg, in exchange for the Margraviate of Anspach, and the Imperial towns and territories of Augsburg and Nuremberg. This State again took part with France against Austria, in the war of 1809, and again shared in the spoils of that conflict. Before this event, its area was computed at 36,770 square English miles; and the population had been raised to more than three millions, while the contingent troops it furnished in time of war was fixed at 30,000. By the treaty concluded in October 1809, the additional territory acquired was about 5,550 square miles, with a population of 1,492,000 individuals. The whole extent was then raised to 42,320 square miles, and the population to more than 4,500,000.

When the love of coquest, and the intoxication of success, had produced the memorable march of the French armies to Moscow, the Bavarian troops were among those which were destined never to return. Bavaria now began, apparently, to apprehend the consequences to which this insatiable ambition would lead, and was desirous of securing the acquisitions she had obtained. With this view, the King entered into an alliance with the Emperor of Austria, and joined the common cause, which had then begun to manifest itself in most parts of Germany. When this cause triumphed, and Germany was once more released from the dominion of France, the services which Bavaria had rendered in breaking this thralldom, were not overlooked in the negotiations which took place at the Congress of Vienna. The newly-acquired title of King was confirmed, a part of the contribution paid by France was assigned him, and the support of a body of Bavarian troops in France, at the expense of that country, was agreed to. Some changes of territory also took place: the Tyrol was resigned to Austria; and the Grand Duchy of Wurtzburg, the principality of Aschaffenburg, with the greater part of the *ci-devant* French department of Mont Tonnerre, were obtained in their stead. Some other exchanges of territory were also made; after which, the extent and population were estimated at 40,000 square miles, and 4,500,000 individuals, which is about 112 persons to each square mile.

Extent and population.

In 1810, Bavaria was divided into the following Division. Circles, to which their chief towns are annexed; viz.

Circles.	Chief Towns.
The Main	Bamberg.
The Rezat	Anspach.
The Upper Danube	Eichstadt.
The Lower Danube	Passau.
The Regen	Rothenfels.
The Iller	Kempten.
The Isar	Munich.

These names are derived from the principal rivers of the several districts; and a slight alteration has since taken place in the extent of some of these Circles, in consequence of the exchanges of territory which have been effected between that Kingdom and Austria. The

BAVARIA. recent acquisitions, and their chief towns, may also be subjoined. These are,

The Principality of Aschaffenburg.... Aschaffenburg.
The Grand Duchy of Wurtzburg Wurtzburg.
The Circle of the Rhine..... Landau.

Distribution of the inhabitants.

The inhabitants of Bavaria are very unequally distributed over its surface. Along both sides of the Danube, and some of the other large rivers, the population is much denser than either towards the northern or southern borders. The lower districts in the Grand Duchy of Wurtzburg, some parts of the Margraviate of Anspach, and the late acquisitions on the left bank of the Rhine, are much better peopled than most other parts. The number of persons to a square mile in this last province has been stated at 143; while in some other districts they are not a third of that number. Much of the southern portion consists of rugged mountains, and other tracts, which are scarcely fit for habitation, except in the valleys by which the Alpine tracts are separated.

Outlines, and general surface.

Bavaria being encompassed by other countries, and its strongest lines of demarcation being a range of mountains or a river, its outlines do not present any thing remarkable. Much of its surface is greatly diversified. It rises gradually towards the south, till it loses itself in the rugged and inaccessible piles of the Tyrol Alps, where nature appears in terrific majesty, and the works of man are scarcely perceptible. But even here interesting scenes are found, where the fertility of the soil, and the genial nature of the climate, repay the slightest cultivation with abundant harvests. Numerous lakes, and extensive wastes, however, occupy the greater part of the surface in these regions, and very little has yet been rendered subservient to the support of man. Much of the Upper Palatinate of Bavaria also swells into mountains, and is covered with forests, while the central and northern tracts of the Kingdom contain many extensive and fertile plains. Part of the Margraviate of Anspach is mountainous and sandy, while other districts are fertile and productive, yielding various kinds of grain, and affording excellent pasturage. The lower parts of Bavaria Proper, and of the Duchy of Wurtzburg, are likewise fertile, though surpassed in this respect by the tracts which lie east and north-east of Munich, and are watered by the Isar and the Inn. The range of mountains bordering on Tyrol is considered as the most extensive and elevated in the Kingdom, though inferior both in height and grandeur to the Swiss Alps. The principal of these northern ramifications of the Alps is called *Kalkstein* by the neighbouring inhabitants, and many of the lower summits are clothed in stately forests.

Rivers and lakes.

A great part of Bavaria belongs to the basin of the Danube; and many rivers flow both north and south into this general receptacle, which pervades the Kingdom from west to east, making a considerable sweep towards the north before it enters Austria. The face of the country, therefore, inclines both ways towards its banks, except a part of the western regions, which is included in the basin of the Rhine. The principal rivers that fall into the Danube from the south of Bavaria are the Inn, the Isar, the Lech, and the Iller; from the north it receives the Nub, and the Altmühl. The Inn originated in the elevated regions of Switzerland, and descending the northern flanks of the Alps, like its sister streams, it soon becomes a rapid river,

and rolls a great body of water towards the north-east, through the Kingdom of Bavaria, till it forms the boundary between it and the Austrian Empire; and falls into the Danube at Passau, where it is almost equal to that river in size. The whole length of the Inn is about 250 miles; and the two chief towns on its banks are Innsbruck and Braunau. The Isar and the Lech both rise in the mountains of Tyrol, and flow through the southern regions of Bavaria. The former passes the cities of Munich; Norburg, and Landshut, before it joins the Danube; the latter waters Augsburg, whence it flows nearly north to the same general receptacle. They are both large rivers, but inferior to the Inn. The Iller runs nearly parallel to the Lech, and joins the Danube above the city of Ulm. The Nub and the Altmühl both fall into the Danube a few miles from each other, west of Ratibon. The former rises near the western extremity of Bohemia, and the latter in the same range of mountains, as it runs through the Margraviate of Anspach. The Alpine regions in the southern part of Bavaria are diversified by several lakes, though scarcely any of them are of sufficient importance to be described in a work of this general nature. The largest is the Ammer, situated at the foot of the Alps, about half way between the Isar and the Lech, and a branch of the latter river flows through it.

The situation of Bavaria, and the inequality of its surface, unite in producing a great diversity of climate and temperature; for while the vine flourishes in one part, the fir attains maturity in another. Though Bavaria is thus capable of yielding all the products of the vegetable kingdom which constitute the necessities, and many of the luxuries of life, yet from the indolence of the inhabitants, and the unimproved state of its agriculture, few places yield their just proportion; while thousands of acres of good land lie completely waste. In most of the vales watered by the principal rivers, the soil is rich, and capable of abundantly rewarding the labours of husbandry; but in many of the upland tracts it is stony and barren; and in some districts its marshy nature seems to bid defiance to all the arts of cultivation. Most of the plains produce grain, fruit, wine, and hops; while the upland tracts are either employed as pasturage, devoted to the inferior products of agriculture, overspread with rocks, or covered with forests. Flax is extensively cultivated in some parts; the vine flourishes on the banks of the Danube and the Isar, and much excellent fruit is grown in the vicinity of Landshut. The Margraviate of Anspach is noted for its superior breed of horses, which have been much improved during late years, by crossing them with the English. The same attention has likewise been paid to the cattle, by an intermixture of the Swiss breed; and great numbers of oxen are annually fed in this province, and sent to Alsace. Little attention, however, has been paid to the other branches of domestic economy, except the introduction of a few Merinos into Bavaria Proper and the adjacent districts, by which the coarse wool of the native flocks has been much improved. The mountains, forests, and uncultivated tracts, abound with most of the wild animals common to other parts of Germany; among which are the bear, wolf, lynx, the wild boar, and several others. Most of the rivers are well stocked with fish, and the beaver is found in some of them.

BAVARIA.

Climate, soil, and vegetable productions.

Animals.

BAVARIA. Several mineral products are found in the mountains of Bavaria; these comprise iron, copper, coal, marble, gypsum, vitriol, and some kinds of argillaceous earth; the most noted of which is the species of clay of which the Passau crucibles are made. Iron is the most abundant and valuable of these metals; and the quantity of copper annually obtained has been stated at 3000 quintals. Salt is also one of these products of great value, the celebrated depot of which is at Traustein, near the confines of Salzburg. The springs here are numerous and rich, and employ a great number of people in extracting the salt. Bavaria is not destitute of mineral waters; but they are inferior in note to the springs in many other parts of Germany.

As Bavaria is wholly an inland country, it, of course, possesses neither islands nor colonies; nor has it ever been noted for remains of antiquity. A few Roman stations, roads, and coins, with the relics of churches and castles, constitute the principal of those which have been noticed. In natural curiosities it is more abundant. Many of the mountainous districts present scenes which might doubtless be classed under this head, if they were examined with that care which they deserve. Some of the most noted caverns in Germany are included within its limits; one of peculiar interest is described by Mr. Parkinson, in his curious and valuable work, *The Organic Remains of a former World*. This consists of a series of connected grottoes at Gaylenreuth, near the borders of Bayreuth.

These are almost every where incrustated with sparry matter, and ornamented with stalactites; but the most remarkable circumstance attending them is the vast quantities of animal earth and bones they contain. Several of these caverns are spacious, and beautifully incrustated with stalactitic matter, in which, as well as in the beds of earth that form their bottoms, the bones and teeth of animals are found in great abundance. The descent to many of these grottoes is so appalling, that they occasioned Mr. Esper and his companions, by whom they were explored, some uneasiness, lest they should be obliged to remain to augment the zoologies contained in these terrific mansions. Respecting one of the farthest of them, it has been observed, "Here this prodigious quantity of animal earth, the vast number of teeth, jaws, and other bones, and the heavy grouping of the stalactites, produced so dismal an appearance, as to lead Mr. Esper to speak of it as a perfect model for a temple for a god of the dead. Here hundreds of cart loads of bony remains might be removed, pockets might be filled with fossil teeth, and animal earth was found to reach to the utmost depth to which they dug. A piece of stalactite below here broken down, was found to contain pieces of bones within it, the remains of which were left embedded in the rock." These caverns are situated in a vast bed of limestone; and though many of them were explored by Mr. Esper and his adventurous party, many more doubtless exist, into which human foot has not yet penetrated. By what means, too, such immense quantities of animal remains were collected in these subterranean abodes, appears to be wholly inexplicable.

In its practical government, Bavaria approaches an unlimited monarchy, though it still maintains somewhat of a representative form. The electoral functions of the representative body, however, are seldom exercised. Their place of meeting is Munich.

The crown is hereditary, and females are not excluded from the regal power. The Sovereign's minority terminates with his eighteenth year; and his council embraces the members of the Royal family above a certain age, the ministers of state, and the great officers of the household. A royal Commissioner also presides over each of the Circles into which the Kingdom is divided; and Commissaries of police reside in the principal towns. A Court of Appeal is established in each Circle, and a Supreme Court at Munich. By the new Constitution of Germany, established by the late Congress, Bavaria is placed at the head of its secondary Kingdoms, and is assigned one vote in the Federative Diet, and four in the General Assembly.

The late period of severe conflict raised most of the European armies beyond any former example; and during the struggle which brought this to its close, the Bavarian troops were estimated at 60,000 effective men. Since the peace, however, they have been reduced to perhaps less than two-thirds of that number. In time of war, the contingent which this State furnishes to the Federative army, is 35,600 men. In peace, the number is reduced to less than half. The annual revenue of Bavaria is about two millions sterling, which, as in all other states, arises from various sources. Some of the principal of these are the excise duties, customs, tolls, royal domains, forests, mines, salt works, lotteries, post office, and stamp duties. There are also other taxes; and all public functionaries pay a fee on their admission into office. The income is, however, clogged with a considerable national debt.

Various circumstances exercise a restrictive influence over the manufactures and commerce of this Kingdom. Upon the first, the indolence of the inhabitants, fostered as it is by the numerous fasts and saints' days imposed by the Romish Church, cannot be devoid of effect. Their manufactures, however, include linen, woollen, and cotton cloths; iron, fire-arms, earthenware, and various other articles; but they are rather designed for the supply of domestic wants than for exportation. But in reference either to the quantity of these articles, their annual value, or the number of people they employ, no satisfactory documents appear to have been published. Besides the articles above specified, some glass, paper, clocks, watches, and hardware, are made in several of the principal towns; and a few philosophical instruments are executed to the capital. Nuremberg is distinguished for its manufacture of toys; and some gold, silver, and jewellery are wrought, particularly at Augsburg and Munich. Lithography was discovered here, and has been prosecuted with great success. The commerce of Bavaria is greatly restricted from want of an access to the sea. The Danube and its tributary streams would contribute greatly to the inland navigation of the country, if they were made available to the extent of which they are capable. The chief trade of this Kingdom is therefore restricted to a supply of its local wants, and the disposal of a few of its natural products. Some of its principal towns, however, are engaged in the transfer of goods between Germany and Italy. In this trade Augsburg takes a conspicuous part; and by means of its merchants and bankers, it is a kind of focus of exchange for all the southern countries of Germany.

Antiquities
and curiosities.

Manufactures
and commerce.

Government
and constitution.

BAVARIA.
BAUBEE.
Religion
and educa-
tion.

The predominant religion of Bavaria is the Roman Catholic; and though the inhabitants are much more tolerant than formerly, the influence of the Pope is greater there than in any other country of central Europe. Before the late revolution in the affairs of Germany, the Bavarian Bishops were independent Princes; but their temporal power was abolished in 1802. There are now two Archbishops, and four Bishops; the former, according to a concordat agreed to by the Pope in 1817, are those of Munich and Bamberg; the Bishops are those of Augsburg, Wurzburg, Ratisbon, and Eichstadt. The Protestants have been estimated at one-fifth or one-sixth of the population, and are by far the most industrious class of the community.

Bigotry and intolerance long hung like a dark cloud over the Bavarian community, and paralyzed all enterprising views; but these are now partially dispersed by the power of more rational principles, and a more liberal system; and Bavaria begins to emerge from her long cherished barbarism. Education has lately been better attended to; youth of both sexes have been more carefully instructed; liberal knowledge has more generally prevailed, and the efforts have become visible in the improved condition of society. Full scope, however, yet remains for the energies both of the government and of individuals in the work of moral, as well as physical renovation, before this Kingdom will be upon a par with most of the other States of Europe, or even with its German neighbours nearer the shores of the Baltic.

German is the language chiefly spoken by the Bavarians; but they have never been conspicuous for the cultivation of their native tongue. Literature and science have made but little progress; and travellers agree in representing them as the most sensual and phlegmatic of the German nations. Their arts are likewise low; but some laudable exertions have been made, and several institutions established, by the present Sovereign, for the diffusion of more general knowledge.

In personal appearance, the Bavarians are a stout and vigorous race of men, well adapted to bear the fatigues of war, and are in general considered as good soldiers. The descriptions of their manners and customs towards the close of the last century were coarse in the extreme, and were strongly marked with the superstitious bigotry of their religious creed; but since the diffusion of more general knowledge, an ameliora-

tion has been the natural consequence. Indolence is one of the most prominent traits in the Bavarian character; and this has doubtless been increased as we have before observed, by their rigorous observation of saints' days and holy-days. Nor is this the only effect which this observance has had upon their character; for though it was thought disgraceful to do any kind of work on these occasions, no such feeling attached to the unrestrained indulgence in sensual pleasures, or any kind of amusement. In consequence of this, the lower classes of the Bavarians have a great resemblance to the Irish peasantry, in their propensity to drink and quarrel, while they form a strong contrast with their Austrian neighbours. However, amidst all the indolence, dirt, and intemperance to which the Bavarian peasant is so habituated, that they seem almost to have become essential to his existence, he is often brave and patriotic, and so faithful to his word, that it is always kept with the most sacred punctuality. Many of the Bavarian females are handsome, lively, and graceful; but their charas are almost wholly personal; for their intellectual culture is seldom sufficient to place their mental attractions in the foreground of the picture. As in most other nations under similar circumstances, they are strongly addicted to sensual gratifications and trifling pursuits; and that general laxity of morals in reference to the fair sex, which pervades the whole of Germany, is here carried to the greatest extreme.

Though the inferior kingdoms of Germany are of too little importance to become principals in any general European war, the experience of the late conflict shews that they are not too insignificant to be courted by their more powerful neighbours as auxiliaries. Bavaria would obviously be an important acquisition in case of a war between any two of its contiguous states. Should the conflict, for instance, again take place between France and Austria, an alliance between Bavaria and either of them, would conduct her troops to the borders of the other, or transfer the war to the intermediate state. It is only by viewing Bavaria in this light, that its real political importance can be ascertained; and perhaps a more illustrative example cannot be selected, than the effect of her declaration in favour of the allies, in 1815, when Buonaparte was endeavouring to maintain himself at Dresden. This will, at least, shew that Bavaria is not to be wholly overlooked, in the general political conflicts and arrangements of Europe.

Manners
and cus-
toms.

BAVAY, a small, but old town of France, with about 1500 inhabitants. It is in the department of the North, and was anciently the capital of the Nervii; and a variety of Roman medals have been found in the neighbourhood. It has manufactures of woollen stuffs, stockings, and iron plate; and was ceded to France by the peace of Nimwegen, in 1678. A bloody engagement took place in its vicinity, between the French and allies, in 1709, in which the latter were victorious. It was also attacked and plundered by a body of Austrians in May, 1792. It stands on the high road from Maunbourg to Valenciennes, about eighty miles north-east of Quenoy, and nearly thirty east of Douay.

BAUBEE. As this coin bore the bust of James VI.

when young, some have imagined that it received its designation, as exhibiting the figure of a *baubee*. But the name, as well as the coin, Dr. Jamieson adds, existed before his reign. Pinkerton, however, with whose derivation Dr. Jamieson declares himself satisfied, ascribes the first use of the word to a copper coin struck in the reign of James VI. He derives it from *ban-billon*, the worst kind of *billion*. On Medals, ii. 109.

And as to her false accusation of spoil, we did remit us to the eminence of Mr. Robert Richeson, master of the coinage-house, who from our hands received silver, gold, and metal, as well coined as un-coined, so that with us there did not remain the value of a haire, or further.

Nov. History of Reformation of Scotland, fol. 161.

BAUCHIERVILLE

BAUMAN-SHOPLE

BAUCHIERVILLE, a port in Lower Canada, on the south shore of the river St. Lawrence, opposite the Island of Montreal. It is beautifully situated; but is most remarkable as forming the retreat of several of the old French nobles and people of ancient families belonging to that nation, where they spend their small incomes in a little society of their own, combining the pleasures of retirement and social intercourse.

BAUSSIÈRE, in *Mineralogy*, a compound mineral found at Boudisero in Piedmont, consisting chiefly of silver and magnesia. It passes into Meerschaum, or sen froth, of which bowls of pipes for smoking are frequently made.

BAUERA in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Polyandra*, order *Digynia*. Generic character: calyx inferior eight-fid; corolla of eight petals; capsule bilocular, many-seeded.

A genus of New South Wales of recent introduction.

BAUGE, or BEAUGE LA VILLE, a town of France, in the department of Maine and Loire, and formerly in the province of Anjou, with a population of about 3000 individuals. When Henry V. of England was prosecuting the campaign of 1421 in France, he sent the Duke of Clarence, with a detachment of 10,000 men, to besiege this town; in which enterprise the Duke was killed, and most of his men made prisoners. Its principal trade now consists in cattle, wood, hats, and serge. It is about twenty miles east by north of Angers, in latitude 47° 33' north, and longitude 0° 2' west.

BAXOX, a druggist manufactured in Burgundy with thick-spun thread and coarse wool.

BAUHINIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Decandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: calyx quinquefid, deciduous; petals spreading, oblong, unguiculate; the superior more distant, all inserted into the calyx; legumen.

English name, Mountain Ebony. Willdenow describes fifteen species, natives of various hot climates; several are figured in the *Hortus Malabaricus*.

BAVIN, *hewn*, the smaller trees, whose sole use is for the fire. Skinner *—* who adds "*Vir Rex deflebit a Belg. hancque. Teut. Baven, adflicto*," to build, because it is made of the fragments of trees cut for buildings.

But tint which better is for you, and more delicteth me,
To smee you from the sodney wast, rain cinderlike to be;
Which lasting better fibres in here, as you your scumple by,
Then doth the beens blase, that flames and flitch by and by.

Pharr. Ans.

'Twixt these the underwoody acres
Look'd just like *hewen* at a baker's,
To heat the oven mouth most ready,
Which seem'd id to gaze for best already.

Clarke Cotton. *A Description upon the Great Frost.*

He resorted to be gathered out of all the villages thereby many firebricks; then took he certain *hewen* or small faggots of brush-wood, dry sticks, and such like trash, and tyed them fast to the horns of the oxen.

Holland's *Lives*, fol. 442.

BAUMAN ISLES, a group of small islands, in the south Pacific Ocean, discovered in 1722, by the person whose name they bear, in his voyage round the world with the Dutch circumnavigator Roggewein. They lie about 12° of south latitude, and 173° of west longitude. The largest of them is little more than twenty miles in circumference, and the inhabitants were found to manifest a gentle disposition, and appeared to be friendly to strangers.

BAUMANSHOPLE, a celebrated cavern near Rube-

land, in the states of Brunswick, in the principality of Blankenburg. Several vaults, filled with stalactites, communicate with each other, but the air is so impure that no one has ever penetrated their innermost recesses.

BAUME LES NONES, a small town in France, situated on the right bank of the Doubs, and included in the department of that name. It contains a population of about 2300 individuals; but is most remarkable for a cavern in its vicinity, in which ice is found at all seasons of the year.

BAUTZEN, one of the principal towns in the kingdom of Saxony, and the capital of Upper Lusatia. It is situated on the bank of the Spree, and including the suburb of Seiden, on the opposite side of the river: it contains a population of 11,000 or 13,000 individuals, many of whom are employed in the manufacture of cloth, linen, leather, stockings, and paper. A strong castle, situated on a rock, overlooks the town, and was formerly the residence of the Governor. The provincial diet, consisting of the nobility and deputies of towns, assemble at Bautzen, which is also the seat of the central post office, and other establishments belonging to the province of Lusatia. One half of the parish church belongs to the Catholics, and the other to the Lutherans, the latter of whom constitute about three-fourths of the inhabitants. Bautzen is also distinguished for a peculiar kind of collegiate establishment, called the Provostship of St. Peter, all the members of which are Catholics, except the head, who is a Lutheran. The funds of this institution are very extensive, and a great deal of landed property belongs to it, both in Saxony and Bohemia. The language of the Wendens, or descendants of the ancient Vandals, is spoken at Bautzen nearly as much as the German. The town-hall, the academy, the orphan-house, the ingenious water machines, are all worthy of attention as well as the public walks. Like many other towns of Germany, Bautzen has several times suffered by fire, particularly in 1709, 1760, and 1767. It has also been rendered memorable in the history of Germany by the bloody conflict between the French and Allies in 1813, in which the former were victorious. It is about thirty miles north of Dresden, in latitude 51° 10' north, and longitude 14° 27' east.

BA'WBLE, } Fr. *babioles*; It. *babbolo*. Skinner
Ba'wbling, } suggests that it may be from *babe*;
It. *babolo*, an infant; q. d. an infant's, a child's play-thing. Spelman (roc *baubella*) from *bene* and *belle*.
Any pretty, shewy, trifle or toy.

And bawbleth that the kysing foole
Set by the fire upon a stole,
As he that with his hole plaid,
But yet he berde all that thi mid,
And therof loke thi so heile.

Gower Conf. Ans. book vii. fol. 165. B.

— A kind of conquest
Came made here, but made not here his bregge
Of came and saw, and over-came: with shame
(The first that ever touch'd him) he was carried
From off our coast, terrie beatus: and his shipping
(Poor ignorant *bawbles*) on our terrible sea
Like eggs-shells moan'd upon their surges, crack'd
As easily 'gainst our rocks.

Shakespeare. *Cymbeline*, fol. 380.

When a man begins truly to fear God, and is in the agonies of mortification, all these new-nothings and curiosities will be rejected by, as *bawbles* do by children when they are dently sick.
Taylor. *Sermon* 12. p. 43.

BAWBLE.

BAWD.

Do. That face of his I do remember well,
Yet when I saw it last, it was besmeared
As black as Vulcan, in the smoke of warre:
A lewdling vessel was the captain of,
For shallow draught and bulke voracious.

Shakespeare. *Twelfth Night*, fol. 272.

For who without a cap and buckle,
Having subdued a beard and riddle,
And might with honour have come off,
Would put it to a second proof.

Baile. *Hudibras*, part. i. c. iii.

At the same time I must needs say, he had the character of a very honest man, notwithstanding he was reckoned a little weak, till he began to sell his estate, and buy those strange baubles that you have taken notice of.

Taylor, No. 221.

Whate'er was light, impudent, and vain,
Whate'er was loose, indolent, and profane,
(So ripe was folly, folly to acquit)
Stood all about'd in that poor bauble, wit.

Churchill. *Goths*, book iii.

BAWD, v.

BAWO, n.

BAWO, adj.

BA'WUL, v.

BA'WANESE, n.

BA'WORY, n.

BA'WONIP, n.

BA'WDY, n.

Bowde, adj. Mr. Tyrwhitt says, is
joyous. Fr. *bawderie*, *bawdrin*, plump-
ing, keeping a bawdy-house. *Baudy*,
adj. dirty.—*Baudry*, Skinner thinks is
either from the Fr. *bawde*, *bawderie*,
bold, boldness, or from the French
broderie from *broder* quasi *border*, a
fringe or edge. In the Goth. we have

baigan, to scrape together; its p.p. *bauged*, *bawed*, *bawd*,
a scraper of filth, obscenity? *Baud* in *balderdash*, and
in *ribaudry*, are probably the same word.

This false thief, this scoundrel, quod the fere,
Had alway *bawdes* rely to his head,
As any *bawke* to lure in Engleland.

Chaucer. *The Friars Tale*, v. 6922.

A wise man saide, so we may seyn
Is no man wretched, but he it woen
Be he king, knight, or ribowde,
And many a ribowde is marrie and bowde.

Id. *Remount of the Rose*, fol. 142.

And this yere, in the month of August, in London where two
bawdes panyshed with weryage of raye beech.

Folken. *Chronicle*, Ann. 1440. Henry VI.

Whilom there was dwelling in my contrie
An archebische, a man of high degree,
That holdely did execution
In punishing of fornication,
Of witchcraft, and eke of *bawderie*.

Chaucer. *The Friars Tale*, v. 6887.

Those archebischettes frewe Luther, and frewe Hoidkyn, wyth
those whordome and *bawderie* frewe Barne fynedeth no sainte, doe
not onely nothing repent it, but also like abominable beastes boast it.

Sir Thomas More's *Works*, fol. 737.

Rhabab was not a Jewe, she was mystrisse of a house of bawdrye,
and gate her lyving with no very honest gynes of occupying.

Udall. *Janes*, cap. ii.

And they yere, the xv day August, were reyned at the Gylt-
hulle one named John Norfolk, & one other named John White, &
conscit for *bawdry* & set vpon y^e pillory.

Folken. Ann. 1454. Henry VII.

His overest slope it is not worth a mite
As in effect to him, so mote I go;
It is all *bawdy* and to-tore also.

Chaucer. *The Chancony Yennones Prologue*, v. 16184.

BAZ. One word with your old *bawdship*; thou'rt been better
Raill'd at the sin than workin' it than have thwarted
My will.

Ford. *The Broken Heart*, act ii. sc. i.

Now nothing left, but wither'd pale and shrunk
To bawd for others, and go shares in punk.

Spe. *Miscellaneous*, p. 281.

The writer had by long experience observ'd, that in company
very grave discourses have been followed by *bawdry*; and there-
fore has turn'd the humour that way with great success.

Taylor, No. 11.

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BAWD.

BAWN.

The stage (whose art was once the mind to move
To noble daring, and to virtuous lore.)
Precept, with pleasure mix'd, so more profest,
But desit in double meaning hardly lost.

Mont. *de Epistole to Florian*.

BAWD-MONEY, a name given to the *Aleum Atha-*
maticum.

BAWDRICKS, the Fr. *bawdrier*, to dress, curvy and
colour the hides of kine, &c. is also explained by Cot-
grave to signify,—to make belts or *bawdricks*; and
bawdrier, is derived by Menage, through the medium of
the low Latin *baldringus*, from the Lat. *balteus*. Du Cange
accounts very differently for *baldringus*, *baldring*. He
thinks it to be the ring, or belt of a bold (bald) man.

What a bragging maketh a bearward w^t his sylver battered
bawdricks, for pride of another mannes bore.

Sir Thomas More's *Works*, fol. 1272.

The erie of Surrey kyng maynall of Engleand, in a coate of
riche tynse cut in cloth of siluer, on a great corner richely
trapped, & a great wistell of gold, set with stones and perle,
hangyng at a great and many chayne *bawdryke* wise, accompanyd
with an C. ix. gentlemen richly appareld, on poody horses came
to Blacketh, & there amaisly receas'd y^e ambassadours of France.

Hell. *King Henry VIII*, fol. 63.

Tha kyng Rycharde scrage the boote of the Frenche kyngs, gase
to hym a *bawdryke* or color of gable.

Folken. Ann. 1396. R. II.

And in her hand a sharp bone-speare she held,
And at her backe a bow and quiver gay,
Stark with steel-headed darts, where-with she queld
The salvage beastes in her victorious play,
Knit with a golden *bawdrick*, which forseyd
Athwart her snow'y breast.

Spenser. *Faerie Queene*, book ii. c. iii.

Their smothered and sheaths be set out with silver chapes, and
their sword girdles, hangers, and handkerchiefs, ginsle again with
thin plates of silver.

Holland's *Plinie*, li. 483.

BAWL, Skinner applands the conjecture of Min-
shaw that *baw* is from *bau*—bow, the noise of dogs;
others from *balare*, which Vossius after Festus, con-
siders to be formed a *sono vocis*.

Yet as soon as we should once heare those hell howlers these
Turkes come yalping & bawling y^d vs: our bettes should some fall
as cleas from vs, as those other harties flee fro the howlers.

Sir Thomas More's *Works*, fol. 1254.

And these are so full of their confused circumlocution, that a
man would thinke he heard Theriac with a froping and bawling
clamor to come out with a mishmash and hock potch of most
distastefull and unwariorie stuffe.

Holland's *Amianthus*, fol. 386.

But this is got by casting peed to heep;

That bawl for freedom in their unwariorie mood.

Milton. *Samuel xii*.

A huge fat man in country-fair,
Or city-church (no matter where),
Lessor'd and push'd amidst the crowd,
Still bawling out extremely loud,
'Lord save us! why do people press!'

Prior. *Alme*, c. iii.

These persons are worse than *bawlers*, as much as a secret enemy
is more dangerous than a declared one.

Spectator, 148.

If I ever go to one of their play-houses, what with trumpets,
bawling behind the stage, and bawling upon it, I am quite dizzy
before the performance is over.

Goldsmith. *The Citizen of the World*.

BAWM, see BALM.

bei toward his body, treasure wild bei not spare,
je pouere bei gai party, his soule better to fare.

R. Branne, p. 341.

BAWN. Mr. Todd (Spenser's works, v. viii. p. 399)
observes that "*bawn* is evidently used by Spenser for
an eminence." In the notes on Swift's Poem, "The
grand question debated, whether Hamilton's laws

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BAWN.
—
BAY.

should be turned into a barrack or a malthouse," it is said that "a *bawn* was a place near the house, enclosed with mud or stone walls, to keep the cattle from being stolen in the night;" and that Hamilton's *bawn* was "a large old house."

In the Gothic *bawn*, Ger. *bawen*, is *habitare*, constructere *sedem* aut *habitas*—and *bawin*, *domicilium*, occurs *Mark* c. v. r. 3. "He had his dwelling among the tombs."

It appears to have been applied to any habitation, dwelling, or edifice, whether constructed of stone, mud, earth, &c.

But these round hills and square *bawns*, which you see so strongly trenching and thrown up, were (they say) at first contrived for the same purpose, that people might assemble themselves therein, and therefore assembly they were called folk-motes, that is, a place of people, to meet or talk of any thing that concerned any difference between parties and townships, which somewhat yet is no very requisite. *Sperans. View of the State of Ireland.*

Thou spokest to my lady the Knight full of cure,
Let us have your advice in a weighty affair;
This Hamilton's *bawn*, whilst it sticks on my hand,
I lose by the house what I get by the land;
But how to dispose of it to the best bidder,
For a barrack or malthouse, we now must consider.

Scarf. The Grand Question debated.

BAY, from the A.S. *bagan*, *bagon*, to bow or bend. A bay is nothing else but a bending or curving of the shore. Skinner. Whether applied to any recess of the sea-shore, or in buildings, in barns or windows, it always means one and the same thing; viz. bended or curved; and is the past tense and therefore past part of the A.S. verb *bagan*. V. Tooker.

Bay-window, because it is builded in manner of a bay or roade for ships. Minshew.

And there stands within a key window
Stood out in green full large of head and length
His beard as black as feathers of the crow.

Chaucer. The Court of Love, fol. 354.

There stands in sight an isle right Toward
Rich, and of fame, while Priam's kingdom stood;
Now but a bay, and rude visage for ship.

Sorcery. Aladdin, book II.

But woe it is to tell, and doleful to write, while one daye the sayd good erle, as Thomas Mountaigne, cryed hym at a *baye window*, and beheld the compass of the cytle, and talked with his buyeryers, a game was leuied out of the cytle from a place unknown, whiche brake y^e timber or stone of the window with such violence, that the peys thereof all to quashed y^e face of the noble erle, in such wyse that he dyed wth three dayes following.

Felgus. Ann. 1427. H. VI.

For this bay [name] was in all respects like unto the other, lying just between two spots, which meet so near, and in manner enclose the mouth thereof, that hardly two ships at once can goe forth together.

Hollander's Voyages, fol. 961.

He [Thos. Langton] built also a little room, (which is now a large bay-window to the privots dining-room in Qu. Coll.) with curious venting under it.

Wood. Athenæ Oxon. i. 645.

Away ye barbs'rous woods! however ye be plac'd
On scotains, or in dikes, or happily be grac'd
With floods, or marshy fens, with pasture, or with earth
By nature made to till, that by the yearly birds
The large-day'd barn doth till.

Drayton. Poly-olion. Song III.

You wild retreat, where superstition dreams,
Cock, Tully, you your Tusculum believe?
And could you deem you asked hills, that firm,
Faint'd in old song, the ship forsaken bay,
Your Persian shore? *Thomson. Liberty, part I.*

— A river's winding form,
With many a sinuous bay, and island green,
At less expense of labour and of land,
Will give three times beauty.

Mason's Eng. Garden, book III.

BAY, n. It may be derived (says Skinner) from the Fr. *baye*, a berry; and Fr. *baye*, evidently from the Latin *bacca*.

Rosemarie put in minde
The bayer wore out of thought;
And lousynelle came behind
For love that long was sought.

Turberville. Of certain Flowers.

That name, I say, in whom the Muses meet,
And with such beate his noble spirit rise,
That kings admire his verse, whil' at his feet
Orpheus his harp, and Pegasus came his bayer.

F. Beaumont. Upon the Poems of his Father.

Would she but shade her tender brows with bay,
That now lie bare in careless willow rage;
And transe herself in that sweet ecstasy,
That rouseth deeping thoughts of bashful age.
(The now those bays that and aspired thought,
In careless rage she sets at worse than thought.)

Dp. Hall. Defence to Envy.

How will a man, (as St. Paul observed) *videtur hypocrisis*, endure all painful abstinence and continence, in order to the obtaining a corruptible crown, a fading garland of bays, a puff of vain applause?

Barnes. Sermon xx. v. 1.

How, lock'd in pure affection's golden band,
Through sacred wedlock's unambitious woad,
With even step he walk'd, and constant band,
His temples binding with domestic bays.

Warton. Essay on Fred. Prince of Wales.

BAY, adj. } Fr. *baye* 1. It. *baio* 2. Sp. *bayo* and *bayo*;
Ba'YARD, } Dutch *bay* 3. Lat. *badius*; Gr. *βαῖν* or
Ba'YARDLY. } *βαῖον*, the branch of the palm; so called, *κατὰ τὸ βῆν τιλλασθεῖν*, because it cannot be easily torn away. See *Vossius* and *Ménage*.

The application of the name *bayard* to a horse is clearly described in the citations; and its metaphorical application also to men who are bold, blind, and self-willed.

What did Juno Sir Edward! here he had none like,
Upon his steed bayard first he was by dike.

H. Bruns. p. 272.

With Arctis, in stories as men find,
The great Emertius the king of Inde,
Upon a steed bay, trapped in steed,
Covered with cloak of gold diaped wrie,
Came riding like the god of armed Mars.

Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. 2158.

Ye ben as bold as is bayard the blind,
That blundereth forth, and perill cousteth non.
He is so bold to runne agayn a steen,
As for to go bakward in the way.

Id. The Cheyenne Yennassey Tale, v. 16880.

As proud bayard beginneth for to skippe
Out of the way, so pricketh him his course
Till he a lash none of the long whips
Tha thinketh he, though I praise al before
First in the trine, full fatter and more yshours
Yet am I but an horse, and horses lawe
I must endure, and with my ferres draw.

Id. Troilus and Cresside, book I. fol. 153.

But as *bacarde* the hyrde steed,
Till he falle in the ditch a misde,
He grith there no man will him bide,
He stapt so forlorn out of wrie,
There is no witte, that may him reue.

Shewer. Conf. Am. book vi. fol. 135.

The daks of Bedford stutge on a baye course in the saddle of the battail vnder a banner curiously beuten with his armens.

Hall. King Henry VI. fol. 90.

Only the bold and blind bayards (who usually out of self-conceit are so exceedingly confident of their election and adoration) will be able to graze God for it.

Barnes. Sermon 42. III.

True and manly religion is no cold and comfortless thing; it is not a luke-warm notionalty; not a formal and bayardly round of duties; but is lively, vigorous, and sparkling.

Goodman. Winter Evening Conference, p. 3.

BAY.
BAYAS.

BAY, v. Fr. *aboyer*; It. *abbiare*; Lat. *bouler*; Bay, n. J. Gr. *βῆναι*. Applied to the murmuring sound of bubbling waters. *Et quon desertis dambatur in edibus*. Lucr. l. 1070. Applied to the noise of a dog, particularly his repeated bark when his prey ceases to fly, and faces him.

By the *bayage* of a spaniel, there was on a night taken, by mistake a target in the same chamber, a man, that should have confessed that he was there by myse cunctation and procreancy to have slain the fore said price there in his bedde.

Hall. *King Henry VI.* fol. 90.

Also it was shewed me that the Genuoyes had a great dogge in their company that they brought with them, but they knewe not for whence he came, there was one that challenged the dogge to be his, whiche dogge dyd them great serveyce, for the Sarayns coude neuer come so prydey to any wyche, but the dogge woulde bay and make suche brywe that he woulde not rest till such as were aslepe were awaked; every man knewe when they herde the dogge baye, that the Sarayns were comyng to shrynyste with them, wherby euer they apperilled themsele to resist them: the Genuoyes called the dogge, our ladon dogge. *Froissart. Croyce,* v. ii. c. 171.

As by chance one day he followed the chase of an hart, and tryed it so sore that he broughte him to a bay in a place that then was called the streete of Calvary, in y^e which streete was then an olde holly chapel in the which the foreward leyt entred, and there held a hym, and allewyt y^e a great noyse entred hym and noed, for there the y^e chapel there noon of them wold enter, but there stood bayenge.

Spenser. Croyce, c. 127.

But on his march, in midst of all his foes,
He like a lion keeps them all at bay;
And when they seen him strictly to enclose,
Yet through the thick it he hews him out a way.

Drayton. The Battle of Agincourt.

His once so vivid nerves,
So full of buoyant spirits, now no more
Inspire the course; but fainting breathless toil,
Sick, seized on his heart: he stands at bay;
And puts his last weak refuge in despair.

Thomson. The Seasons.

The bay candidates for power and fame,
Here hopes, and fears, and wishes, just the same,
Disabled both to combat, or to fly,
Must hear all tuncs, and hear without reply.
Uncheck'd, on both loud rabblers vent their rage,
As mougees bay the lion in a cage.

Johnson's Prajogue to the Good natur'd Man.

BAY OF ISLANDS, a bay on the north-east coast of New Zealand, at which the chief intercourse between European vessels and that island has principally taken place. It is situated in the 36th degree of north latitude and the 175th of east longitude. Its width at the entrances is about two miles, and its depth considerably more. Numerous islands are sprinkled over this space, and several creeks or entrances of rivers penetrate the surrounding country. It is on the north and west sides of this bay that the principal territories of Shanghai, the New Zealand chief, who lately visited this country, are situated; and in these spots the horrid rites of this superior race of savages have also been witnessed.

BAYAS, a town at the foot of Mount Amanus and the eastern angle of the gulf of Issus; (now gulf of Scanderun) and the key to the celebrated defile (*Pyle Amanicus*) between it and Alexandretta (Scanderun). The neighbouring country is highly fertile, and the mountains, in summer time, a delightful retreat. It is exactly opposite to Ayas (the ancient *Ege*.) where the survey of the southern coast of Asia Minor, by Captain Beaufort in 1819, was an unfortunately terminated. The Agghs, in that and the neighbouring places, have long bid defiance to the authority of the

Porte; and this, though the shortest and only convenient road between Asia Minor and Syria, is carefully avoided, on account of the danger of falling into their hands. (Jehan numâ, p. 603. Beaufort's *Karaman*, 285.)

RAYEUX, the ancient *Bodogunusum* and *Boisjeu*, a town of Normandy in France. It stands on the river Acre, contains about 10,600 inhabitants, and is one of the principal towns in the department of Calvados. It is the see of a Bishop, who is suffragan of the Archbishop of Rouen, and his jurisdiction extends over the whole department. The cathedral is a magnificent edifice with three towers, and is celebrated for containing the piece of tapestry representing the conquest of England by William of Normandy. It is supposed to have been the work of Matilda, William's wife, or of the Empress Matilda, daughter of Henry I. This singular piece consists of a web of linen, 442 feet long, and about two feet broad. Rayeux also contains several other churches and a castle. It had likewise a number of convents and hospitals before the Revolution. The inhabitants now carry on a trade in corn, cattle, hemp, butter, and cyder; as well as in woollen stuffs, stockings, camlets, lace, and leather, which are manufactured in the town. Rayeux is about four miles from the English Channel, and fifteen west of Caen, in latitude 49° 17' north, longitude 0° 42' west.

RAYONNA, a town of Spain, is the province of Galicia, which stands on the shore of a small bay of the Atlantic. It contains a well built collegiate church, a Franciscan convent, and a hospital, and is defended by a castle. The bay of Rayonna forms part of the gulf of Vigo, and is about nine or ten miles south-west of that town.

RAYONNA ISLES, two small islands with several insular rocks, in the gulf of Vigo, and at the entrance of the bay of Rayonna. They were called by the ancients (from what cause is uncertain) *Insule Deorum*, The Isles of the Gods. They are about six miles from Rayonna.

RAYONNET, v. Fr. *rayonnette*; Sp. *rayoneta*, a *RAYONET*, n. } Fr. *rayonette* was invented weapon, being a short dagger fixed at the end of a musket; so called, because the first *rayonettes* were made at Rayonne, in France. Delpino. Cotgrave says, a kind of small fist pocket dagger, furnished with knives; or, a great knife to hang at the girdle, like a dagger.

But if the men of stature speak,
Advance their *rayonettes* of Greek,
And keep plain sense at such a distance,
She cannot give a friend assistance.

Lloyd. The Part.

Declining on rebellion never add'd a *rayonnet*, or a charge of powder to your military force; but I am afraid that it has been the means of taking up many muskets against you.

Borke. To the Sheriff of Bristol.

You send troops to seize and lay down into subjection.

H.

RAYONNE, a strong and commercial town of France, situated on the river Adour, about two miles from the bay of Biscay. It was the ancient capital of the district of Labour in Guascony, and is now the largest, though not considered as the principal town of the department of the Lower Pyrenees. By a late enumeration, it was found to contain 14,256 inhabitants. The Nive and the Adour unite in the town, and form a harbour, to which vessels of a considerable size ascend from the sea. The latter river is also navigable.

BAYAS.
RAY-
ONNE.

BAY-
ONNE.
—
BAY-
REUTH.
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gable for about fifty miles farther, and serves for the conveyance of timber, tar, and iron from the Pyrenean mountains. Bayonne carries on a considerable trade with other towns in France, as well as with those of Spain and the north of Europe. Masts and other timber brought from the Pyrenees, are sent to Brest and other parts of France, for the purpose of ship-building; and the produce of the south is also exchanged for that of the northern parts of the kingdom. French and foreign goods are sent to Spain, and wood, iron, fruit, gold and silver taken in return. The wine and chocolate of Bayonne are also imported in large quantities to the north of Europe. Its hams are likewise held in great repute. Bayonne is also much engaged in the cod and whale fishery. A citadel commands both the town and harbour. Its Bishop is now a suffragan of the Archbishop of Toulouse, and his jurisdiction extends over the three departments of the Upper and Lower Pyrenees, and the Landes. The cathedral is a venerable structure; the quay is handsome, and is a much frequented promenade, but the most beautiful part of the city is the *Place de Grammont*. The language spoken by the common people of Bayonne is the ancient Biscayan or Basque; and the bayonet took its name from this city, where it was invented in the seventeenth century. Bayonne is about 580 miles south-south-west of Paris, in north latitude $43^{\circ} 29'$ and west longitude $1^{\circ} 54'$.

BAYREUTH, (sometimes written *BARITH*) is a Principality of Germany, in the late Circle of Franconia, but now forming a part of the Kingdom of Bavaria. It borders on the Upper Palatinate and Bohemia on the east, and is bounded by the territories of Nuremberg and Anspach on the south. Its extent is estimated at 1760 square miles, and its population in 1807 was found to be nearly 300,000. It is naturally divided into two parts, Oberland and Unterland. The former is a hilly region, intersected by various ramifications of the great Fichtelberg. Its climate is cold, and much of its soil barren, but it still affords good pasturage, and many black cattle of a superior breed are reared in it. Sheep are also bred in considerable numbers in these upland districts. The lower division is generally flat, and in some parts sandy; but it affords much fertile soil, which produces good crops of grain, hops, and tobacco. This last is sent in great quantities both to Hamburg and Bremen, whence it is exported to other parts. Oberland also produces iron, marble, and some other minerals; flax also constitutes one of its chief vegetable products, and gives employment to many of its inhabitants, in spinning and working it into linen, as well as making it into lace. When Frederick Christian, the Margrave of Bayreuth, died without issue, the Principality was united to that of Anspach; the late Margrave of which having no issue, abdicated his dominions in favour of Prussia in 1791. The peace of Tilset transferred this Principality to Buonaparte in 1807, who annexed it to the Kingdom of Bavaria in 1810, of which it still forms a part. The upper division of it is included in the Circle of the Maine, the lower in that of the Rezat.

BAYREUTH, or *BARITH*, the capital of the preceding Principality, is situated near the river Maine, and is a handsome German town with broad and regular streets. It is entered by six gates, and has about 10,000 inhabitants. There are several public buildings which deserve notice. Among these are the

old and new castles, the churches, the convents, the barracks, the mint, and the gymnasium. Its chief manufactures are those of cloth, earthenware, and tobacco-pipes. It is about fifty miles nearly north of Augsburg, in north latitude $49^{\circ} 54'$ and east longitude $11^{\circ} 17'$.

BAY SALT, one of the commercial varieties of common salt, (muriate of soda,) which is thought to possess peculiar advantages for curing provisions that are required to be kept for a great length of time. In Biscay, on the shores of the Mediterranean, and in the Bahama islands, the process for procuring this salt is thus simply carried on. A shallow artificial pond is formed, and carefully lined with clay, at some convenient distance from the sea, so that one end may have a ready communication by means of a sluice, for the purpose of filling when necessary, while at the opposite end the brine pit communicates with several smaller and shallower basins. In the large reservoir the sea water is concentrated by evaporation, from the action of the sun and air; and in the smaller ones the process is completed by removing the crust of salt as fast as it may be formed. By this process the salt is obtained in large flattened octohedral crystals which do not deliquesce, in consequence of being free from the muriate of magnesia, with which the common salt is contaminated. This process may fairly be considered one of the most ancient instances of applied physical or chemical principles, for in hot climates, and especially in Egypt, it is taught by nature herself. Many of these instances are cited by Pliny, lib. xxxi. cap. 7.

BAZA, or *Baca*, (frequently called by the Moors, *Begah*), a town in Spain, in the province of Granada. It stands near the river Gunduleitun, and about twenty miles north-east of Gndix. It contains about 7000 inhabitants, who carry on a considerable trade in hemp. This town was taken by assault, by King Ferdinand the Catholic, in 1489. Latitude $37^{\circ} 51' N$. longitude $2^{\circ} 27' W$.

BAZAAR, the Turkish word for *market*.

BAZAS, a small town of France, the former capital of Bazadois, situated on the river Beuve, and containing a population of between four and five thousand individuals. Before the Revolution it was the see of a Bishop, whose diocese was one of the most ancient and extensive in the kingdom; now it is the chief place in the department of Gironde. It is about thirty miles south-east of Bordeaux; in latitude $44^{\circ} 26' N$. and longitude $0^{\circ} 7' E$.

BDELLA, in Zoology, a genus of the class *Arachnides*, order *Acera*, family *Ricnieis*. Generic character: palpi very slender. Elidura, bent, having a seta at the extremity; eyes four; hind feet the longest.

BDELLIUM, in Materia Medica, a gummy resinous juice, produced by a tree in the East Indies, of which we have no satisfactory account. It is one of the weakest of those gums termed deobstruent; and is unknown in modern pharmacy. The word *bdellum* is used in scripture, and Moses describes manna as being of the colour of *bdellum*. The commentators profess their ignorance of the *Bdellium*.

BE. Sax. *beon*, *esse*, *fieri*; Lye. *Beon*, *esse*, to be. Sommer. Sax. *ic bin*; Dutch. *Ik ben*; Germ. *ich bin*, I be. The etymologists do not attempt to settle the meaning of this word. Like the Gothic, *gn*, the Saxon *ge*, it was much used as a prefix to other

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words; and probably for a similar purpose. May not this *ga* or *ge*, be from the A. S. *gan*, to go; and as a general term expressing motion, (without which no ideas of time or action can be received) have been intended to give the verbal character or force to the words to which it was so prefixed. The Greek *Εἶναι*, whence the Latin *esse* or *sum*, had the same meaning, viz. to go. *Οὐσίη* (says Aristotle) *ὡςπερὶ τὸ, ἀσπερὶ τὸ βάλειν ἑστίν, ἢ τὸ, ἀσπερὶ τὸ πάλειν*. There is no difference between these expressions;—The man is walking, and the man walks. V. Vossius, *de Acad.* lib. 1. And Bishop Wilkins observes, that *calor* is the same with *sum calidus*; *calofacio*, with *sum calefaciens*; *calere*, with *sum calefactus*, I am hot; I am heating; I am heated. (On Real Character, p. 303.) The power which usage has given to this verb, to be, and to all the words, borrowed to supply its tenues, viz. *am*, *is*, *was*, &c.; deduced from a literal meaning, at present untraced by etymologists, seems, when literally used, to be this, viz. to cause a sensation; and to be extended metaphorically to the passions or feelings which arise within us. In A. S. as in English, the simple words, to which *be* is prefixed, are used also in their simple form, as verbs. *Beggydan*, to begird; *gyrdan*, to gird; *bethencan*, to bethink; *thencan*, to think. In English this prefix *be* still appears in many instances to give emphasis to the application of the simple term. As to *bedeub*; to *depraise*; to *berneer*. And particularly when derision or contempt is intended, as *becur* in Search, *beausse*, &c. in Sterne, *beprose* in Mallett, *beuscutech*, betagged in Churchill, *betail* in Goldsmith, &c.

New God leue, þat þe wreche þer of by twene vs now be do.

R. Gloucester, p. 139.

þer habbe) kynges and moni oþer oþt þe in ioie.

Id. p. 23.

Use it þi com hym of kynde to þis of such power.

Id. p. 79.

He was þulke of al þis sones þat best þicom kyng to be,
Of fayrest fourme & maner, & most gentyll & fre.

Id. p. 426.

The knight came, which men wenden had be dede.

Chaucer. *The Sompnour's Tale*, v. 7612.

What light, is light, if Silua be not stene?

What joy is joy, if Silua be not by?

Valens it is to thinke that she is by

And feed vpon the shadow of perfection.

Except I be by Silua in the night,

There is no musicke in the nightingale.

Yoluse I looke on Silua in the day,

There is no day for me to looke vpon.

Show is my enuie, and I leaue to be;

If I be not by her fire influence

Foster'd, Silua's d, cherit'd, kept aliue.

Shakespeare. *Two Gentlemen of Verona*, fol. 36.

Foa. Be a merchant, I will freight thee

With all store, that time is bought for

Curio. Be a lover, I will wait thee

With success in life most sought for.

Ford. *The Sun's Darling*, act iv. sc. 1.

Neither did they wisdom herein proceed in time only, but in degrees: at first thou madest nothing absolute; first, those modest things which should have being without life; then, those which should have life and being; lastly, those which have being, life, reason: so we ourselves in the ordinary course of generation, first live the life of vegetation, then of sense, and reason after words.

Hall. *Cost. The Creation*.

And bring you have

Declin'd his means, you have increas'd his malice.

Bromstead and Fletcher. *Hon. M. Port*, act. II.

Before this world's great frame, in which all things
Are now contain'd, I found my being pierc'd,

That high eternal power, which now doth move
In all these things, must'd in itself by loss.

Spenser. *Hymne of Heavenly Love*, stan. iv.

It having pleas'd the most High God to reveal and represent himself to us under this name or title, he thereby suggests to us, that he would not have us apprehend him as any particular or limited Being, but as a Being in general, or the Being of all beings, who gives being to, and therefore excelleth authority over all things in the world.

Bishop Beveridge. *Sermon* xliii.

BEACH. } Of this word no etymology has been
Be'acud, } given; it is not to be found in our
Be'acuv. } early lexicographers. Perhaps *beag*,
(from *sigan vel bagum*, to bend, to wreath,) whatever
girds or surrounds. It seems to be applied by Hackluyt
to the loose stones that lie between the water's edge,
and the main land.

In her this sea of death hath made no beach;

But as the tide doth wash the slimy beach,

And leaves embroider'd works upon the sand,

So is her flesh refin'd by Death's cold hand.

Dumas. *Funeral Elegy on Lady Merham*.

Hark, hark, I hear the north wind roar,

So how he roars on the shore;

And with expanded wings outstretch,

Rattles the billows on the beach. *Curtis. Winter*.

There, after we had gotten our goods on land, with much labour and strength of oars, so also windlasses devised and made, we haled your boats out a harte of beach or pebble stones into a small river, sending your ships apparel with other things to an house hired in a village thereby.

Hakluyt's Voyage. *Arthur Edwards*, v. l. p. 355.

QUE. These are the forgeries of leonessie,

And neuer since the middle summer's spring

Met we on hill, in dale, forrest, or wood;

By pured fountain, or by rustic brooke,

Or in the hatched margin of the sea

To dance our ringlets to the whistle wind,

But with thy braids thou hast disturb'd our sport.

Shakespeare. *Midsummer Night's Dream*, fol. 148.

KING. Oh heaven, that one might read the book of fate

And see the resolution of the times

Make mountains levell, and the continent

(Wearie of solid firmness) melt itself

Into the sea; and other times, to see

The beechie girde of the sea.

Id. *King Henry IV. S. P.* fol. 63.

Albeit, adds he, in truth it was a fair and sandy beach, (as all the best might well perceive,) was some five or five miles from the town or fort, and much more easy than that of Bayal, where we before won our landing.

Oldy's Life of Sir Walter Raleigh, fol. 123.

"Hie, hie, we, we, we."

Alexander cry'd, "quick to the neighbour's beach."

They flew; they came but only to behold.

Trunculous right! the vessel dash to poop

Amid the bulging breakers.

Memo. *The English Garden*, book iv.

BEACHLEY, or OLD PASSAGE, a point of land at the confluence of the Wye and Severn, in the county of Gloucester. From its insulated position, Beachley has always been considered an important military post. Extensive earth works, assigned to British origin, are still remaining; and it is the terminating point of Offa's dyke. Beachley was distinguished in the wars of the Commonwealth for the defeat of 500 Royalists, whom Prince Rupert had sent to fortify it. Before the completion of the works, they were dislodged with great loss, by Governor Massie. The

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BEACON.

Royalists were again defeated here during the same wars, after a desperate battle; and tradition reports that the commander, Sir John Wytour, escaped by a hazardous leap from a cliff, still called Wytour's Leap, into a boat which was waiting to receive him.

BEACHY-HEAD, a promontory on the coast of Sussex, long. E. 0° 15', lat. N. 50° 44'. It lies between Hastings and Shreham, about a mile and a half from Eastbourne. To sailors it is known by the name of the *Seven Cliffs*, from its number of divisions. Its summit is the highest cliff in the south of England, and measures 575 feet in height. The navigation of this coast is dangerous, especially during south-westerly winds. From this promontory to Arundel the hills are called South Downs, and are celebrated as sheep walks. On the west side of Beachy-Head is an artificial cavern, named *Parson Darby's Hole*. It consists of two apartments, just above high water mark, dug out of the solid chalk; and tradition asserts it to have been the residence of a recluse, who was minister of East Dean. Two causes are assigned for his retirement: one the desire of avoiding a scolding wife; the other a benevolent wish of assisting mariners in stormy weather. The parochial register of East Dean records the death of "The Rev. Mr. Jonathan Darby, Vicar, October 25, 1736; and that of his wife, "Mrs. Ann Darby," three years before. The French, with a much superior force, defeated the combined Dutch and English fleet off Beachy-Head, on the 31st of June, 1690. The English were commanded by Lord Torrington. They lost two ships, the Dutch six. The French fleet consisted of seventy-eight sail, while that of the allies amounted only to fifty-six.

BE'ACON, *a.* } A.S. *beacen*, *beac*, a taken, or
Be'acon, *v.* } sign. Beacon, to nodde unto, to
Be'aconed, } becken, to signify. Sommer, *Beaces*,
Be'aconage, } Skinner thinks may be from the A.S.
be and *ceacen*, to ken, to see. In G. Douglas, "det
clerum e pappi signum," is rendered, "Furth of his
effschip me bekin gart be stent."

Any thing so placed that it may be ken'd, seen, or distinguished, intended as a sign, notice, or warning, is a *beacon*.

For menye of ryke men by mynne ich lye nat
ge beuency ac ge blasy nat, *see* *beuency* *beu*.
Piers Plouman, p. 335.

The fieryell thas tooke *beu*en vpp to an high mountayne, and
out of the same mountayne ac out of a beuon or an high place
of eyghel, he todayrlye in a mounte layeth all the kynnynges of
the world before his eyes. *Edith*. *Lake*, cap. iv. fol. 52. c. i.

For the comynge of the countreys adioynynge nere to y^e see in
(especially in the tyme of warre) on every hill or high place to
erect a *beuon* w^{ch} a grete latere in the toppes, which maie be
seen and decreed a grete space of.

Hall. *Richard III.* fol. 50. c. i.

Nor on yond plaine, nor in this neighbouring wood;
Nor in the dale where glides the silver flood.
But as a beuon on a hill so his,
That every one may see't which passeth by,
Is here plac'd.

Bruce *Britannia's Pastors*, book i. song ii.

As two brand beacons, set in open fields,
Send forth their flames far off to every skyes,
And warning give, that crenies conspire,
With fire and sword the region to invade;
So flamb'd his eyes with rage and resentment too,
Spartan. *Faerie Queen*, book i. c. xl.

And to this purpose, late ordained *beuons* or *beacons* to be
set up, that the same being fired might be seen farre off, and
thereby the people to be raised.

BEACON.
—
BEAD.

No, if other things as great in the church, and in the rule of
life both economical and political be not lost into and reform'd,
we have lookt so long upon the blame that Zealotism and Calvin
have becom'd up to us, that we are stark blind.

Milton. *Speech on Unlearn'd Printing*.

And, rul'd upon his desperate foot,
On stirrup-side he put'd about,
Purtening blood, like blasing star,
The beacon of approving war.

Butler. *Moderate*, part i. canto ii.

On the top of the steeple there remain an iron *beacon*, dis-
cuss'd as a *beacon*, to be fired occasionally, to alarm the country
in case of invasion. It takes its name from the *Beacon* *beacon*,
to call by sign.

Pennant. *Jour. from Chester*. *Hedley Church*.

Wherefore, among other reasons, a suit for *beaconage* of a
beacon standing on a rock in the sea may be brought into the
court of admiralty, the admiral having an original jurisdiction
over *beacons*. *Blackstone*. *Commentaries*, li. 108.

BEACONSFIELD, a small market town in Bucking-
hamshire, distinguished as the residence of Waller, at
Hall Barn, and of Edmund Burke, at Butler's Court,
both in its immediate vicinity. The Duke of Port-
land's seat, Bulstrode, is also within a short distance.
Population in 1821, 1736. Poor's rates in 1803, at
7s. 6d. 1617. 11s. 6d. A rectory, in the gift of Magdalen
College, Oxford.

BEAD,

Be'adroll,

Be'adman,

Be'adwoman.

Be'adriending.

Spherule *precatorie*. Skinner.
Bead, (says Tooke,) in the A.S.
beade, oratio, something prayed,—
because one was dropped down
in string every time a prayer was
said, and thereby marked upon the string the number
of times prayed. It is the past participle of *biddan*,
orare, to bid, to invite, to solicit, to request, to pray.
ii. 266.

Wif housede vnder hoodes, and nere halys made,
And armede and attired henn, and how beuon yere beuon,
R. Gloucester, p. 547.

Of smale corall aboute hire arm she bare
A pair of beades, gauded all with green;
And thence heng a broche of gold ful shene.
Chaucer. *Prologue to the Knightes Tale*, v. 158.

And ich think eny beuon, bete hit be in wrathe
That ich telle w^{ch} my tounge, to ten myle fro my heric.
Piers Plouman. *Vision*, p. 111.

Then Made for here nyadodes, to þis fire kneid
Shof here of here synnes, shouen joyce
Told hym a tale, and took hym a softe
For to be here beuon. *Id.* p. 40.

God of his goodnesse, with les grete wil
With oute mo beuon bydyng: han how was under fuge
And ich y saved as ge may see, with oute synnyng of mase.
Id. p. 203.

Where that he shoulde bide his beuon,
He doth his theft in holy stole,
And taketh what thyng he finthe therein,
Gower. *Conf. Ass.* book v. fol. 122. c. iii.

Then layeth he the cause of al these pure heynnes, both their
heynesse in mynre, and their default in *beuon*, al this he lath to
y^e only fault of the clergie, naming that in his *beuon*, bishops,
&c. *St. Thomas More's Works*, fol. 290. c. i.

The ascetic none destitute of all helpe and comfort of man,
morded the people to devotion, to their beuon, and prayers unto the
gods. *Holland*. *Lucius*, fol. 92.

BEAD.

BEAGLE

Ah! my dear woman, (quoth he) how should, alas,
Silly old men, that live in hidden cell,
Bidding his leaders all day for his troops,
Tidings of war, and worldly trouble tell?
With holy father fits not such things to tell.
Spenser, Faerie Queene, book l. c. l.

Though now their arts be no where to be found,
As that renowned poet them compiled,
With warlike numbers, and heroic sound,
Dan Chaucer (well of English studied)
On fables eternal head-roll worthy to be filed.
Id. B. book iv. c. li.

Or tedious head-rolls of duncional blood,
From father Jack since Durand's food?
Hall, Satire iii.

Now. ———— 'Twas such a bountie
And honour done to your poor bedes woman,
I know not how to own it, but to thank you,
Ben Jonson, The Sad Shepherd, act ii. sc. vi.

"Tell your beads," quoth the priest, "and be fairly tress'd up,
For you surely to-night shall in Paradise sup."
Prior, The Thief and the Creditor.

Should I, my friend, at large repeat
Her borrow'd ease, her fond conceits,
The head-roll of her vicious tricks,
My poem would be too prolix.
Id. Alms, canto iii.

In this dim cave, of difficult creed,
An hermit's holy tabe rest:
The schoolboy finds the frequent bead,
Which many a formal mania best.
Langhorne, Fable xi.

BE'ADLE. } See *bedest, bedezens, and bidello*,
BEADLE-SHIP. } in Menage. *Bedellus*, in Du Cange.
Span. *bedel*; Ger. *bedelle*; A. S. *bydel*, *bedel*, (*bed-del*),
from *biddan*, *biddan*, to bid, to tell, to order; because,
says Junius, he proclaims, and executes the will of
the superior powers.

Now in Mele Ju mayde, and no mo of hem alle
Thowse bedelis and bidelis, broude before Ju kyng.
Piers Planchman, Vision, p. 38.

Nowe when they stode before the image, which Nabuchodonosor
set up: the *bedel* cried out with all his mighte, O ye people,
hyndres and tonges, to you hee it sayde.
Bible, 1551. Daniel, ch. iii.

Edward Wotton, son of Rich. Wotton, superior *beddle* of
divinity of this University of Oxon, by Margaret his wife, was
born within the City of Oxon.
Wood, Athene Oxon. v. l. fol. 94.

Edmund Gayton, superior *beddle* of arts and physic of this
University, bach. of phys. actually created, by virtue of a dispensa-
tion from the doctors, 1617, turn'd out of his headship in the
year following by the parliamentarian visitors, lived afterwards in
London in a shocking condition, and wrote trile things merely to
get bread to sustain him and his wife.
Id. ii. fol. 385.

I remember the time when racially company was kept out, and
the unlucky boys with toys and bells were whipped away by a
beddle. I have seen this done indeed of late, but then it has been
only to chase the lads from church, that the *beddle* might seize their
copper.
Spectator, No. 1118.

"Want money!" replied the host, "that must be impossible;
for it was no later than yesterday he paid three guineas to our
beddle to spare an old broken soldier that was to be whipped
through the town for dog-stealing."

Geldemish. The Fear of Wakefield.

BEAGLE. Perhaps, says Skinner, from the French
bagler, to hellow; from their deep and sonorous
bark. Fr. *bagles*, of which Menage offers no etymology.
Skinner also suggests, that both the English
and French words may be derived from the It. *piccolo*,
(from the Lat. *pauculus*), q. d. *cuni piccolo*, smaller

dogs; for such *beagles* are when compared with other *BEAGLE*.
dog of the chase.

After the delirance of this town, the Frenchman still like
good *beagles*, following their prey, beyond the walls of
Falloway.
Hall, Henry IV. fol. 156.

But list, alas! some's *beagles* be
Uncompild, beantie prouder
And drives my heart from out the thicks,
And at recit swaiver.
Warner, Albion's England, book vii.

Gallio may pull me roses ere they fall,
Or in his net entrap the tennis-ball;
Or tread his spear-hus he mauling in her mead,
Or yelping *beagles* busy heaves pursue.
Hall, Satire iv.

With crows attended of your ancient race,
You seek the champion sports, or gylvas chase;
With well-breath'd *beagles* you surround the wood,
Ev'n then, industrious of the common good.
Dryden, Epistle xiii.

Already, see the deep-mouth'd *beagles* tickle
The mistle masses; and, on eager sport
Island, with envious impatience try
Each doubtful trace.
Armstrong, The Art of Preserving Health, book iii.

BEAGLE, in Zoology, a species of the genus *Canis*,
kept entirely for hunting hares: they are of small
size, and much inferior to the hare in swiftness,
but have a very delicate scent; and when they have once
found a hare, seldom fail of running her down.
Their cry is considered by sportsmen as extremely musical.
Packs of *beagles* are now rare in this kingdom.

BEAK, { Fr. *bec*; It. *becco*; Sp. *pico*;
BE'AKED, { Dutch, *beck*; Fr. *becquer*; It. *bec-*
BE'AKEN, { *care*, to peck. A. S. *pyccan*; Ger.
BEAK-HEAD, { *picken*, to pick or peck. The *beak* is
That which *picketh* or *pecketh*; also applied to any
thing shaped or placed prominently, like the *beak* of
a bird. A *beaker*, Skinner thinks, may be a *beaked*
cup, such as perhaps were formerly in use. The
Dutch *beker*, Vossius derives from the Latin *bocar*,
explained by Festus to be *ex rinarium*; and this *bocar*
or *baccar* perhaps from *Bacchus*. Menage derives the
Ital. *bicchieri* from the Greek *βίος*, *Vas sine urina*
habens anus. Hesych.

In type of which *solenopentacron dogmat*, the holy crime or
oyle, by negligence of the mystifiers, or otherwise lackage,
a dome *discrepancy* from *beun* brought in her *becke* or by a ryll
fyled with oyle of moon sweetest *sausage*, and delivered to *seyn*
Remygus.
Polyen, c. 96.

For, dispatched he by one Antonius Primus, a captain of
the adverse part; who being borne of Tolosa, was in his child-
hood nurtured *beccus*, (*beccus*) which in the French tongue signi-
feth a cocken-hill.
Holland, Norton, p. 238.

A little ven in *beake* with laurel greene that flew,
Foreshew'd my dolefull death, as after all men knew.
Morris for Magnificence, fol. 137.

As trocking the Athenians, although that there were some of
them *drunken*; yet there were *beakers* of them *crucible* and
broued in their force parties with the *beakers* of the *Corythians*, that
was more strange than theirs.
Nicholls, Theophrastus, 183.

Down ruelt the rain
Impetuous, and motion'd till the earth
No more was seen; the flaming vessel wren
Uplifted; and secure with *beaker* prove
Rode tilting o're the waves.
Milton, Paradise Lost, book xi.

And then the armies buckling and dealing one against another,
like unto ships pointed in the *beastard* with pikes of brass, and
thrusting one at another by turns, were with reciprocal and alterna-
tive motions as waves of the sea driven to and fro.
Holland, Amosius, fol. 423.

BBAK.

BEAM.

By shooting a piece out of our forecastle being close by her, we fired a mat on her *beak-head*, which more and more kindled, and ran from thence to the mat on the bowsprit.

Holmst. Voyages, &c. The Cyprus Chagos Fred, li. 200.

Did they coin *** horns, and flaggons,
In of horses and dragons?
And into plumes and muskets
Stamp leaders, cups, and porringers?

Butler. Hudibras, P. L. C. li.

Birds, for instance, in general, procure their food by means of their *beak*; and, the distance between the eye and the point of the *beak* being small, it becomes necessary that they should have the power of seeing very near objects distinctly.

Fairy. Natural Theology, p. 29.

Lo! where incumbent o'er the shade,
Rome's rav'ning eagle bows his *beaked* head!

Mosses. Ode li.

He lives, and o'er his brimming *beaker* boasts,
(As if his *beak* were his downy breast)
Th' inglorious feat, and clamorous in praise
Of the poor brute, seems wisely to approve
The honours of his matchless horse his own!

Cooper. The Task, book vi.

BEAM. } A. S. beam, Mal. 7, as below, from
BEAMLIKE. } Wiclif. Dutch, beam. "In A. S." says
Junius, "*beam* est arbor; from the Goth. *bagma*, the true
etymology of which I have still to seek." Wichter
suggests, that the Gothic, *bagma*, may be immediately
from the Icelandic, *baggi*; and the A. S. beam, from
the German *beuen*, to build. The beams or rafters of
a house sustain the whole building; the beam of a
balance sustains the scales appended to each end.

Wijoute gret harm, of wapele, bote Sejn Dunston by cas,
þu heate hym by a *bean*, and fauced was.

R. Gloucester, p. 236.

O Chamberlaine, accused be the morrow,
That thou into thy yerd flew from the *beams*.
Thou were ful well yeasured by thy dreamers,
That thilke day was perilous to thee.

Chaucer. The Nonnes Preestes Tale, v. 13236.

But what secret thou a likli mote in the yfte of thi brother,
and secret thou a *bean* in thine owne yfte! Or how seist thou to thi
brother, brother suffer, I schal do out a mote from thi yfte, and
to a *bean* is in this owne yfte! Ypocrite, do out first the *bean*
of thi yfte, and thanne thou schalt se to do out the mote of thi
yfte of thi brother.

Wiclif. Matthew, chap. 7.

Why sayest y^a a mote in thy brothers eye, & perceonest not y^a
beams y^a in thine owne eye. Or why sayest y^a to thy brother:
suffre me to plucke out the mote out of thyne eye, & behold a
bean in thine owne eye. Ypocrite, first cast out y^a *beams* out
of thyne owne eye, and then shalt y^a se clearly to plucke out the
mote out of thy brothers eye.

Bible, 1551.

Wherefore suddenly *erliche* was made, and they wayghten founde
and pressed faber, and over that all such wares, as they shoulde
have weyd at the *kynges beate*, they weyed moche thereof in
theyr sayde houses, to the hynderance of the *kynges custome*.

Falgon. Ann. 1286.

With that, at him his *bean-like* speare he aynded,
And thereto all his powre and might applyde.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book iv. c. lv.

Now Jove suspends his golden scales in air,
Weighs the men's wits against the lady's hair;
The doubtful *beam* long odds from side to side;
At length the wits mount up, the hairs subside.

Pope. The Rape of the Lock, c. v.

A *bead*—a *bead*—let reason take her scales,
And fairly weigh those words; see which prevails,
Which in the balance lightly kicks the *beams*,
And which by sinking, we the victor discern.

Churchill. Independence.

BEAM, v.
BEAM, n.
BEA'MLESS,
BEA'MY.

A. S. *beamin*, radiare, to shine, to
cast forth rays or beams of the sun.
Sommer. And this Skinner declares
to be from the preceding *beem*, be-
cause a ray or beam represents the figure of a beam
drawn out in length.

BEAM.

But a thing sathly dare I tell
That ye wul hold a great merveilie,
What it is tolde withoute faile;
For when the sunne cleve in sight
Cast to that well his *beams* bright
And that the best clearest in
Than taketh the cristall stone jure
Againe the sunne as hundred beves,
Blew, yelow, and reed that fresh and new is,
Chaucer. The Romance of the Rose, fol. 123.

I saw a beauty from the sea to rise,
That all earth look'd on; and that earth, all eyes!
It cast a *beam* as when the cheerful sun
Is fair got up, and day some hour began.
Fines of B. Jonson on Drayton's Muse.

Suche ought to be sette in a more hygh place, than the restles,
where they may se, and also be wene, that by the *beams* of theyr
excellente wytt, shewd through the glasse of sacrositie, other
of the inferior understanding, may be directed to the waye of
vertu and eternall living.

Sir Thos. Egley. The Governour, S. l.

And so at last, Minerva clew'd the cloud Jove let fall
Before theyr eyes: a mighty light flew *beaming* every way,
As well about theyr ships, as where theyr darts did hottest play.
Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book xv. fol. 214.

His back was turn'd, but not his brightness hid;
Of *beaming* sunnie rales, a golden hid
Circled his head. *Milton. Paradise Lost, book iii.*

I can remember you to none above,
So near as to the chest-borne birth of Jove,
The *beams* Cybalin.

Chapman. Ham. Od. book vi. fol. 91.

— You, gallant Vernon, saw
The miserable scene; you, pitying, saw
To infant weakness snail the warrior's arm;
Saw the deep-racking pang, the ghastly form,
The lip pale-quivering, and the beamless eye
No more with ardent bright.

Thomson. Seasons.

There *Beas* sees no more the joys that throng
Her bank all *beaming* with the pride of Rome.
Id. Liberty, part I.

Love is the brightest *bean* of the divine beauty, wherein God
doth most delight and exult.

Bates. Spiritual Perfection unfolded, &c. chap. xi.

But in persons of eminent place and dignity, they (virtue and
piety) are united to a great advantage, so as to cast a lustre upon
theyr very place, and by a strong reflexion to double the beam of
majesty.

Thomson. Seasons li.

The sun now rolling down the western way,
A blast of fire renews the fading day;
Vacumber'd barks the regal barge unfold,
Brightening the twilight with its beamy gold.

Tickell. The Royal Progress.

I see the radiant visions, where they rise
More lovely than when Lucifer displays
His *beaming* forehead through the gates of morn,
To lead the train of Phœbus and the spring.
Athenide. Pleasures of Imagination, book I.

What are the sciences they *beamed* out to enlighten it? What
are the arts they introduced to cheer and to adorn it?

Burke. On the Nobles of Great Britain.

A third, possessed of full-grown reputation, shades off every
beam of favour from those who endeavour to grow beneath him,
and keeps down that merit, which, but for his labours, might
rise into equal eminence.

Goldsmith. The Beggar, No. 4.

BEAM.
—
BEAR.

A sudden calm unusual, dark and dead,
Arises insuspicious o'er the heavens.
The beamless sea looks wan; a sighing cold
Winners the shadow's aid.

Mallet. The Excursion, c. 1.

BEAM BIRD, in Zoology, a name of the Muscivora
Gracula, or Spotted Fly Catcher. See MUSCIVORA.

BEAM TREE, a name given to the *Pyrus Aria*, or
White Wild Pear tree.

BEAN, } Ger. *böse*; Dutch *boon*; Swe.
BEAN'FED, } beans; Sax. *bean*, *biēn*. Junius thinks
BEANSHAPED, } from the Gr. *βίανος* *rel vivānos*, the
same with *vivānos*, which Eustathius would believe to
be so called *vivānos* *vō vivānos aīnos*, because they produce
blood.

The king of Alimayne sends specialliche laze
To king Jon, that he withdraws him of his won,
& vnderwenge the archbishop, & holi churchc al clesse
Lette abbe is franchise, & al sse worth a bove.

R. Gloucester, p. 497.

But God wot what that May thought in his herte,
When she him saw up sitting in his sherte
In his right cap, and with his necke leze:
She praioeth not his playing worth a leze.

Chaucer. The Merchant's Tale, v. 9734.

I lost to Oberon, and makes him smile,
When I a fat and bearded home beguile,
Neighing in likeness of a silly foale.
Shakespeare. *Midsommer Night's Dreame*, fol. 148.

Long let us walk,
Where the beere blows from yon extended field
Of blossoms' breath. Arabis cannot boast
A siller gale of joy, than, libani, thence
Breathes through the sense, and takes the ravish'd soul.
Thomson. *Spring*.

The bill of this species of duck [the king duck] is red, and extends high up the forehead on each side, in form of a broad beam-shaped plate.
Fennest. British Zoology.

BEAN GOOSE, in Zoology, the vulgar name of the
Anas Segetum. See ANAS.

BEAN MALACCA, a species of *Anacardium*.

BEAN MOUSE, in Zoology, a name given to the *Mus
Sylvaticus*, in some parts of England. See MUS.

BEAN ST. IGNATIUS, a name given to the *Nux vomica*.
See STRYCHNOS.

BEAN TARTON, the English name of the *Anagyris
foetida*.

BEAR, *v.* } Goth. *beiran*; Sax. *beiran*, *beiran*, *beiran*;
BE'ARRA, } Ger. *beiren*; Dutch *beeren*; Swe. *bära*,
BE'ARING, } *bära*. *Ferry, portare, parere*.
BEARN, } To carry, to support, to uphold,
to sustain, to undergo, to suffer.

To carry, to stand firmly under or against, to resist,
to repress, to urge, push or press,—upon or against.
To carry, or bring forward or forth, to produce;
(subvent. fruit, children, &c.)

To bear in hand, Mr. Steevens says, is "to delude
with false promises." It is merely to carry along with
us, to lead along, as suitors, dependants, expectants.

And bygin to blowe, & myke to beere frut.
R. Gloucester, p. 352.

And hem wolde oblige, and sikernesse fede gode,
To beere hem clesse here trasage, wyle ye world stode.

Id. p. 96.

For in trauyght of hys byring hys moder was first ded.
Id. p. 111.

We wille leue þat ysa rube we com agayne,
& telle howe oþer tyme Edward carynde,
& of Lewyn of Wales, & his byring him.

R. Brune, p. 256.

For shal never leere beere beere by a wyne.

Pierre Plouharn, Finesse, 25.

Also ich fede gode
With fleshes and with fyf livers. fyfe journeyd at ones
And þer of leste baskets-ful of broke mete
Broke bred to beere ich. ewyge bo so wolle.

Id. 2b. 312.

Nayr faith as fyf hope, so feasted aren his wondes
With oote þe blod of þe beere. he beyl wolle þe swardes
The wiche beere mot morden. be here of a mayne.

Id. 2b. 325.

A shepe right is the same pite
His wolle weareth, but on a dale
An other taketh the flees awrie.

Gower. Conf. d'm. book v. fol. 84.

Lo a virgin schal have le wombe and schal beere a sone and
they schulen clepe his name Emmanuel. *Wiclif. Matt. chap. 1.*

First let the torch beere be wrapped in weedes of woe,
Let all their lightens be virgin woe, because I lov'de it so,
And care not though the twilight be coarse that lends them light.
Gaueigne. Last Wylf, 4p.

But faire escaped child Thopas,
And all it was thurgh Goddes grace,
And thurgh his faire being.

Chaucer. The Rime of Sir Thopas, v. 12739.

Men schulen be lousyng hemself, covetous, full of beryng.
Wiclif. Tyte, chap. li.

Judge not ams what so befall;
Is me there lenth no power of choyse:
It is but hope that doth me move,
Who standeth beere is to lose.
Uncertain Authors. The Iwer thinker, 4p.

When they neither by manifest reason could galvanize the matter
contained in the books, nor yet abide the coming out thereof
then sought they by a subtle devised train to deprave the trans-
lation, notes and prologues thereof, leaving the king in hand and
all the people, that there was in it a thousand lies, and I cannot
tell how many mo.

Fox's Martyrs. Ded.

Now is the noon of sorrow's night;
High in his patience at their sight.
Lo the faint lamb, with weary limb
Beers that huge tree which must bear him.

Crashaw. Sacred Poems.

Thus praying you to send vs determinate answers herein by
master Secretary Peter (or if ye will not let him goe) by this bearer,
we beseech God to give both you and vs grace to determine this
matter.

Shew. Cran. 1549. Edward VI.

Nowe blame thy selfe: thou wert't with things dying, I with
things new borne. Here's a sight for thee: Looke thee, a bearing-
cheate for a squires child.

Shakespeare. Winters Tale, fol. 209.

ISA. Oh, let him marry her.
LOC. This is the point.
The Duke is very strangely gone from hence;
Beere many gentlemen (my selfe bring one)
In hand, and hope of action.

Id. Measure for Measure, fol. 64.

The bearers of the Arke had need bee faithfull; they must first
set their foot into the streams of Jordan, and believe that it
will give way; the same faith that led Peter upon the water, must
carry them into it.

Hall. Contemplations. Jordan divided.

My Lord, after most hearty commendations, this is to advertise
your Lordship, that we have directed this bearer our cousin to-
wards your Lordship, in such business and affairs as concerneth
your Lordships honour, profit, and great well-being, as the said
bearer will declare to your Lordship at more length.

Knox. History of the Reformation in Scotland, fol. 111.

But sure it was some one or other had bewar'd the plot, and
grippen understanding the practice, and doubtfull whether she
should believe it, caused herself to be carried to Baile in a bearing-
chair.

Greenway. Tacitus, 200.

BEAR.

His face are a description of the sun in eclipse, which I know nothing more like than a brave man in sorrow, who bears it as he should do, without imploring the pity of his friends, or being dejected with the contempt of his enemies. *Tatler*, No. 111.

Be of good cheer, the leaver brings with him five thousand pounds, and has my order to answer your drawing as much more on my account. *Spectator*, No. cxxviii.

To sweet Nian! that all my soul possesses,
Whom captives for me, and whom victims blame,
Bear me, oh bear me to sequester'd scenes,
The bow'ry mazes, and surrounding greens;
To Thamus's banks which fragrant breezes fill,
Or where ye Muses sport on Ceper's Hill.
Pope, Windsor Forest.

They do not adopt the lioness to the strength; but they estimate the strength of the lioness by the lioness they imagine. *Burke, On the Nobility of Arctur's Debit.*

I shall discuss them in such a manner as shall appear to me the best adapted for showing their mutual bearings and relations. *Id. Letters on a Supposed Peace.*

BEAR.

BE'AR-BAITING,
BE'AR-GARDEN, s.
BE'ARHED,
BE'ARISH,
BEAR'S-LEACH,
BE'AR-LIKE,
BE'ARSHIN,
BE'ARWARD,
BE'AR-WHEEL.

A. S. *bera*, *bere*; Ger. *ber*; Dutch *baer*; Sw. *biörn*. The northern etymologists abandon this word to the Greek *Βεῖρος*; which they find in Hesychius interpreted, *pileamus*, *villanum*, (*urine*, *quasi hirsuta*, *hirsutus*, *pilis horrens*.)

Hym jygte he set a gretlich *beere* he in je eye anteyt,
Jut sile je jannens quadeke of je eyt bijn jygte he set.
R. Gloucester, p. 262.

Intede of cote-armure on his heruall,
With nayles yolve, and bright as any gold,
He hadde a *beere* skin, cole-blike for old.
Chaucer, The Knight's Tale, v. 2182.

Thy large fronte, thy sion graye
I shall here change in other ways,
And all the feature of thy face
In such a wise I shall deface,
That every man shall knowe
With that the likeness of a *beere*
She take, and was forlorned anon.
Guerr. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 118.

I would I had bestowed that time in the tongue, that I have in fencing, dancing, and *beere-baiting*. O had I but followed the sun. *Shakespeare, Twelfth Night*, fol. 256.

Vertue is of so little regard in these countermongers, that true valor is turn'd *beere-bard*. *Id. Henry IV.* part ii. fol. 77.

MACH. They have tied me to a stake, I cannot fire,
But *beere-like* I must fast the course. What's he
That was not borne of woman? Such a one
Am I in *beere*, or none. *Id. Macbeth*, fol. 156.

Ike were better to be a *beere-bard*, and set to hoop *beeres*.
Guarner Gurnes's Needle, act i. sc. ii.

OLD CLIF. And from thy burghet I read thy *beere*,
And tread it under foot with all contempt,
Dreight of the *beere-bard*, that prunes the *beere*.
Shakespeare, Henry VI. part ii. fol. 145.

To shape my legges of an vnequall size,
To disproportion me in every part,
Like to a chace, or as vnluck's *beere-wheeler*,
That carries no impression like the damme.
Id. Id. part iii. fol. 160.

Geo. O, by your leave, sir,
I must be hold to raise you; else your physick
Will turn to further sickness.

Mrs. — Physick, *beere-drink*!

Geo. You physic! you are mad.
Ford, The Lover's Metamorphosis, act v. sc. I.

BEAR.

— BEARD.

His surcoat was a *beere-skin* on his back;
His hair hung long behind, and glossy raven black.
His ample forehead bare a coronet,
With sparkling diamonds and with rubies set.
Dryden, Palamon and Arcite.

In our own language we seem to allude to this degeneracy of human nature, when we call men, by way of reproach, *sheepish*, *bearded*, &c.

I fear the word *beere* is hardly to be understood among the polite people; but I take the meaning to be, that one who courses *beere* is a vulgar upon an imaginary thing, is said to sell a *beere*; and is the same thing as a promise among courtiers, or a vow between lovers. *Tatler*, No. 38.

But now a sport more formidable
Had rak'd together village rabble;
'Twas an old way of recreating,
Which learned leeches call *beere-baiting*;
A bold adventurous exercise,
With ancient heroes in high prize.
Bulwer, Modestus, part i. can. I.

I must propose some methods for the improvement of the *beere-garden*, by dismissing all the holly actors to that quarter. *Spectator*, No. cxli.

Our nobility also kept their *beere-ward*; twenty shillings was the annual reward of that officer from his lord the fifth Earl of Northumberland.

BEAR'S-EAR, a name given to the *Primula villosa*, or Auricula; also to the *Saxifraga arvencola*, or Chinese Saxifrage.

BEAR-S-FOOT, a name given to the *Helleborus fatidus*.
BEAR ISLAND, an island situated on the north-west side of Bantry Bay, near the south-west extremity of Ireland, and about twelve miles distant from Bantry. It is nearly six miles long and two broad, and presents a hilly and rugged surface. Batteries were a few years ago erected upon it for the defence of the bay. Latitude about 51° 35' north, and longitude 9° 45' west.

BEAR LAKE, GREAT, a lake in the north-west of America, near the arctic circle. It was this lake which the late North-west Expedition reached in the summer of 1820, and on the shores of which Lieutenant Franklin and his party wintered. In the ensuing spring they descended the Copper-mine river, and reached the ocean. But being unable to accomplish their object they were obliged to return, and arrived at this lake the same year in the utmost distress. After passing a second winter in these dreary regions of the north-west, most of the party have now arrived in England.

BEARD, s. } A. S. *beard*; Dutch *baerd*; Ger. *beard*, s. }
BEARD, s. } *beert*. Wachter thinks perhaps from
BE'ARDED, } Ger. *barthen*; A. S. *berfan*, *accare*, *dis-*
BE'ARDED, } *accare*, (which he finds so interpreted
BE'ARDED, } by Benser only) to cut, pare, or shave. Otherwise:
from Ger. *barren*, to shew, to manifest; because the
beard, shews or manifests, or is the sign of manhood.

Mr. Steevens observes, that, "in ancient language, to head a man was to cut off his head, and to beard him signified to cut off his beard; a punishment which was frequently inflicted by Giants on such unfortunate princes as fell into their hands." Hence

To beard is to oppose face to face in a hostile or daring manner.

A vole he huddle, as smale as hath a gyle,
No beard hadde he, no aker nor shable have,
As smothie it was as it were newe shave.
Chaucer, Prologue to the Knight's Tale, v. 691.

BEARD.

The personer, beards all his chin
Gleam eyes, and face of Cherubin
Telling a tale, to anger with the free.
Lidgate. Prologue to the Story of Thebes, fol. 370.

As I myn rie aboute castis,
His large berde than at laste
I sight, and thought anon therfore,
Howe that his father byn before,
Whiche stode vpon the same place,
Was berdeles, with a yongly face,
And in suche way, as ye hean berde,
I take away the somer berde,
For that his father had none,
To make him liche, and here vpon
I make for to him excused.

Gower. Conf. Am. fol. 123 book v.

In Jons his mighty name, this eight and twentieth day,
Of founted bearded Samson, the enemy to day,
Gauguin. Last Will, &c.

Wroth. Doe what thou dar'st, I heard thee to thy face.
Gloster. What? am I dar'd, and bearded to my face?
Draw men, for all this priviledged place,
Blew coats to tawny coats. Priest, beware your beard,
I mean to tugge it, and to gaffe you soundly.
Shakespeare. King Henry V. part i. fol. 90.

And they laughing came to him, and took him softly by the
beard with both their hands, and even in the market place his hair
bring black before, was presently turned yellow. This miracle
made them believe the report the man made, who ever after was
called Embowden, as you would say, bearded as yellow as gold.
North. Plutarch, 215.

Heere comes it, that with gold in triumph borne,
Thou dost the faces of the Gods adorne!
Among the brazen brethren they that stand
Those fire-breathed, where old haunsons least extend,
The highest place in men's affection hold
And for their care receive a beard of gold.
Shir J. Beaumont. Per. Act. ii.

The goodly well-grown trout I with my angle strike,
And with my bearded wire I take the ravenous pike.
Drayton. Nymphal 6.

Th' accus'd Philistia stands on th' other side,
Grumbling aloud, and smiles 'twixt rage and pride.
'The plagues of Dagou! a smooth boy,' said he,
'A cursed beardless foe oppo'd to me'
Cowley. Davideis, book iii.

Thou shewest likewise are covered with a soft bearded lank,
and so well the shade as the kerwell is round and white, all of one
entire piece.
Holland. Plutarch, fol. 416 v. l.

And yet these are their great objections against putting the Scrip-
tures into the hands of the people. Which is just like their saying
against giving the cup to the laity from the incurveness of their
beards, lest some of the consecrated wine should be spilt upon
them: as if errors and heresies were unconsciously lately sprung
up in the world, and which mankind were not liable to in the first
ages of Christianity.
Tillotson. Sermon xxx.

How hard the contest, and how sharp the strife
To put the great from pagantry of life!
To wear the bearded infant from his toys,
Vain hopes, vain honors, and still vainer joys.
Hart. Sermons to Dissenters.

Of the various fashions of the BEARD which have
prevailed at different times and among different nations,
we may be expected to say something; although it is
scarcely possible to say any thing that shall be new,
and our brief account must virtually contain a rep-
etition of that which, with little variation, has always
been repeated by most of our predecessors in the art
of collecting curious trifles. We shall not stop to
inquire into the causes which almost universally have
attached peculiar reverence and sanctity to an ex-
cessiveness in which the goat claims high pre-eminence
above man: nor do we imagine that many now-a-days

BEARD.

will take the trouble of reading the mighty work
which Ulmost took the trouble of composing *de fine
Barbe*. This logician of Padua wrote four hundred
folio pages on this intricate subject; and, even after
these, died leaving his book unfinished. His own
opinion, as far as it can be collected from the mysticism
in which he has perhaps purposely involved it, is, that
the Beard "serves for the office of the human soul,"
and "proves the infinite wisdom of God." Without
disputing these affirmations, the first of which is schol-
astically proved by a triple syllogism, it may be suffi-
cient to remark, that customs which prevail largely
among inhabitants of widely distant countries pos-
sessing little means of communication with each other,
most probably are founded on some suggestion of
nature. The Beard is a distinctive sign of manhood;
and the respect so generally paid, even among savages,
to mature age, might readily be transferred to the
outward mark which betokens it.

The Lawgiver of the Jews did not think it beneath
the dignity of his code to introduce into it an especial
ordinance concerning the fashion of the Beard. "Thou
shalt not mar the corners of the Beard." (*Levit. xix.*
27.) By "the corners" the commentators understand
the extremities; and this precept, no doubt, like the
others in the same chapter, arose from the leading
policy of the Theocracy, which sought to create a
people in every thing distinct from and anointed with
the idolaters by whom they were surrounded. Exclu-
sive of the authorities which we shall presently adduce
from profane history, Holy writ more than once
alludes to the Pagan fashion of shaving the Beard
during seasons of mourning. The burthen of Moab is
partly figured in the warnings of Isaiah by a declara-
tion, that "every Beard is cut off." (*xv. 2*) and
again, in similar strains, by Jeremiah (*xlviii. 37*) that
"every Beard shall be clipped." In the letter attrib-
uted to the last-named Prophet, at the end of the
apocryphal book of Baruch, we read if the priests of
Babylon in like manner, that "they sit with their heads
and Beards shaven;" and it is immediately added "as
men do at the feast when one is dead." (*xxxi. 2*)
The instance of Mephibosheth is a sufficient proof
of the opposite practice of the Jews. The son of Saul,
grateful for the favor which David had manifested
to him alone, amid the fall of his father's house, was
sorely grieved when the conspiracy of Absalom forced
the King to abandon his capital; and among other
demonstrations of sorrow, it is mentioned that he had
not "trimmed his Beard" from the day the King de-
parted until the day he came again in peace. (*2 Sam.*
xix. 24.) The abhorrence which Moses instilled into
the Hebrews, and of any contamination by this Gentile
custom, is strongly exemplified also in the indignation
which was felt by the Ambassadors of David, when
they were foully outraged by Hanan the Ammonite.
That prince, deluded by evil counsellors, rejected the
message of condolence upon the decease of his father,
which had been sent by the Israelitish monarch; and
giving too easy credence to the suggestion, that they
came to search and spy out his city, he insultingly
commanded one half of their beards to be shaved.
"The men," it is said, "were greatly ashamed;" and
David, respecting their honorable feelings, permitted
them a temporary retirement to Jericho, and did not
summon them to their duties about his court until
their Beards had grown again. In the strong expression

BEARD. of the inspired historian, for this act, "the children of Ammon stank before David," and he bitterly avenged the wanton affront by the swords of Joab and Abiahah. (2 Sam. x.)

Unless under the pressure of public or domestic calamity, the Egyptians at large shaved their Beards. Yet this must have been with some exceptions; for we read that the guards of their King Rhampsinthus were shorn, in derision, by the robber who first plundered his Sovereign's treasury, and afterwards, as the reward of roguery so ingenious as to baffle detection, received his daughter in marriage. (Her. ii. 191.) It is from the same delightful author who relates this entertaining history, that we learn the Egyptian custom by which the priest was obliged to submit to the tonsure. Nor was it only the heads and chins of these ministers of superstition, upon which the razor was employed, but the whole body was carefully depilated every third day, to prevent the hazard of any profanation to the temple or the altar by the approach of impure vermin.

The Assyrians, as we are taught by Strabo, (xvi.) resembled the Egyptians in this act of mourning, and permitted their Beards to grow in seasons of grief. The Persians, on the contrary, not content with shaving themselves in honour of the defunct, docked the tails, and cropped the manes of their horses and mules also. It was thus, while Boetia re-echoed their lamentations, that Mardonius and his followers celebrated the obsequies of Masiastus, (Her. ix. 94.)

When Thetis wished to revenge the fancied wrongs of her impetuous and short-lived son, she approached the knees of the Thunderer with a kiss, and touched his Beard in supplication.

οὐ γούνατ' ἔθηκεν, αἰς ἑλάβετ' ἡλεῖ γούνατον.

In the same manner Dolon would have besought pity from the unsparing Diomedes; and if he could have touched the warrior's Beard, his life, perhaps, would have been secure. Ere he reached it, however, the sword was on his torso, (Il. x. 454.) This appendage of gods and heroes long continued in honour throughout Greece. The singularity which Lycurgus affected in all his institutions, induced him to prohibit the cultivation of Beard upon the upper lip. In opposition to this well known fact, which Plutarch has stated in his *Life of Cleomenes*, the poet Antiphanes, in his work entitled *The Archon*, is cited by Athenæus (iv. 9.) as desiring the stranger at Lacedæmon to conform to the customs of the state, by eating black broth and nursing his mustachioles.

ἀνδραυε τοῦ θυμῶν, φέρει τοὺς βύστανας.

For a reconciliation of these contradictory statements, the reader may be referred, though perhaps not altogether to his satisfaction, to the conjectures of Casaubon on this passage.

Athenæus also informs us, that to shave the Beard was long considered a mark of infamy and effeminacy at Athens. He records a hitting sarcasm of Diogenes, who asked a smooth chinéd vainglory "whether he quarrelled with nature for making him a man instead of a woman?" (xiii. 2.) There is yet another anecdote to be found in the same place on the same subject; but the language of the Cynic does not always admit citation; and in the present instance

we abandon all hope of interpreting his expressive, though not very refined phraseology. A Beardless man, until the days of Alexander, was almost a prodigy in the streets of Athens; and the term *εἰρηστής* (the Shorn, was probably annexed in ridicule to those who deprived themselves of this natural ornament. Even "The mighty master," Timotheus, is described by the Deipnosophist (loc. cit.) as practising some favourite melody, with a Beard. The instrument upon which he is represented to be playing, is not quite so elegant as that which Dryden has assigned him; and the picture given by Athenæus reminds us more closely of the shaggy cheeks of a Baggipier, than of the "flying fingers" by which "music won the cause," at the revels of the Macedonian conqueror. "Ὁ Τυμόθεος ἡ δολιχὴν τριχίαν ἔχων ἔπαιε." It was to leave his enemies without a handle in the day of battle, that Alexander first shaved his soldiers, (Plut. in *vita Thæci*); and after him, till the reign of Justinian, the Greeks continued Beardless. That Monarch revived the fashion of wearing Beards, and it was persisted in till Constantinople ceased to be the seat of the Empire of the East.

In Rome the *Barbati Reges* and *Intoni Catores* are a familiar theme of the poets. From the origin of the city, till the year of its foundation 454, we are told, that Barbers were unknown. They were first imported from Sicily by Publius Ticius. It must not be disguised, however, that there is some discrepancy upon this point among the ancient writers. Pliny, (vii. 59.) Aulus Gellius, (iii. 4.) and Varro, (*de Re Rust.* ii. 2.) all concur in the foregoing statement. Livy, on the contrary, among the other signs of popular mourning, after the execution of Manlius Capitolinus, which took place in the year v. c. 369, enumerates the *promissa Barbe*; and, unless it had been customary to shave, this would not have been a mark of sorrow. But to such matters as these, it is probable that the great historian had dedicated less research than his minister brethren: he drew his picture more from circumstances which his own times presented to his imagination, than from any antiquarian stores; and we may leave his opponents the praise of having afforded more credible evidence on this important dispute. Scipio Africanus is said to have been the first daily shaver in Rome. Slaves at all times seem to have worn Beards, and to have been shaved on manumission; and, in later days, when Beards were generally adopted, a prisoner who had been acquitted, shaved himself, and returned thanks at the Capitol. (Martian. ii. 74.) From Augustus to Adrian, the Emperors were all Beardless; the latter cherished this natural vizard, in order to conceal the scars with which his face was thickly scarred. (Spartian. *vita Had.*) The wretched Commodus feared to trust his throat to a razor in another person's hands; and following the example of his competitors for the palm of tyranny, Alexander of Phœria and Dionysius, he singed his Imperial chin with burning walnut-shells. (Lamprid. in *vita Comm*; Cicero, *Tusc. Quest.* v.; Plut. in *Pelop.*)

The Beard worn by Julian, which, in the licentiousness of the *Saturnalia* of Antioch, was the burden of the insolent songs chanted by the Syrian Greeks, was, as himself confesses, adopted only in spite to a visage which nature had not moulded with a favourable hand. The elaborate irony of the Imperial Satirist

BEARD. enumerates some of the various inconveniences to which this Beard exposed him: first, the nimble-footed tenants who roved, as *fera natura*, through its tangled thickets; then the difficulties which it opposed to conviviality; and lastly, the obstacles which it created against love. Could the soft and delicate hands of the dissatisfied Orientalists have endured its roughness, he would have permitted them to weave the threads of his chiù into the ropes for which they had declared them best adapted. To the Beard of this disciple of Socrates, posterity is indebted for a vivid representation of the manners of the Queen of the East: and Julian, before he renounced the metropolis, which he sought to aggrandize, and which had repressed his benevolence with ingratitude, immortalized "his resentment, his wit, and his humanity,"* by the composition of the *Misopogon*.

But Julian affected Philosophy; and to him, as to Antoninus Pius and to Marcus Aurelius, a Beard was necessary as a distinguishing mark of sectarianism. The Greek Sophists had introduced this custom: and a Beard is recorded, as a symbol of wisdom, in sportiveness by Horace, and in more sober earnestness by the severe Persius. Yet the *beau monde* of Rome as eagerly avoided this exotic badge of the austerity of the Schools, as they shrank from the practice of their doctrines. The first deposition of the Beard was celebrated by the noble youths as a festival. The shavings were dedicated to some god; and the congratulations, and the yet more substantial presents of friends and dependants accompanied this admission to manhood. In the days of Domitian this ceremony afforded a pretext to the avaricious for the extortion of frequent offerings; and the lodgion of the Satirist of Aquinum is justly roused at the despicable rapacity of the Patron, who calls upon his wretched Client for tribute, whenever he first crops the down of some favourite slave, or of some profligate minion. (Juv. iii. 185.) It was in his twentieth year that Caligula assumed the *Toga*, and then also he shaved for the first time; and the historian mentions, as a remarkable deviation from established custom, that the two acts were performed on the same day: for seventeen was the usual age for the *diu Tyrocinii*; an age at which the Beard would scarcely need the razor. (Suet. Cal. x.) Diou has thought it worth while to record that Augustus first shaved at twenty-five. Nero had just attained his twenty-first year, when, amid the pomp of sacrifice, he deposited the first-fruits of his Beard in a golden casket enriched with the rarest and most costly pearls, and consecrated the precious offering at the shrine, and to the service of the Capitoline Jupiter. (Suet. Nero xli.)

It is from Suetonius also that we learn the adherence of the Romans, under the Cæsars, to the Egyptian usage of remaining unshorn in time of mourning. When Titurius Sabinus and Lucius Auruncularius had been slain by the barbarian Ambiorix, the grief of Julius Cæsar vented itself in an unaccustomed longitude of Beard; nor did he shave till he had avenged the death of his comrades. (Jel. lxviii.) The sorrow of Augustus was similarly manifested after the destruction of the Varian legions; and that it was not a mere form and shadow of woe, he sufficiently evinced by the substantial blows which his head endured

against the door-posts. (Orcas. xliii.) On the death of his sister Drusilla, the incestuous Caligula testified his infamy to the world by the uttermost extravagance of passion; and after in vain attempting to escape the tortures of an equally insatiable and impure regret, by hurrying from Rome to Campania, and from Campania to Syracuse, he returned to his seat of government with a long and matted Beard. (Cal. xliiv.)

Our miscellaneous notices will be brief, and will be chiefly borrowed from a volume to which we may safely refer the reader, whether he requires information or entertainment on the subject of fanciful national costumes. The interminable Bulwer, in his *Anthropometamorphosis or the Artificial Changeling*, calls Purchas to witness, that the Maldivians shave entirely for the sake of cleanliness. He adds, that the Tartars shave the upper lip, and that they war with the Persians for not doing the same. That these Persians, the Hungarians, the Turks, and the Arabians shave the whole face, excepting the upper lip. To Smith's *History of Virginia* he refers for a proof, that in that country the women are the only Barbers; and that they shave half the face of their spouses somewhat uncomfortably, without hot water, and with two shells. He fleets in Jomardes, that the cheeks of the Huns, while infants, were gnawed by their mothers to prevent the growth of the Beard in after life: in Herbert and in Purchas, that the inhabitants of Pegu, of Java, of Mexico, and of Florida, besides two nations who are new to our acquaintance, the Chiribichenses and the Totopinambaultians, all practice eradication. From Théniet, in his *Cosmographie*, he learns that shaving is a heavy punishment in Candia; and in this assertion, as it relates to the Indians, he has been previously corroborated by Stobæus, *τὸν δὲ πρῶτον ἀνδραγατῶν δὲ βασιλεὺς ἐκέλευε ἀνδραγατῶν, ὡς ἐξῆρτον ὅσοις ταῦτα ἀνδραγατῶν*. (Coll. 42.) In the *History of Savoy* also he is informed by Paradin, (li. 158.) of four young gentlemen in the Earl of Savoy's retinue, who were accused and convicted of a rape; and that not only the injured damsel herself, but what was less to be expected, her father besides, conceived the family honour to be restored by a mulct upon the chins of the too vivacious gallants. Leo Africanus is cited to prove, that at Heez, in Morocco, the married men only are allowed the honour of Beards; Strabo, to show, that in Cathay it is the custom to dye them; a custom which the learned Bulwer perhaps had seen adopted yet nearer home; and against which he exclaims accordingly with becoming indignation, "Those who dye their Beards with their tinctures, playthings, lees, and slibber-slubbers, cozen others, and discredit themselves." Heylio teaches him, that the Chinese paint a deformed man with a thick Beard; and the voracious Sir John Maundeville, "That in the Kingdom of Muncy, in Great India, there men have Beards as it were cats." On his own authority the erudite physician farther affirms, "that a little too indolgent of a Beard are the Germans, who affect a prolix Beard, inasmuch as some of them have been seen to have Beards so long that they would reach unto their feet, which they have worn trussed up in their bosoms." This custom of "Bipennine Beards" among the Germans, Bulwer deduces from their ancestors, the "Long O Barbs;" but lest he should be falsely supposed by this statement of the German customs, to vituperate the laudable practice of Beard-wearing in general, he takes

* Gibbon, who adds, though we scarcely see why, "indirection."

BEARD. occasion to observe, that no one "without impiety can destroy" that which "the learned of all nations with one mouth pronounce comely for a grave, constant, just, and honest man."

The Barbarians of modern Europe appear very generally to have shaved the Beard, some of them, perhaps, reserving the mustachio. The Lombards, as their name implies, and as we have seen above, introduced an opposite custom. In the early ages of Christianity, touching the beard was considered a mark of respect among the French, and stood in the place of an oath. (Aumoin, i. 4.) The Merovingian race of Kings were distinguished for their flowing locks and shaggy chins; and are described by Eginhard, the Secretary of Charlemagne, as sitting in council *Barbi submissi*. Among the sixteen descendants of Merovius, who wore the crown, the first Childeric has left no memorial of the Beard, the second and third Clovis, the third Clotaire, the second Dagobert, and the second Chilperic, all died too early to possess one; but the remaining Monarchs did justice to their surname. Though the dynasty was changed in Pepin, he did not think it necessary to reform the fashion of the Beard. Charlemagne was equally *le Grand* in this, as in other respects. The *debonnaire* Louis, though little inferior in valour, was smooch-faced, and so were his successors, till Carloman again revived a tuft; which after him was dropped till the accession of Raoul. Louis le Faincant concluded the second race with as little attention to a Beard as to any thing else: but Hugh Capet commenced the third with a venerable dignity of chin. His son Robert did not imitate this example; and we find it missing in Louis le Gros, although a charter is said to exist, dated in the year 1191, under this reign, which concludes with the following words: *Quod ut ratum et stabile permaneat in posterum, presentis sigilli mei robur apponitur cum tribus pilis Barbe meae*. Louis le Jeune, although his *copsemen* by no means predilectes the fact, wore his Beard. From his demise, in 1180, till the accession of John, in 1199, there occurs a long interregnum in Bearded royalty. So also from the death of John to the accession of Francis I. Francis II. died at sixteen: his detestable successor at twenty-five. It would have been well for mankind if the second had been as Beardless as the first. The two succeeding Henrys continued the fashion; and the Beard of the last was the admiration and the model of Europe. Even when the assassination of this truly great man had placed the crown on the brows of a Beardless youth, the faithful Sally refused conformity to the fashion of the new court, and considered the retention of his Beard as an act of loyalty to the memory of his deceased friend and Sovereign. In the reign of the *Grand Monarque* mustachios appear to have superseded the Beard. Much attention was bestowed upon curling and perfuming these: but even this remnant of former heroism by degrees died away, and was banished in the later reigns from the court to the camp.

The Spaniards appear to have been remarkably attached to the distinction of a Beard, which, indeed, well accorded with the national character for gravity. It ceased with Philip V.; but a proverb, universally circulated in this country of proverbs, while it is not far from speaking the truth, perhaps equally speaks the feeling of the people at large. *Desde que no hoy Barba, no hay mas alma*: Since we have not had our Beards we

have not had our souls. The Portuguese hero, John de Castro, is said to have offered to pledge one of his whiskers to the inhabitants of Goa, as the best security which he could deposit for the repayment of a considerable loan. The generous citizens refused both the money and the mortgage. Baldwin, Count of Edessa was less fortunate in a similar pawn during the Holy War. His whisker was redeemed by his father at an inordinate ransom.

By the laws of the Novgorodina code, which anciently formed the constitution of Moscow, he who plucked hair from another's Beard, was fined four times as much as he who cut off another's finger. Notwithstanding this, the Czar Peter in one of his caprices undertook to curtail the Beards of his subjects. The Russians, as might be expected, resisted; and a police was established for the sole purpose of reducing the Beard to the authorized standard. Those who still persevered in retaining an ornament which they considered to be in some measure a hereditary distinction, were assessed by a heavy tax: and the more religious among them, where poverty forbade the payment of this tribute, esteeming the Beard as a distinctive evidence of orthodoxy, without which, their patron, St. Nicholas, would reject them from the gates of heaven, preserved the hair with which they were compelled reluctantly to part, that it might be deposited in their coffins as a passport to Paradise.

Among our own countrymen, the Ancient Britons are supposed to have shaven all but the upper lip; but modern historians are deceived in supposing, that such was the universal custom of the Anglo-Saxon Kings. Edward the Confessor is represented, on his great seal, with a large Beard and mustachios. William of Malmesbury relates, that spies were sent by Harold into the camp of the invading Norman, who returned with an assurance of an easy victory, since their enemies were priests and not soldiers, being all shaven. Probably, says Strutt, the spies saw only the archers, who might be shorn for the convenience of drawing the bow; since it is plain that William the Conqueror, on his seal, appears with a short Beard and mustachios. Among the edicts which the Conqueror imposed upon the vanquished nation, few were considered more oppressive than that which enjoined the practice of shaving. It was perpetually disobeyed, the fear of punishment in some instances led to voluntary expatriation, and the hatred of tyranny in many to open insurrection. The ancient Ecclesiastical Laws did not in all cases enjoin the tonsure of the Beard. On the contrary, the Saxon artists paint more Church dignitaries with, than without the Beard. The restriction might perhaps be imposed on the inferior clergy, in order to distinguish them from the laity. It originated as we are told by Polydore Vergil, (iv. 8.) and by Platina, (in *Pit.*) with Anacletus, the fifth successor of St. Peter. The Beard of Henry I. was loudly condemned by his clergy, and Orderic Vitalis and Serlo both denounced it from the pulpit. The King, to avoid these fulminations, shared the offending part; yet within twenty years we again find the effigy of Henry II. on his seal, most respectably bearded. If this Monarch really wore a Beard, it is most extraordinary that the custom should have fallen so rapidly into disrepute, as Matthew Paris implies. He states that, under Richard I. a citizen of London who wore his Beard, contrary to the standing fashion, was known

BEARD. by the nickname of *Gulibene cum Barid*. From the fourteenth to the sixteenth century the Beard was generally worn. The cure of Sir Thomas More, in the closing scene of his life, for his Beard, which had not committed treason, is familiarly known; and in the reign of Elizabeth, our Great Dramatist furnishes us with frequent insight into the prevailing fashions. Thus, we learn from him that it was customary to dye the Beard with various colours, and to mould it into various forms, according to the profession, age, or fancy of the wearer. "Your straw-coloured Beard, your orange-tawny Beard, your purple in-grain Beard, and your perfect yellow," all meet with commendation; and Bottom's Histrionic Company are instructed to have "good strings to their Beards!" an advice which hitherto we believe has escaped explanation. "A Beard of the General's cut" is noticed in *Henry V.* "A great round Beard" is disapproved in *The Merry Wives of Windsor*, and compared to "a glove's paring knife." The Beard of the Justice is distinguished by the melancholy Jaques; and the spade-beard, or dagger-shaped Beard of the soldier is contrasted with the rough bush of the clown. Charles I. appears to have worn mustachios and a short peaked Beard; Charles II. mustachios alone; and it is probable that since the Revolution, unless among our modern Hussars, the face has been entirely cleared.

The best guide in the *History of Beards* is a collection of portraits, (provided they are more authentic than those to the gallery of fabulous Kings at Holyrood House.) From the heads prefixed to the several reigns, in *Mozart's*, we have borrowed our notice of French Beards; and for a more copious detail of similar English fashions, the reader cannot be referred better than to my portfolio illustration of Granger's well known work.

Most of the American tribes eradicate the Beard with very diligent care; and this usage for a long time induced a suspicion that they differed from the inhabitants of the Old World in this characteristic of sex. The observations of recent travellers, and the reports of European residents, have disproved this opinion; and it is found that their general smoothness results only from a long continued practice of extracting the hair by the roots.

Many stories are on record of Bearded women; some, perhaps, have truth as their basis; others bear palpable signs of the ultra-marvellous. The reader's discrimination will readily enable him to assign to these respective allotments, the few which we shall select. Whenever any public calamity was impending over the Pedoneses, a people who inhabited the country above Halicarnassus, the chin of the Priestess of Minerva budged with a huge Beard. This is said to have occurred no less than twice or thrice. (Her. i. 175. viii. 104.) Hippocrates has preserved, in his sixth book, the names of two Bearded fair, in whom this masculine attribute was no obstacle to matrimony, Phœnacia, the wife of Pythias of Abdera, and Hamysia, the wife of Gorgippius of Thasos. Schenkius in that chapter of his *Historiæ Medicæ*, which treats expressly of *Barid*, writes that at Paris, in his own days, there was a woman "with a black mustachio of a just size, whose chin was also indifferent hairy." In the nursery of Albert, Duke of Bavaria, in the time of Wolfius, there was reported to be a virgin with a large black Beard; and finally, Bulwer, to whom we are glad to revert,

and whose name in any treatise of *Barid* ought to be put upon our lips, affirms, (and doubtless he most implicitly believed,) that there is "a mountain in Ethiopia, near the Red Sea, where women live with prolix Beards."

BEARDED CREEPER, a name given to the *Cestrea Crupena*, or Black-seeded Century.

BEARN, a province of Old France, which had the title of *Vicomte* as early as the ninth century. It was afterwards raised to a principality, and with Navarre, belonged to Henry IV. when he came to the crown. His son, Louis XIII., united it, with that part of Navarre which was possessed by the house of Albert, to France, in 1620. It is separated from Spain by the Pyrenees, and is encompassed on the other sides by the Basques, Gascony Proper, the Landes, and some other districts, and is now included in the department of the Lower Pyrenees. Its surface is mountainous; yet some parts yield good corn and wine, while many of the valleys afford excellent pasturage, and feed large droves of cattle. The population of the province is stated at 290,000; Pau is the chief town, and contains about 9,000 inhabitants.

BEAST,

BEASTLIKE, } Fr. *beste*; It. and Sp. *bestia*; Ger. *beeste*; from the Lat. *bestia*; perhaps so called, quasi, *phœnacia*, from *phœn*, to offer violence. Vossius and Martinus.

Game of hounds be loode þe now, and of wythe best,
And kys forest and kys woden, and west þe nys forest.
R. Gloucester, p. 375.

Monche myrthe is in May: a monche wile bestes
And so fort wyl somer laste; here nolce durst.
Piers Plowman. Vision, p. 200

Wery and wet, as bestes in the rain,
Cometh nely John, and with him cometh Alen.
Alas (quod John) the day that I was borne!
Now am we driven til bething and til scorne.
Chaucer. *The Reece Tale*, v. 4104.

If that the good man, that the bestes oweth,
Wol every weke, or that the col him cometh.
Pasting yarlours of this wold a drought,
As thilke holy Jew our othe taught,
His bestes and his store shall multiplye.
Id. *The Pardoner's Tale*, v. 1274.

Nor ye remember nat yf ye were horse reasonable men, &
that ye live as wilde folke among men, & after that die as brute bestes.
The Golden Boke, k. iv.

And though hym lacke voice of speche,
He ges ys with his fete arches,
And waiteth in his bestly steern
He made his plene vnde the ween.
Chaucer. *Conf. Am.* book l. fol. 23.

A bestiall man purveyeth nat the blighe that he hath of the spyrit
of God, for it is sold to him. Walsy. i. Cerynth. chap. ii.

He taught men the forth downgrange
Of bestialite, and oke the wastyrage
Of oxen, and of hore the name,
Howe men becom shuldre ride and tame.
Gower. *Conf. Am.* book v. fol. 89.

He dyd cause the honours of L. J. perishes to be pulled downe, the
people to be expelled, and all binger dewine, to be touned into
bestie, and made pasture for bestiall menage.
Sir Thomas Elyot. *The Governour*, p. 41.

With lyke bestiall fury, he caused the head of Marcus Antonius,
one of the moste eloquent orators of all the Romaynes, to be
brought vnto hym, as he sat at dynner, and there he toke the head
all bloody between his handes. Id. *ib.* p. 114.

BEARD.
—
BEAST.

BEAST.

BEAT.

But throw her forth to beasts and birds of prey:
Her life was beast-like, and devoid of pity,
And being so, shall have like want of pity.
Shakespeare. Titus Andronicus, fol. 52.

A cow hath no milk ordinarily, before that shee hath calved.
The first milke that shee giveth downe, is called *lactation*: which,
as soon as it is delat with some water, will soone turne to be as
hard as punish stone.
Holland. Plinie, 348.

So may our awes receive the mounting rammes,
And we bring thee the earliest of our lambs:
So may the first of all our fells be thine,
And both the besting of our goats and hines.
Bon Jonson. Hymne 4. To Pan.

The Lacedæmonians for the auoyding of drunkenness, did
cuse their sonnes to bechide their seruantes when they were
drunke, that by beholding their beastlynes, they might auoid
the like vice.
St. John Chrys. Hist. of Soliman.

And therefore the ancient Lacedæmonians in their solemn feasts
forced their flutes the bondmen, to overcharge themselves with
wine: and such they shewed then unto their youth, by their ap-
parent beastliness of drunken men, to work into them an abhorring
as to the same vice.
North. Plutarch, fol. 732.

A man that is valiant, dothe assume hym selfe as insensibill
in thynges that do some most terrible, not rationally, and as it
were in a lesteley rage, but of gentyl courage, and with premedi-
tation.
St. Thomas Elyot. The Governour, 183.

Exanster they should be as aceme they would;
Or songe lowdly for so deere deart;
Or else he percerall to symphonie of old,
From which their beattified soules freely start.
Ecolage in W. Browne.

Their conceptions of God were very unworthy, and their wor-
ship unreasonably such (full of sottish, savage, beastly super-
stitions.)
Berrow. Sermon 1. v. 11.

—Inspiring dumb
And helpless victims with a sense so keen
Of injury, with such knowledge of their strength,
And such sagacity to take revenge,
That oft the beast has seem'd to judge the man.
Cowper. Task, book vi.

BEAT, v. } A.S. beaton, beetan; Ger. batten; Fr.
BEAT, n. } battre; It. battere; Sp. latir.
BE'ATRE, } To hit, knock, strike or dash: whether
BE'ATINO, } with sticks or fists, or any other thing,
to impel or give impulse to.
To beat down, to level, to depress, to lower, to sub-
due, to repel, to conquer.
To beat into, (met.) to impress or imprint by repeti-
tion, to inculcate.

Hou schelle prey be ye and, kaptas adous cause,
And lette wyf jys asend jye false kyng cause.
R. Gloucester, p. 463.

Jye preoure a man to be, for two schyllinges or jye,
With piket stanes grete, beten alle be be.
R. Browne, p. 328.

Ther sat a faucon ouer hire bed ful hit,
That with a pitous vois so gan to crie,
That all the wood resounded of hire cry,
And beten had himselfe so miserably
With bothe hire winges, all the rede blood
Ran emulding the true, that as she stood.
Chaucer. The Spicers Tale, v. 10725.

The stronge valles downe their beas,
So that into the large stryre
This borne with great solemnitie
Was brought within the cite.
Cowper. Conf. Am. book I. fol. 14.

Hervat thou not the great strougth
Yen perde, (qd. I) wel ynough
And what soune is it like (qd. be)
Fetor, like the beating of the sea
(qd. I) against the rocks below.
Chaucer. The House of Fame, book iii. p. 260.

Who with his sword (disclaiming now to stay,
And see the blood he lov'd so rudely spill)
Fierc't a bold Lombard, who would stop his way;
Even till his heart did beat against his bill.
Deuotport. Goodfellow, book I.

Surely in this point I must compare you unto a shrewd and
vagrarious wyfe, which beating his husband, by his clamorous
complains, maketh his neighbours beleue that his husband
beatteth him.
Witigylt. Defence, fol. 706.

Whereas the doctors that possess the body and the flesh, are
discovered and known by their inflammations and red colour, by
pulses also or beating of the arteries.
Holland. Plutarch, fol. 257.

M. Haddon was fallie of M. Peters opinion, and said, "That
the best scholemaster of our time was the greatest beater," and
named the person (sc. Nic. Udall, Master of Eton College).
Archem. Scholemaster.

One portion of informing fire was given
To brutes, th' inferior family of Heaven;
The smoth divine, as with a careless heat,
Struck out the smoth creation at a heat.
Dryden. The Hind and Panther, pt. 1.

Being resolved to repay merit more than any thing else in
the persons who made their applications to her, she married a
Captain of dragoons who happened to be beating up for recruits in
those parts.
Spectator, No. CCCLX.

God knows, I knew nothing of sea-business; he beat me with-
out considering what he was about.
Goldsmith. Citizen of the World.

I remember, that once laying a-bed, and having been put into
a fright, I heard my own heart beat; but I took it to be one
knocking at the door, and arose and opened the door after that
once, before I discovered that the sound was in my own breast.
Reid. Enquiry into the Human Mind, c. iv. sec. 1.

There is also one species of battery, more atrocious and penal
than the rest, which is the beating of a Clerk in orders, or Clergy
man; on account of the respect and reverence due to his sacred
character, as the minister and ambassador of peace.
Blackstone. Commentaries, iv. 216.

BE'ATH. "Besting or bathing word by the fire.
Setting or straitening unseasoned wood by heat. Norf.
and Suff." *Grave. A.S. beathian bathian*; to bathe.

And in his hand a tall yewen oak he bore,
Whose knotty snags were sharpened all round,
And beat'd it in fire for steele, to be lasted.
Spranger. Fanny Queens, book iv. c. 7.

BE'ATIFY, } From beo, beatus and fo. Beo,
BEATIFY, } says Vossius, may be deduced from
BEATIFY, } *Beio, id est, Beo. Thus, beo, will be*
BEATIFY, } *facio ut res est, sine procedat; I so*
BEATIFY, } *act, that the matter may go on, or*
BE'ATITUDE, } *proceed; i. e. succeed, or go well.*
To make, or cause to be, blissed or blessed; happy
to bring into a state of happiness or felicity.

Christie on the mountayne taught the perfectiouning of the lawe,
whan he pronounced those strange beattitudes neuer afore heard of.
Udall. Luke, c. xxiv. fol. 167.

If at a conuersion of a sinner there is joy, be the beattified
spirits, the angels of God, and that is the consummation of our
pardon and our consignment to felicity, then we may imagine how
great an evil it is to grieve the spirit of God, who is greater than
the Angels.
Taylor. Sermon vii. v. 1.

We shall know him to be the fullest God, the nearest to us,
and the most certain. And consequently, the most beattifying of
all others.
Grave. Cosmologia Serre, 118.

As the saints and angels in their state of beattifye choice cannot
chuse but love God; and yet the liberty of their choice is not
lessen'd; because the object fills all the capacities of the will
and the understanding.
Taylor. Sermon i. v. 2.

BEAT.
BEATIFY

BEATIFY.
BEAU.

In midst of this city celestial,
Where the eternal temple should have rose,
Light and th' idea beatified
End, and beginning of each thing that grows.
George Fletcher. Christ's Triumph after Death.

Beatifically to behold the face of God, is the fulness of wisdom, righteousness and power, is a blessedness I confuse no way incident into the creature beneath man.

Hobbes. Apol. fol. 495.

It is the duty of Christian piety to chase the end of a Christian, that which is perfective of a man, satisfactory to reason, the rest of a Christian, and the beatification of his spirit.

Taylor. Sermon xx.

What fulness of beatitude is here?
What love with mercy mixed doth appear?
To style us friends, who were by nature foes?
Adopt us heirs, by grace, who were of those
Had lost ourselves!

Ben Jonson. An Epitaph on my Muse.

Above him all the sanctities of heaven
Stood thick as stars, and from his sight receiv'd
Beatitude past utterance.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book iii.

To have the light of his countenance shining upon us, and by it to behold his special love and kindness to us, his pleasure and delight in us, and shewing himself to be reconciled to us, and well-pleased with us; this is that blessed sight, which we call the beatific vision, the sight that fills the soul with love, and light, and joy, and bliss, and happiness, as full as ever it can hold
Beveridge. Sermon cxxiii.

To the love of God, to charity toward our neighbour, to purity of heart, to meekness, to humility, to patience, to mercifulness, to peaceableness, beatitude is ascribed by our Lord (the great Judge and Dispenser of it). *Bertram. Sermon lii. v. l.*

BEAU, } From the Fr. *beau*, good. In G.
BEAUM, } Douglas, *beau* *schyris*, is good sirs. In
BEAUMIER. } Gower, *beau* *restraint*, is a good restraint.
A *beau* (bellies home, of Martial) is a good, smart, pretty dresser; one who decks himself prettily, smartly, gaily, according to the fashion of the times. The pl. *beaux* is perhaps corrupted into *bucks*, by English pronunciation.

My berie wolds, and I on male,
Is sought beloved now a dimes,
Er thou make any such amaine,
To lose, and fall vpon thy fete,
Better is to make *beau*-restraint.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii.

Sir Clondely Shore's monument has very often given me great offence: instead of the brave rough English Admiral, which was the distinguishing character of that gallant man, he is represented on his tomb by the figure of a *beau*, dress'd in a long periwinkle, and reposing himself upon velvet cushions under a canopy of state.
Spectator, No. xxvii.

You laugh not, gallants, as by proof appears,
At what his *beauship* says, but what he wears;
So 'tis your eyes are tickled, not your ears.
Dryden. Preface to the Husband and his own Curlew.

Just at that time of life, when man by rule,
The top laid down, takes up the prayer fool,
He started up a fair, and, fumed of show,
Look'd like another Hercules turn'd *beau*.
Churchill. Independence.

Pearce to the *beaux*, and every scented bell,
Who cry "Tobacco has an odious smell."
Pamphlet. The Smoking Doctor's Soliloquy.

A patient in Bedlam that did pretty well,
Was permitted sometimes to go out of his cell:
One day, when they gave him that freedom, he spy'd
A beauship young spark with a sword by his side.
Dryden. The Duke and the Belvidere.

VOL. XVIII.

BEAU-
CAIRE.
BEAVER.

BEAUCAIRE, is a well built and populous trading town in the south of France, in Lower Languedoc, standing on the right bank of the Rhone. It has a communication with Tarascon, on the opposite bank, by a bridge of boats, and is only about seven leagues from the Mediterranean. The Rhone admits vessels of considerable size as far as this town. Prior to the Revolution, Beaucaire was included in the bishopric of Nismes, but it is now one of the chief towns in the department of Gard. It was formerly much noted for its great annual fair, held on the 22nd of July, and the five following days; at which not only merchants and manufacturers from other parts of France, but from many other countries of Europe, as well as Turkey, and the Levant, assembled in large numbers. As the town was not capable of accommodating the vast concourse of people that resorted thither on these occasions, booths and other temporary erections covered the adjacent plain, and guards were appointed to protect the merchandize, not only in the fair itself, but while it was conveyed to distant parts. The depredations which took place in these times, were greatly facilitated by the vicinity of the Papal territory of Avignon, in which the offenders readily found an asylum. The vast supplies of goods, of late years, at Marseilles, Lyons, and other parts of southern France have greatly diminished the extent and interest of this annual fair. The chief trade peculiar to the town is at present in silk, wine, oil, almonds, spices, drugs, leather, wool, and cotton. The population of Beaucaire is stated at 8500. It stands about twelve miles east of Nismes. Latitude 43° 48' north, and longitude 4° 43' east.

BEAVER, A. S. *befer*; Dutch *bever*; Ger. *biber*. A word, says Wachter, common to most languages, and by the consent of all from the Lat. *fibex*; because it inhabits the edges (*fibrum* from *finis*) of the water.

Nor is the provident industry of animals confined to insects, since it is to be found in divers of the greater animals, particularly in beavers.
Boyle. Natural History, vol. v. p. 431.

Naturalists assure us, that all animals are susceptible in proportion as they are removed from the tyranny of others; in ositive liberty, the elephant is a citizen, and the beaver an architect.
Goldsmith. Enquiry into Present State of Learning, ch. ii.

BEAVER, made of the skin of the animal, the Beaver.

When in a mantle, and a beaver hat
With cups and clapper wonder privately
He opened a secret gate and out thereat
Conveyed her, that no man should espie.
Chaucer. The Testament of Criseide, fol. 196.

And yet under that cope, a cote hath he furrd
With foyes, or with schewes, other fye beure.
Piers Pluckian. Cyde fill.

Among the Frenchmen were certeyn light-harounes called Sardices, with short sturppes, beaver hats, small speeres and swordes like semestaries of Turkey.
Hall. King Henry VIII. fol. 28.

I have sent you by Vacandary the post, the French *beaver* and twosces you writ for: *beaver*-hats are grown dearer of late, because the Jesuits have got the monopoly of them from the king.
Hesvill. Letter xvii. book i. sec. i.

His beaver brush'd, his shoes, and gown,
Away be trugges into town.

Swift. An Apology.

I was surprised at all this civility, and knew not to what I might ascribe it, except to my bright beaver and abiding scarf that were new that day.
Tetter, No. 259.

BEAVER.

BEAU-
LIEU.

BEAVER, } Fr. *bièvre*; It. *bièvre*; Sp. *beaver*,
BEAVER, } from *beaver*. Menage. The It. *beaver*,
Fr. *bère*, are, foam, alver. *Beviere* (says Coignac) is
the sis, mocket or mocketer to put before the bosom
of a (slavering) child. So that *beviere* or *beaver* is

That part of the helmet, which lets down to enable
the wearer to drink; and is so exposed to catch the
drops or dribblings. By Shakespeare and others it is
quite oppositely applied.

His life his fashion with a threatening grace,
And hews the beer off from Howard's face.

Sir J. Beaumont. *Beaumont Field.*

The Duke of Herford was quickly horsed and closed his
hazier and cast his spear into the rest & when the trumpet sounded,
set forward courageously toward his enemy, vi or vii paces.

Mell. *King Henry IV.* fol. 4.

For immediately, you should not have seen once all the camps,
one man idle and doing nothing: none fall to wreat and sharpen
their swords; others busied about their head pieces, buffes and
banners.

Holland. *Livins*, fol. 1192.

When lo! a spectre rose, whose index hand
Held forth by virtue of the dreadful wand;
His beaver'd brow a bickren gurdant wears,
Drooping with infant's blood, and mother's tears.

Pope. *The Dunciad.*

BEAVER, in Zoology, the vulgar name of the *Castor*
Fiber. See *CASTOR*.

BEAUFORT, a seaport and port town in South
Carolin, United States of America. It stands on Port
Royal Island, near the mouth of the Coosawhatchie,
and about sixty miles north-east of Savannah. It is a
pleasant healthy town, with a good harbour and about
1000 inhabitants, but not much commerce. Beaufort
contains three places of public worship, and a well
endowed seminary, which has been incorporated as a
college. The courts of the district were formerly held
here, but they have now been removed to Coosawhatchie.

BEAUFORT EN VALLEE, a town of France, in the
department of Maine and Loire, with about 6000 in-
habitants. It has manufactures of linen, woollen, and
hats, besides a good trade in gralo, wine, and hemp;
and is about forty miles west of Tours.

BEAUFORTIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class
Polypetalis, order *Icosandria*. Generic character:
five groups of stamina, opposite to the petals; antherum
inserted into the base; bifid at the apex, lobes decli-
uous; capsule trilobular one-seeded, connate, in-
cluded to the thickened tube of the calyx adnate at the
base.

This genus contains two species, natives of New
Holland.

BEAUGENCY, a town of France, in the depart-
ment of Loiret, which had formerly the title of a
county. It stands on the right bank of the Loire, over
which there is a handsome stone bridge. Beaugency
is now the head of a canton, and has about 5000 in-
habitants, with a considerable trade in wine and brandy,
produced in the surrounding country. There are also
manufactures of woollen stuffs, and several tanneries.
It is about fifteen miles south-west of Orleans; latitude
47° 46' north, and longitude 1° 43' east.

BEAULIEU, a village in Hampshire, in which are
the remains of a Cistercian Abbey founded by King
John in 1204. Its walls afforded an asylum to Margaret
the Queen of Henry VI. after the Battle of Barnet. A
less illustrious fugitive, Perkin Warbeck, was protected
by them in later times; and their sanctity was so far
respected, that though surrounded by an armed force,

his person was inviolate, till he voluntarily surren-
dered himself.

BEAUMARIS or BEAUMARSH, the county town of
the Isle of Anglesey, is situated on the river Menni,
and as the name (Fr. *beau marais*) implies, on low land
near the water's edge. Edward I. surrounded it with a
wall, made it a corporation and built in it a strong castle
in 1295; which, however, has much less claim to beauty
than the structures by the same hand at Caernarvon and
Conway. It was garrisoned for the King in the Civil
Wars of the Commonwealth, but was captured by an
overwhelming force. It is now in ruins. Beaumaris
returns one member to Parliament. It is distant 241
miles north-west from London, and 59 west by north
from Chester. The population in 1821 was 2205. The
Bay affords a safe anchorage of six or seven fathom
water. A bridge on the principle of suspension is now
constructing over the strait.

In the year 1810, the House of Commons appointed
a Select Committee "to inquire into the state of the
Roads from Holyhead to London; into the Regulations
for the conveyance of his Majesty's mail between
London and Dublin; and also into the Laws and Re-
gulations relating to the conveyance of passengers,
goods, and merchandise, between Dublin and Holy-
head." This Committee, having sat at different times,
has made several Reports, in which it has recom-
mended various measures for improving the roads in
this great line of communication, many of which are
now in progress. But, in regard to expedition, it would
have been of little avail to have improved the roads,
without remedying the delay, the inconvenience, and
the danger, frequently experienced in crossing the
Menai Strait, which separates the Isle of Anglesey from
Caernarvonshire.

In the years 1810 and 1811, several plans of bridges
were proposed for effecting a regular and unobstructed
passage, in the place of the present ferry at Bangor.
All these bridges were to be of cast iron, and of suf-
ficient width of span and height of elevation not to
obstruct the navigation. Among those approved by
the Committee of the House of Commons, after due
investigation, was one of a single arch, of cast iron,
of 500 feet span, and 100 feet above the level of high-
water in the middle of the arch, projected by Mr.
Telford. Although the least expensive of any cast iron
bridge of those dimensions, the estimated cost of this
bridge was upwards of £127,000. But the construction
of such a bridge presented a great difficulty in the
fixing of proper centering, which could not be accom-
plished by ordinary means from below, owing to the
rocky bottom of the channel, and the depth and rap-
idity of the tide-way. Mr. Telford was, therefore, led
to devise a new mode of suspending the centering from
above, and furnished a design for this purpose.

In 1814, he was applied to for a design for a bridge
to cross the river Mersey at Runcorn, in Cheshire,
where it was necessary to preserve an uninterrupted
water-way of one thousand feet; when a bridge upon
the principle of suspension occurred to him as the only
practicable means; and, with that view, he instituted
a regular set of experiments upon rods of malleable
iron, viz. from thirty to nine hundred feet in length,
and from one-twentieth of an inch to two inches in
diameter, and these both in regard to elementary parts,
and also when combined, partly by welding, and
partly by jointing in a model. From the result of these

BEAU-
LIEU.BEAU-
MARIS.

BEAUMARIS.

experiments, there was reason to conclude that, by means of malleable iron, properly combined, a substantial hanging-bridge, with a clear water-way of one thousand feet, might be constructed; and Mr. Telford accordingly gave to the Runcorn Bridge Committee a design for that purpose.

The facility and economy with which a bridge of this kind may be constructed, where the shores are bold and high, led Mr. Telford to consider it as peculiarly well adapted for crossing the Menai Strait, a little to the westward of Bangor Ferry. He therefore drew a plan upon this principle, for the consideration of the Commissioners for the improvement of the Holyhead road. The Report of the Commissioners being made to Parliament, and the necessary funds being granted, in July 1818 directions were given for the commencement of the work, at a place called Ynys-y-moch, on the Anglesey shore.

The iron hanging-bridge to be constructed over the Menai Strait, is to consist of one opening of 500 feet between the points of suspension, and 100 feet in height between the high-water line and the lower side of the road-way; and the road-way being horizontal, this height is uninterrupted for the whole 500 feet, except where the natural rock, which forms the western abutment, now interposes. But, in addition to these 500 feet, there are to be four arches on the western, and three on the eastern side of the main opening, each fifty feet in span, that is, making in all 850 feet of opening.

The road-way will consist of two carriage-ways, each twelve feet in breadth, with a foot-path of four feet between them, so that the platform will be about thirty feet in breadth. The whole is to be suspended from four lines of strong iron cables by perpendicular iron rods, placed five feet apart, and these rods will support the road-way framing. The suspending power is calculated at 3016 tons, and the weight to be suspended, exclusive of the cables, is 349 tons, leaving a disposable power of 1674 tons. The four sides of the road-ways will be made of framed iron-work, firmly bound together for seven feet in height, and there will be similar work, for five feet in depth below the cables. The weight of the whole bridge between the points of suspension will be 499 tons.

It is calculated that the contraction and expansion of the iron cables may occasion a rise or fall to the extent of four or five inches; but the variations of the temperature of the atmosphere will not derange the bridge.

The abutments will consist of masonry-work; each of the two piers will be 60 feet by 42½ wide of high-water mark, having a foundation of rock. These piers, when connected with the whole of the remainder of the masonry, will form a mass constructed with blocks of hard lime-stone, of much greater weight than is necessary for supporting a bridge of this kind. Upon the summit of the two main piers will be erected a frame of cast iron, of a pyramidal form, for the purpose of raising the cables from which the bridge is to be suspended. As the cables will be carried from the top of the pyramids so as to form nearly similar angles on each side, the pressure will be almost perpendicular.

Mr. Telford proposes to have four lines of suspension in the breadth of the bridge, by which means the cables will be disposed in such a manner as to divide it (as before stated) into two carriage-ways of twelve feet each, with a foot-way of four feet in the centre. Along each line there will be four cables, making in

the whole sixteen; these cables will pass over rollers fixed on the summits of the pyramids, and will be fastened at their extremities to an iron frame, lying horizontally over the top of the small arches, and under a mass of masonry. From these cables the road-way will be suspended by vertical iron rods, connected at their lower extremities with wrought iron bars, both transversely and longitudinally, thus forming a frame on which timber will be laid for the road-way. The distance of five feet is kept between the rods, in order that the suspending power may be equally distributed throughout the whole length of the bridge. The suspending rods will pass between the cables, and depend upon each two of them, so that the general strength of the bridge could not materially be affected by taking one away. The cables and the flooring, as well as the suspending rods, will be constructed and united in such a manner, that each of the parts may be taken out and replaced separately; so that there can be no difficulty in repairing any part of the bridge, whenever required. A temporary wire-bridge will be made from one abutment to the other, in order to carry over the cables, and arrange the several parts of the bridge while building.

The estimated expense of the bridge now in progress is £70,000. The foundation of the abutments on both shores is on solid rock. The stone, of which the masonry of the piers will be constructed, is procured in the north-east end of the Isle of Anglesey, from the estate of Lord Bulkeley, where the cliffs are nearly one hundred feet high. It is fine grey marble, perfectly solid, and in large masses, lying in a very convenient situation close to the seashore, from which it is loaded into vessels, and carried through Beaumaris Bay to that part of the Menai Strait where the bridge is erecting.

BEAUNE, or BEAULNE, a town of France, in Burgundy, and now included in the department of Côte d'Or. In former times this was the third town in Burgundy, the capital of the district of Beaunais, the seat of a governor and other functionaries. It is fortified, defended by a castle, and has between nine and ten thousand inhabitants. It stands in a pleasant country, on the right bank of the river Bourgoise, not far from the Saône, and is particularly noted for its wines. It is about twenty miles south-south-west from Dijon; latitude 47° 5' north, longitude 4° 54' east.

BEAUPERS, from *beau* and *peer*, *peer*, or *fer*, (see *Fras*), companion, associate. A good companion, or friend.

*Ignor'd late so high a favour, there
The saints, with their *beau-pers*, whole worlds outwear;
And things unseen do see, and things unheard do hear.*
G. Fletcher. *Christ's Triumph after Death.*

BEAUTY, v.

BEAUTY, n.

BEAUTROUS,

BEAUTROUSLY,

BEAUTROUSNESS,

BEAUTIFUL,

BEAUTIFULLY,

BEAUTIFULNESS,

BEAUTIFULNESS,

BEAUTIFULNESS,

BEAUTIFULNESS,

BEAUTIFULNESS,

BEAUTIFULNESS.

BEAUTIFULNESS.

*Fr. beauté, beau; It bello;
Lat. bellus, from *benus*, from
the ancient *benus*; i. e. *bonus*;
Itself of uncertain etymology.
Beauty is a term of most extensive application.*

1. To those qualities or objects, which are agreeable or pleasing to the senses, particularly to the eye and ear; as colour, form, and motion; and the various combinations of them;—to sounds, and their combinations.

BEAUTY.
—
BEAUTY.

BEAUTY. 2. To the intellectual and moral qualities of man ; and to the productions of the human mind.

*I may you not derive all hire beauty ;
But thus much of hire beauty tell I may,
That she was like the bright morning of May
Fulfilled of all beauty, and pleasure.*

Chaucer. The Merchant's Tale, v. 5619.

*But so good looks as his he took,
That hym he thought under the heaves,
Of beauty might he never have seen,
With all that stile to womanhood.*

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 102.

He [Juba Picon] was of stature and shape comely, and beauteous, of stature goodly, and high.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 2.

For he feared to call her his wife, lest the men of the place should have killed him for her sake, because she was beautiful to his eye.

Bible, 1551. Genesis, chap. 26.

After the death of this noble prince, and valiant captain, the bright man that commonly shone in France, fell and beautifully upon the Englishmen, began to be cloudy, and daily to waxe darker.

Hall. King Henry VII. fol. 130.

God looketh not first on thy works as the world doth, as though the beautyfulness of the works pleased him, as it doth the world, or as though he had need of them.

Tyndall's Works, fol. 85.

The story of Daniel is a testimony of the preservation of the church devoted with great glory, even then when it seemeth almost extinct and destroyed.

Jay. The Exposition of Daniel. The Argument.

Though another of the same occupation put his hands to the bettering and perfecting of it, yet is not this so doing any displeasure, nor cause of grudge to the other ; but rather a beautifying of his doing, & a cause of rendering thanks to his party.

Udell. Preface to the Reader.

— A poor petitioner,

*A care-crowd mother to a many sonnes,
A braiter-wailing, and distressed widow,
Even in the after-noone of her best dayes,
Made prize and purchase of his wonten eye.*

Shakespeare. Richard III. fol. 192.

How smart a lash that speech doth give my conscience ?

*That harlot's cheek, beautied with plastring art
Is not more voy to the thing that keeps it,
Than is my deceit, to my most painted word.*

Id. Hamlet, act ii. scene 2. fol. 265.

What then will it avail ?

Of youth advised ill,

In lap of beauty fall

To nurse a wayward will.

Daniel. A Description of Beauty.

Thou blind fool, Love, what dost thou to mine eyes,

That they behold, and see not what they see ?

They know what beauty is, see where it lies,

Yet what the best is, take the worst to be.

Shakespeare. Sonnet, 137.

Fair is the lily ; fair

The rose ; of fawn's the eye !

Both wither in the air,

Their tenuous colours die.

Daniel. A Description of Beauty.

A man bears the precepts of God labelling us to give alms of all we possess ; he readily obeys with much cheerfulness, and alacrity, and his charity like a fair spreading tree, looks heartily.

Taylor. Sermon vii.

For from less virtue and less benevolence

The Gentiles fram'd them gods and goddesses.

Donne. Elegie. Death.

The Pantheon, like unto a round region supported with arches, works right beautifully, of a great height.

Helland. Amicus, fol. 64.

He gave carriage again to all that wanted, and restored their armour to the former beautyfulness, and excellency.

Breide. Quintus Curtius, fol. 285.

If you speak of the church, as it is a communion and societic of the faithful and elect only : and of the government thereof, as it is civilly established, then it is a matter of certainty, that the church is as thoroughly established, as perfectly governed, as gloriously decked and beautified in the type of persecution, as it is or can be under the civil magistrate.

Whitely. Defence, fol. 181.

He trimmed it besides, and furnished it with the spoils of the enemies, whereof there was such store and abundance, that not only the forepart Temple and the market-place were therewith set out and bravely decked, but they were distributed abroad, to their allies also and collectors, near inhabitants, for the decoration and beautifying of their churches and publick places.

Holland. Livon, fol. 287.

The Barabba becomes a Barabba indeed, according to the origination of the name, a son of a fisher, a beloved son in whom they are well pleased, a chosen vessel of their honors, and Christ the only refuse vessel of dishonour, the only unsuitable, undesirable, formless, beautiful reprobate in the mass.

Hammond's Works, v. iv. Sermon vii.

Beauty is an over-weening self-sufficient thing, careless of providing itself any more substantial ornaments ; nay, so little does it consult its own interests, that it too often deludes itself, by betraying that innocence which renders it lovely and desirable.

Spectator, No. cccc.

In Ida's shady vale a bull appeared,

White as the snow, the fairest of the herd ;

A beauty-spot of black there only rose,

Between his equal horns and ample brows.

Dryden. Ode to the Art of Love.

The Britannick beautifier, being an Essay on Modesty, No. 321, which gives such a delightful blushing colour to the cheeks of those that are white or pale, that it is not to be distinguished from a natural fine complexion, nor perceived to be artificial by the nearest friend.

Spectator, No. 321.

It is in this taste that the scenery is so beautifully ordered in the description which Antony makes, in the dialogue between him and Dolabella, of Cleopatra in her barge.

Id. No. cccc.

This water has a peculiar virtue in it, which makes it the only true comestible or beauty-wash in the world. The nature of it is such, that if you go to a glass, with a design to admire your face, it immediately changes it into downright deformity.

Tatler, No. 34.

Where's all the young, the valiant, and the gay,

That on her festivals were wont to play

Harmless tunes, and beautify the day ?

Pope. Eleazar's Lamentation over Jerusalem.

In like manner, I have heard it observed by thoughtful people, that there are a few women possessed of beauty, in comparison of those who want it ; not considering, that we bestow the epithet of beautiful only on such as possess a degree of beauty that is common to them with a few.

Horace. Essay xi.

As beauteous Trees, and wealth-importing Thames,

Flow each the envy of their country's streams ;

So, loveliest of her sex, my heavenly maid

Appears, and all thy fainter glories fade.

Blacklock. Pastoral. Desiderium Letitiae.

The whole coast is beautifully diversified by the contiguous or detached villas that are spread upon it, which, whether you view them from the sea or the shore, have the appearance of so many different cities.

Meinhold. Play. Letter xvii. book ii.

Your letter informs me, that you have erected a noble publick portico, as a memorial of yourself and your son ; and that, the next day after the ceremony of opening it, you engaged to repair and beautify the gates of our city at your charge.

Id. Letter xii. book v.

BEAUVAIS, the ancient Bellerocum, a well built commercial town of France, in the department of the Oise. It was formerly the capital of Beauvaisis, and is a fortified town, though commanded by heights from almost every quarter. It is situated on the river Therin, and is a populous commercial place, containing about 12,600 inhabitants. It has several flourishing manufactures of linen and woollen cloth, with others of calicos, serges, and fine tapestry.

BEAUTY.
—
BEAU-VAIS.

BEAU-
VAIS.
—
BEBLED.

The Cathedral is an elegant structure, and its choir is of extraordinary elevation. There are also three Abbey churches, six collegiate, and three parochial churches. Before the Revolution, Beauvais was the see of a Bishop, who was the first of the three ecclesiastical Counts and Peers of France. At the coronation of the King, he carried the royal mantle. This Bishopric, however, was suppressed at the Revolution. Beauvais was evidently a strong place in former ages, from its having successfully resisted several severe sieges. The English invested it in 1443, without accomplishing their purpose: the same result also followed the siege of the Duke of Burgundy in 1472, though he invested the place with 80,000 men. On the latter occasion, the women of the town gave a signal instance of heroic courage, by sallying out against the besiegers, headed by Jeanne Laine. From its impregnability, it has obtained the appellation of *La Pucelle*. Many eminent men have been born at Beauvais. It is about six leagues from Paris, in latitude 49° 25' north, and longitude 2° 19' east.

BE-BATHE. A. S. *beathan*. *Bebathed*, lotus, washed, bathed. Sommer.

Every one with a dagger in their hand, (which dagger they call a *crise*, and is as sharp as a razor) stabs themselves in the heart, and with their hands *be-bath* themselves in their own blood, and falling groveling on their faces so ends their days.

Melney. Voyages. Thomas Corcoran, v. iii. fol. 822.

BEBLAST. *Blast* and the prefix *be*. A. S. *blestan*, to snuff, or puff. Sommer. Dutch *blazen*; Ger. *blazen*.

To blow, to strike or beat against with the suddenness, awitness, and violence of the wind; of a whirlwind; to wither, to parch up.

O heavenly foe, are both thine eyes *beblast*?
Canst thou not see? look ye (what man?) God send thee,
Looks at those lawyers how they purchase fast,
Macke wot these merchants (better made God send thee.)

Gauguin. The Fruits of Warre.

BEBLED. } Covered with blood. A. S. *bledan*,
BESLOON. } to bleed, and the prefix *be*.

Ther saw I first the derke imagining
Of schisme, and alle the compassing;

The open warre, with woundes all *bebled*.

Chaucer. The Knightes Tale, v. 2004.

—All was tounred into blood.
The diske forth with the cuppe and all
Bebled ther werre our all.

Gower. Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 31.

Wel may that lord be called delitable and a fructuous lord,
that was *bebled* and martyred with the precious blood of our Lord
Jesu Crist. *Sir J. Mowdeville. Translations. Froissart, iv.*

He drew his sword at last, and gave the tree

A mighty blow, that made a gaping wound,

Out of the rift red streamers he trickling saw

That all *bebled* the verdant plain around.

Fairfax. Godfrey of Bulloigne, book xiii. st. 41.

The daughter of Julius Cæsar, which was married unto Pompey the Great, when one brought upon a time home out of the field a coat of her husband's *bebled*, shee suspecting that her husband had bene wounded, fell to the ground into a swooning, and almost dead.

Piers. Instruction of Christ. Women, book ii. ch. iv.

Yet after the death of this wicked malefactor, the simple people honored him as a martyr, inasmuch that they strowe away the gibbet whereon he was hang'd, and pared away the earth, that was *bebled* with his blood, and kept the same as holy reliques to heale sicke men.

Stowe. Ann. 1196. Richard I.

And when Antonius also did show them his gown all *bebled*, cut, and thrust through with swords, then they were like madmen for anger, and sought up and down the market-place if they could meet with any of them that had slain him.

North. Plutarch, fol. 727.

BEBLIND. *Blind*, *blin'd*, formed from the past participle of the old English verb, to *blin*, (A. S. *blinnan*) to stop.

To stop; viz. the sense of sight;—the understanding, or senses generally.

Teenece was wise which taught by Pamphilus,

How courage quails where lone *beblinds* the sense,

Though proofe of losses makes *lowers* quarrelous,

Yet small excess avails lone for last defence.

Gauguin. Den Bartholomæus of Eastie.

BEBLISTER. *Blister*, and the prefix *be*. Dutch, *bluysteren*, *bluyster*. Perhaps, says Skinner, from our *blast*, (q. d.) *cutis inflata*. A blowing, or puffing up of the skin.

Or if you will rather *beblister* your hands with a nettle, then comfort your senses by succelling in the pleasant *marionum*, then *varice* is your pasture, and small will be your profit.

Gauguin. To the Youth of England.

BEBLOT. *Blot* and the prefix *be*. *Be-hlod*, *be-hlot*, is the regular past tense, and past participle of *be-hlidan*, to cover. A *be-hlot* or *blot* upon any thing extends just as far as that thing is covered, and no farther. Tooke, ii. 196.

Beblotte it with thy teares eke site

And if thou write a poorly worde all soft,

Though it be good, *beblotte* it not oft.

Chaucer. Triclin and Crerode, book ii. fol. 143.

No might could move my mind to any wrong;

Which might *beblot* the glory of my name;

For so I thought, to live in honour long,

And far excell all other men of fame.

North. Plutarch, fol. 72.

BEBLUBBER. To *blubber*, is to cover with *blubs* or *blubs*. (See *BLUB*.) Which Skinner thinks may be from the Ger. *blæen*, to swell.

He would be first man in the market-place, apparelled all in black, his face *beblubbered* with tears, and looking heavily upon the matter, praying the people assembled to have compassion upon him, saying, that he was afraid lest his enemies would come in the night, and overthrow his house to kill him.

North. Plutarch, fol. 688.

BECALM. } *Calm* and the prefix *be*. Dutch
BECALMING. } *kalm*; Fr. *calme*; It. and Sp. *calmo*.
I believe, says Menage, from *calmus*; and *calmus* he deduces from the Greek, *Μαλακία*. *Le Origini Ital.* To *becalm*, is to make or cause to be calm.

Fr. *calme*, still, quiet, peaceable, fair, gentle, unmoved, without storm, without surges. Cotgrave.

Thy trouble turn'd me to a quiet life,

My common weale did prosper passing well.

When all the world agreed like *diets* in hell,

Then I and mine *becalm'd* from hartsils blast

In gaffrey harboured were at last.

Mir. for Mag. fol. 156.

Compar'd with me, wert thou but half so kind,

Thy slight should stuff thy sails, tho' wanting wind;

But thy breast is *bealm'd*, thy sighs be slack,

And mine, too stiff, do blow thy brand sails back.

Drayton. England's Heroical Epistles.

And see the sea *becalm'd* behind

Not criep'd with any breeze of wind;

The tempest has forsook the waves,

And on the land begins his brave.

Cotton. Winter.

BECAUSE. These small shippes, accompanied with the coterion, sailing along the coast of Spain, were upon Easter-day in the Stright of Gibraltar suddenly tossed, where immediately they saw sundry gallies make towards them, in very valiant and courageous sort.
Mohaght. Voyages. Fight with Spanish Galleys, l. fol. 106.

In the slight my heart need needs repine
And storm with sighs, to ease me as I may,
Whilst others are *beaten'd*, or lie them still
Or sail secure, with tide and wind at will.
Thomas Watson in Ellis, v. 2. p. 308.

They are *beaten'd* in the clearest days,
And in rough weather too,
They wicker under cold delays,
And are in tempest too.
Sir Charles Sedley in Ellis, v. 3. p. 391.

But now 'tis o'er, the dear delusion's o'er!
A stagnant breezeless air *beats* my soul,
A faint inspiring candidate no more,
I scorn the pulse, before I reach the goal.
Shenstone. Epigr. to Mr. Jago.

BECAUSE, written *bicas*, *bicause*, *bycause*; *be* and *cause*. *Cause* being; there being *cause*: because of his sickness; his sickness being the *cause*. *Because* we earn before we eat; we earn before we eat being the *cause* why our food is so very sweet.

His squelers, which that stodon their headle,
Excused him, *because* of his sickness,
Which letted him to don his business.
Chaucer. The Merchant's Tale, v. 2776.

— *Triptolemus,*
His *cause* goth amongst vs,
And smelteth the corn good chepe or dere;
Right as his list from yere to yere.
So that this wife *because* of this,
Goddess of corn clep is.
Geoff. Cruf. Am. book v. fol. 90.

God persecuteth vs, *because* we abuse his holy Testament, and *because* when we know the truth, we follow it not.
Tyndall's Works, fol. 7.

She that looketh towards marriage, is not therfor condemned *because* she would marry, but *because* she hath refused it more by an ingdoly promise.
Bales. Apology, p. 58.

When a man is holy, then God is gracious, and a holy life is the best, and is a continual prayer; and repentance is the best argument to move God to mercy, *because* it is the instrument to unite our prayers to the intercession of the Holy Jesus.
Taylor. Sermon iv. l.

Aristotle saith, that young men are not fit hearers of moral doctrine; *because* (saith he) they are unexperienced in affairs of life; and *because* they are apt to follow their passions, which indispose to hear with fruit or profit; but his conclusion is false, and his reason may be well turned against him; for *because* young men want experience, therefore is there an bad prejudice, no contrary habit to obstruct their embracing sound doctrine; *because* their passions are violent and strong, therefore being rightly ordered, and set upon good objects they with great force will carry them to virtuous practice.
Barnes. Sermon xvii. v. 3.

Why is our food so very sweet?
Because we earn before we eat.
Why are our wants so very few?
Because we Nature's calls pursue.
Whence our complacency of mind?
Because we act our parts assign'd?
Cotton. Fable l.

BECCABUNGA, the name of a species of Verouica.
BECHA'NCE, v. } *Be* and *chance*. *Chaucer, re-*
BECHA'NCE, o. } *chance*; past part. of *catcher*,
cheor; and these from *cadere*, to fall, to happen.

And if they be good, there is perpetual care, least they should dye, or some harme *bechance* them.
Piers. Instruction of Christian Woman, c. xi.

And yet we have witnessed them till at the last battayle of Branton, where we *bechance* lost our sovereigne herde, and many noble men.
Griffin. Henry VIII. 14 yers

Disturb his hours of rest with restless trances,
Afflict him in his bed with bed-sid grones;
Let there *bechance* him pitifull mischances,
To make him moan, but pity not his moans.
Shakespeare. Rape of Lucrece.

BECHARM. *Be* and *charm*. *Fr. charmes, charme*; *It. ciarmare, ciarma*; (all from the Latin *carmen*, l. e. *magical carmen*;) to chant, to incant.

Cas. Anthon, by my shame observe
What a close witchcraft popular applause is
I am aw'd, and with clear eyes behold
The lethargy wherein my reason long
Hath been *be-charm'd*.

Becharm and Fitcher. The Lances of Condy, act v. sc. l.
BECK, v. } *Beck, becker*, to nod to, to give a
BECK, n. } sign or signal. A. S. *becon*, *becon*, is
BE'CRING. } a sign or signal. V. *BEACON*.
A. S. *beconian* is to nod to; to shew, point out, or indicate by a nod. *Junius*. Also by a similar motion of the hand or finger.

With that he gun her humbly nake
With dreadfull chere, and with his bowes moe
And vp his lake deloniously be cast
And *beck'd* on Pandore, and forth by past.
Chaucer. Troilus and Criseyde, book ii. fol. 164.

Than print I me to stretchen forth my necke,
And cut and went upon the peple I *beck*,
As doth a dove, sitting upon a berris.
Id. The Pardons Tale, v. 12329.

Id. The Pardons Tale, v. 12329.
From the bright shies the ruler of the globe
Sent me to thee, that with his *beck* commaundes
Both heven and earth.
Surrey. Plegies. Maner, book iv.

What helpeth it him that the priest wot he goeth to masse dispo-
sith himself with a great part of the passion of Christ, and
playeth out the rest under silence with grace and profeer, with
noddynge, *beckynge*, and mowynge as it were jucke an ape.
Tyndall's Works, fol. 132.

We do profoundly consider that the perfection of Christian living
doth not consist in some ceremonies, wearing of a white coat,
disguising ourselves after strange fashion, duckyng and *beckynge*.
Barnet, Acc. l. part. ii.

Then I was crowned Queene this realm to hold,
Till five yeres past I did this island guide;
I had the Brittaines at what *becke* I would,
Till that my loving Kiege, mine Agamemnon side.
Mist. for Mag. 64.

These rocks spruaght, that threatened most our wreck,
We need to saile much surer in the streame;
And fortune faring as she were at *becke*.
Laid in our lap the rule of all this realm.
Id. 438.

He with a nod send'd the world to direct:
Who's he but bow'd, if this great priest but *beck'd*?
Drayton. The Mirrour of Queen Margaret.
Then forthwith to him takes a chosen band,
Of spirits threat to himself in exile
To be at hand, and at his *beck* appear.
Milton. Paradise Regained, book ii.

Under one pretence or other, he [the devil] separated as many
as he could from the church, that so he might have them at his own
beck, and fit them for the work he designed to do by them.
Bishop Beveridge. Sermon vii.

Quick, at his *beck*, the guards, who waited round,
With chains, the brave, the blooming stripling bound;
Then back to back the lovely pair they tied,
And whom they join in death, in death divide.
Brooks. Jerusalem Delivered, book ii.

BECHIN, a town in Bohemia, situated on the river
Luschnitz, about fifty miles south of Prague. It has

BE CHANCE.
BECHIN.

BECHIN. an elegant castle and a public bath. Besides being burnt by General Bequoy, in 1619, it was often the scene of conflict during the thirty years' war. The singular mineral called the Bechin stone is found in the neighbourhood of this town. Latitude about 49° 30' N. and longitude 14° 19' E.

BE'CKON, v. l. See To Back.

And he gods out and myghte not speke to hem; and thil knewe that he hadde seyn a vision in the temple, and he bekeide to hem.

Welf. Luke, cap. 1.

What he came out, he coude not speke vrin thi. Wherby they perceived that he had seen some vision in the temple. And he bekened vrin them.

Bible, 1551.

Peter hearyng the grete noyse of those that relayed that he was come agayne, bekened to them with his hande, that they should holde theyr peace.

Udall. Acts, cap. xii.

What gentle ghost, beaprent with April dew,

Harpes me, so solemnly to yonder yearpe?

And beeking wooes me, from the fatal tree

To pluck a garland, for herself or mee?

Jaume. An Elegie on Lady A. Perlet.

What beeking ghost, along the moonlight shade,
Invites my steps, and points to yonder glade?

Pope. Elegy to the Memory of an Unfortunate Lady.

Antoniuss passed by him and said never a word, but only beclouded to him with his hand and head, as though he willed him to be of good courage, although indeed he had no great courage of himself.

North. Plutarch, fol. 777.

Thou dost but as it were becke to them with thy head and shew them the way to heaves by thy good counsel, but thou takest them by the hand and leadest them in the way to hell by thy contrary example.

Tillemont. Sermon 52.

My little prattlers lifting up their hands,

Beckon me back to them, to life, and light;

I come, ye spoues sweet! I come againe,

Nor have your tears been shed, nor have ye knelt in vain.

Smart. Hymn to the Supreme Being.

He that is corrupted co-operates with him that corrupts. He runs into his snare at the first becke; or in order sometimes to raise the price, he meets him but half way.

Bolingbroke. Discourse on Parties. Let. 1.

BECLAP, v. and clap. A. S. clappan, to clap; to seize hold of quickly, to catch.

For he that with his thousand cordes alle

Continueth us unclap to beclappe,

When he may man in idleness enioy,

He can so lightly catche him in his trappes.

Chaucer. The Second Nonnes Tale, v. 15475.

BECLAWE, v. and clawe. A. S. clawan, scabrous, to claw or scratch. *Claw, ungues, nailes, talons, claws, Sonner.*

After that he came to the crowne, he caught one of the nobles, a great friend and companion of his brother Pantolon, who had before-time been his adversary, and with a father's mill all to beclawed and managled with the turber's cards and barling combs, so as he died therewith.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 1003.

BECLÈPE, v. and clepe. *Clepians, clepiam, clamare, clamare;* to cry out, to call, to name.

For thilke honour, whicher aures tolke,

Shall none receive, as wold the booke,

But he beclèped, so he was.

Gower. Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 46.

BECLIP, v. and clip. A. S. be-clippan, amplexi, to embrace or clip. *Sonner.*

To embrace, to surmount, to encircle.

Wan ich ofte was

In chambre mid my felawes, þer com to me bi cas

And every fair mon with sile, & he chepte wel sothe,

And semilant made fair growe, & cutte me wel ofte.

R. Gloucester, p. 129.

And he took a child and sette him in the myddill of hem and whanne he hadde beclipped him he seide to hem, whoever resceyvethe oon of these children in my name he resceyvethe me and who ever resceyvethe me he resceyvethe not me alowis but him that sent me.

Welf. Mark, cap. ix.

For it held vpon a deir,

In to the pass whan he was fall,

The embassamentes to breken all,

And hym beclipe on every side,

That fast he might he not saile.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 163.

Edmunds and Canutus, agreed to trye their quarrells bytweene them two only, and for this was anyoyned, by theyr bothe agremetes, a lytel ill called than Olney nere vnto Gloucesters, or after some wyrters, named Otenge, lycyd by the water of Seuarne.

Falgon, cap. 204.

BECCLOUD, v. and cloud; to cover; to overshadow. *Tonke* supposes cloud to be formed thus; *gecloud, gehloud, glound, cloud.* *Gehloud* the past part of the A. S. verb *gehlidan*, to cover. *Dis. of Parley, ii. 196.*

Therefore, when sorrow shall becloud

Thy fair serenest day,

Weep not! my sighs shall be allow'd

To chase the storm away.

Sir Francis Kinaston to Ellis, vol. iii. p. 267.

His inward grief in outward change appears;

His cheeks with sulcas fires bright-flaming glow,

Which quench'd, ead all is ash; storms of tears,

Behind his eyes, which soon for'd smiling cleave.

R. Fletcher. Pastoral Eclogues 8.

BECCOME, v.

Come and the prefix be. A. S.

Beccuman; Dutch *beccen*; Ger. *kommen*;

Beccumino, adj. *men*; Swe. *komma*. *Beccum*, in-

Beccumino, *greedi*, occurruere, pervenire, super-

Beccumino, *venire*, to go, or enter in, to meet

with, to come or attain to, to come upon suddenly.

Sonner; who might have added *convenire*. *Æt hi* to

convenire. *Antequam convenirent. Piv q' evenit*

utroque. Mat. l. 18.

The German *bequem* (from the Goth. and Sax. *beccuman*, to come) and the English *become*, like the Gr. *εὐτυχία*, and the Latin *convenire*, signify, to come together (sc. to the same place, with the same design, at the same time), to converse, to concur; and consequently to be convenient or concurrent; to be fit, decent, appropriate, suitable; and further; graceful, ornamental.

And doþ hem alle wel an horse, as a kyng bi comþ to.

R. Gloucester, p. 36.

Where are now all þine, where are þei beccomen,

þis hardiþ men & wise? þe dede has all þis comen.

R. Bruce, p. 340.

If your God be so cleve, & of so grete vertue,

As ge preche all tide, for sothe þe schew & wele,

We Naraxine on our side be þat tyme alle þeurele,

þat þis loud saille be yours, & we beccome Cristen.

Id. p. 184.

For þerwe sijnne þy sonne, seat was tyþe etwile

And þy com mane of mayde, muche wile to amende.

Piers Plowman. Vision, p. 117.

Upon that other side Damian

Beccom in the sorrowfull man

That ever was.

Chaucer. The Merchant's Tale, v. 9371.

Let sche of us hold up his head to other,

And eche of us beccome others brother,

And we wold sijn this false traitour deþ.

Id. The Pardoner's Tale, v. 12634.

For he to Beccum thus preid,

That wherupon his hounde he leyd,

It shoulde through his teuche soone

Beccome golde.

Gower. Conf. Am. fol. 85. book v.

BECLIP.

BECOME.

BECOME.
—
BED.

And when him thought it was enough,
Applaud the date he him withdrew
So proudly, that she so wide
Where he became, but as hym like
Out of the temple he goth his wale.

Gower. Conf. Am. book 1. fol. 13.

Formidable and all sentences or surmise he not named among
gou as it seemeth loofli men.

Wiclif. Liferis. chap. v.

So that fornicaryon and all viciou or countenances be not
once named among you as it seemeth sayntes.

Bible. 1551.

Her vertue shal appeare if hir husband be east into shewen,
whome if he love and worship, nor both his misery, but entreate,
as it becoming to do her husband, the world shal talke good of
her perpetually.

Faces. Instruction of Christian Women, book 1. ch. iv.

So well did we these dignities bede,

And honour to see every way become,

As more than now I had been made for it,

Or as from me it had deriv'd the name.

Drayton. The Legend of Thomas Cromwell.

Since my becoming kill me, when they do not

Ere will to you Your honor calls you hence,

Therefore be dead to my vanquished folly,

And all the Gods go with you.

Shakespeare. Antony and Cleopatra, fol. 343.

As for my own part, I cannot but publicly profess, I never met
with any yet so truly and becomingly religious, where the right
knowledge of God and Christ bears the enlightened mind so even,
that it is as far removed from superstition as irreligion itself.

Merr. Epistle Ded. Conj. Cabbalistic.

For nothing can be more certain, than that he expecteth we
should do every thing, after the becomingness of human nature,
and in conformity to the relation we have unto mankind, and more
especially, to himself.

Grege. Cosmologia Sacra, fol. 122.

Or if men do know and believe that there is such a being as God,
not to consider the proper consequences of such a principle, not to
demean ourselves towards him as becomes our relation to him and
dependence upon him and the duty which we naturally owe him,
this is great stupidity and inconsiderateness.

Tillotson. Sermon 1.

In these it was found, that what became inconvenient or useless
to our use, was highly convenient and useful to another; who
was ready to give in exchange for it some equivalent, that was
equally desirable to the former proprietor.

Blackstone. Commentaries, li. 9.

Then, with becoming reverence let each pow'r,

In deep attention, hear the voice of God;

That awful voice, which, speaking to the soul,

Commands its resignation to the law.

Blacklock. A Soliloquy.

The throne itself is now the altar of the graces, and whoever
sacrifices to them becomingly, is sure that his offerings will be
smelled upon by a prince, who is at once the example and patron of
accomplishments.

Wapole. Anecdotes of Painting, v. 1. Pref.

DECURL, be and curl. Chaucer (V. Junius) writes
erul and croule. Whence Junius deduces it from the
Dutch *krollen* (*kroumen, krommen, kromlen, krollen*),
to curve, to turn, to bend.

In the beam compelled against his will to practice winning aims
before the glass, or employ for whole hours all the thought within
side his noodle to beward and bewail the outside.

Seach. Light of Nature, vol. ii. c. 26.

BED, v.

BED, n.

BED, n.

A. S. *beddian*; Ger. *bedden* or *betten*,

sterere. "Bed, i. e. *stratum*, is the past

part of this verb; therefore we speak
of a garden bed, a bed of gravel, &c. In the A. S. *bedde*
is sometimes used for a table." Tooke, li. 375. *Bedde*
is used in A. S. for a table in *Mark* iv. 91.

To bed, is to strew, to spread, to lay out or best

wn, smoothly or flutly, to flatten down, to level;
and also, to put into bed, to go to bed with.

Je kyn, bebedde, of Engelond hat hym to his bedde.

And lyf myd his gret wombe at Reyna's chylde bedde.

R. Gloucester, p. 378.

He was in paynt to geide þe gaste, & some to die,

For esel he ne might him weide, in bed behound him lie.

R. Brune, p. 103.

Hin is reulte to rede, hon ryght holy men lyvede

How thei defenden here brethre, for token here owen will

Fer fro koth and fro kyn, ovel elyeped greden

Beddeliche beddyd.

Piers Plouman. Vision, p. 296.

The lord Chancellor sayd; you of this worshipfull house I am
sure be not so ignorant but you know well that the kyng our
souveraigne lord hath married his brother's wife, for she was both
wedded & bedded with his brother Prince Arthur.

Hall. King Henry VIII.

To bed he goth, and with him goth his wife;

As may jay she light was and jolly,

So was hire joly whistle wel ywete.

The cradel at his beddes feet was sette,

To sucken, and to yere the child to souke.

Chaucer. The Reeve's Tale, p. 4151.

And in a bedde of wortes stille he lay,

Till it was passed under of the day,

Waiting his tunc on Chanteciere to telle.

H. The Nuns Priests Tale, p. 15227.

For choldre no bed berde be. hote if þe boye were

Cleane of lyf and love in soule, and in leet wellock.

Piers Plouman. Vision, p. 181.

And hath his soft pas begonne,

With all the chere that he maye,

Towards the bedde where as she labe,

Till he came to the beddes side.

Gower. Conf. Am. fol. 138.

And mete and drinke this night wel I bring

Ynough for thee, and clothes for thy beddyng.

Chaucer. The Knights Tale, p. 1617.

And, that a better case thou may'st abide,

Beddyng and cloaths I will this night provide,

And needful countenance, that thou may'st be

A conquest better won, and worthier use.

Dryden. Palamon and Arcite.

þeuh his glotouny be of good syle, he goþ to a cond beddyng

And has herred unshelld, unscyliche pyrry.

Piers Plouman. Vision, p. 264.

A thousand founteyns from a woman she drew

Of smere, chrystal, and of bedded jet,

Which one by one she in a river threw,

Upon whose weeping margent she was set.

Shakespeare. A Lover's Complaint.

Generall Norris having by his skilfull view of the towne (which
is almost all seated upon a rocke) found one place thereof in-
habited, did presently set workmen on hand to build it; who after three
dayes labour (and the month after we were entered the towne towres)
had bedded their powder, but indeed not farr enough into the
wall.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. The Portugal Voyage, l. fol. 146.

The Marques threatened her, that if he wanne her by force, he
would sette her in a towre, with bedde and water, so lowe as she
lyved, whiche made the queene weep, for she was never bedded
but in a weak place, w'out men, vityale, or provision; thus she
treated with the Marques, and delivred hym her dere daughter,
and nuncyent he dyd wedde her and bedde her.

Flourent. Cosmographie, li. 28.

The Kinges Maestie gave to him, to the commonalty and citi-
zens, for to be a worke-house for the poore and idle persons of
the Citie of London, his place of Bedde was for the use and secure bedded
marke land of the Navy rate, with all the bedde, bedding, and
all other furniture of the hospital of y^e Navy, towards the main-
tenance of sayde worke-house of Bedde-will.

Stowe. Ann. 1553. Edward VI.

BED.

BED.

From our bed of rest and security we then issue forth, exposing ourselves to the cares and toils, to the dangers, troubles, and temptations of the world: then especially therefore it is reasonable, that we should sacrifice thanks to the gracious preserver of our life, and the faithful restorer of its supports and comforts.

Barnes. Sermon vii. v. 1.

He, therefore, who would see his flow'rs dispos'd
Rightly and in just order, ere he gives
That *bed* the trusted treasure of his seeds,
Forecasts the future whole.

Cowper. The Task, book iii.

BED is used in composition. Examples are subjoined.

Astir'd hie *bedmaster* (hire lord's conclusion)

And hire drier *Auerer* hoo let mine wife fare,

And drenchen boje two in je water *Scourer*.

R. Gloucester, 26.

The heste lye in my house, and in my *bed chamber*,

Piers Plouman. Vision, p. 98.

For he surke lose both to you cast,

That ye shall bere his crest dore,

And he shall be your *bedder*.

Gower. Conf. Ast. book vi.

And thus our lady sende you with my good lady your *bedfellow*
and all yours, as hartely wel to fare as you would al while.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 108.

Oh! perilous fire, that in the *bedstrew* breedeth!

Chaucer. The Merchant's Tale, v. 9657.

And in truth, an honest and virtuous dame, linked once unto her lawfull spouse by unfeigned love, will sooner abide to be eloped, clapped and embraced by any wiles and dragons, than the contumacious and *bedfellowship* of any other man whatsoever but her own husband.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 541.

For thy wiles a pretty slight drollery, or the store of the Prodigal, or the Germane bawling in waterworks, is worth a thousand of these *bed-bagging*, and these *dy-shinen* tapsteries.

Shakespeare. King Henry IV. part ii. fol. 88.

The comical poet said pleasantly in our comedy, speaking of those who had their *bedsteads* thick with gold and silver: Why do you make your sleep dear and costly unto yourselves, which is the only gift that the gods have given us freely?

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 215.

FRAN. I'll be no longer guilty of this sin. This sanguine coward, this *bed-preiser*, this horse-back breaker, this huge hill of flesh.

Shakespeare. King Henry IV. part i. fol. 57.

One that knows
What she should shun to know herselfe,
But with her most vile principall: that shee's
A *bed-scurer*, even so bad as those
That vulgar give bold't titles.

Id. Winter's Tale, fol. 382.

Others on the grass
Coucht, and now fill'd with pasture gazing sat,
Or *bedward* ruminating.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book iv.

Let the deceiving harmony should run
Into the quiet closure of my breast,
And then my little heart were quite undone,
In his *bed chamber* to be barr'd of rest.

Shakespeare. Venus and Adonis.

Here thought they to have done
Some wanton charme, upon this man and maide,
Whose voices are, that no *bed-right* shall be paid
Till Hymen's torch be lighted.

Id. Tempest, fol. 14.

The respect I paid Enrichina, and the value I plac'd upon his conversation, cover'd me with blushes to be thus surpris'd by him, and oblig'd me to satisfy him as well as I could, how much I was troubled and ashamed to have so much favour of his company brought me to my *bed-side*, when I ought and intended to have waited on him.

Bayle. Occasional Reflections, Sec. iv. Disc. 1.

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In one case the client resembles that emperor, who is said to have been affronted with the *bed-chamber*, which were only designed to keep him warm.

Goldsmith. Citizen of the World. Letter 97.

BEDABLE, *debble* and the prefix *be*; Dutch *dauben*, *daubelen*; *pulverem sive lutum versare manibus et pedibus*. *Dab* or *dab* in *dab*, or *dab-chick*, Tooke considers to be the past part of the A. S. *dippan*, to dip or dive. Dutch *doopen*, *dauben*.

To move or stir the water, dirt or dust about with hands or feet; to *dip* into them, to besprinkle with them.

HAB. Never so wearie, never so in woe,

Bedabbled with the dew, and torne with briars,

I can no further cawle, no further go;

My legs can keepe no pace with my desires.

Shakespeare. Midsummer Night's Dream, fol. 156.

BEDAFF, *daff* and the prefix *be*. Sw. *defica*, *hebtare*, *stufpaccare*. Ihre. Dutch *dooven*, *insinere*, *delirare*. Doove, *surdus*. Kilian. But Junius well observes, that whatever is so vitiated, as to have lost its natural force and vigour, is in A. S. called *bedf*. *Bedf* then may be To deafen, deadeu, *ac.* the wits; to befool.

Beth not *bedaffed* for your innocence,

But sharply teach on you the governaible.

Chaucer. The Clerk's Tale, v. 9667.

But Bartholomew his wits did so *bedaff*,

That all seemed good which might of his begoties,

Although it prove so nooche ripe than rotten.

Gower. Dec. Bartholomew of Beth.

Each one of you (O men) in private are

Can play the fool, for shy and subtil craft:

But when you come yfere (in all your hearts)

Then are you blind, dull witted and bedaff.

North. Plutarch, fol. 80.

BEDAGGLE, *duggle* and the prefix *be*. Lye thinks *daggie* is the frequentative of *dag* (A. S. *deaw*;) *deu*. To bedew, to wet, to besmen with wet dirt.

It may be remarked, that Richardson, in his notes on *Paradise Lost*, p. 322, has the following explanation:—*Succa*, from *flu*, they fall low to the ground; they are also called the hounding, from *hount*, *be-daggled*. *Succuma*.

Shakespeare. Pericles, act ii. sc. ii. Note.

BEDAH, or *VEDAH*, also called *Battas* or *Waddas*, a wild people inhabiting the mountains and forests in the interior of Ceylon. See *CEYLON* and *BATTA*.

BEDARK, *be* and *dark*. A. S. *adescian*, *obscurare*, to obscure, or make dark or dimme, to darken, to hide. Sommer.

But when the blacke winter nights,

(Without moone or starre light)

Bedarked hath the winter straits,

All privately thei, gone to leade;

Gower. Conf. Ast. book i. fol. 14.

BEDASH, *be* and *dash*; of uncertain etymology. To beat or strike against; as waves against a shore, a ship against a rock, &c.

Dead men, and weapons broke, do on the earth abound;

The drums, *bedash'd* with brains, do give a diuinal sound;

Dryden. Poly-damn. Song xiii.

Those wretched wretch, durst thou be so bold as thus bedash with shariet and *bedash* with gold, to come into the open face of so many of thy wretched citizens, and to enter into this sorrowful and mourning camp, swimming in these tokens of quiet prosperity, like as if thou shouldst triumph over us.

Golding. Justice, fol. 90.

BEDASIL.
—
BEDEAD.

Whence swelling on both sides in manner of an halfe globe,
and opening a wide partition of lands, with the armes of Proprie-
ty stretch round about, it *bedecketh* on that side Cynicus and
Diogenes, the religious and severall trophies of the great dame
and mother (*Epich.*) *Holland. Annals*, fol. 196.

BEDAW. See ADAW. To awake. No day them
awaketh; they being always awake; on the watch.

There is no date which men *bedaweth*,
No more the none than the moone,
When there is any thing to loose.

Tower. Conf. Am. fol. 93.

BEDAUB, be and daub. See BEDABBLE. Ger. *dau-*
ben, to dip, *sc.* in mud or dirt, &c.

He charged was, that in Achilles spoiles came home before,
Or when among the ships of Greece the fires so fierce he flung;
But now in dust his beard *bedaub'd*, his haire with blood is
clung. *Phaen. Andromeda*, book ii.

Great use there is and to good purpose, of the mud which these
fountains do yield; but with this regard, that when the boile is
become and *bedaub'd* outwardly therewith, the same may drie
upon it in the sun. *Milford. V. 2. Finesse*, fol. 412.

NOR. I saw the wound, I saw it with mine eyes,
God save the mark, here on his manly breast,
A pitteous course, a bloody pitteous course:
Pale, pale as ashes, all *bedaub'd* in blood,
All in gore blood, I wounded at the sight.

Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet, fol. 66.

Is it worth the pains to devise plausible shifts, which shall in-
stantly, we know, be detected and defeated; to *bedaub* foul designs
with a fair varnish, which death will presently wipe off?
Burrows. Sermon xv. 3.

The varnish clown who stumps along the streets,
And dusts his hat to each great ear he meets,
Some twelve months hence, *bedaub'd* with livery lace,
Shall thrust his sassy flambeau in your face.

Whitehead. Vra. to the School for Levers.

BEDDINGTON, a village in Surry, near which is
a seat belonging to the Carew family. The old man-
sion was built by Sir Francis Carew in the 16th cen-
tury, and by him the first orange trees seen in England
were planted. They were raised from seeds of that
fruit imported into England by Sir Walter Raleigh,
who had married his niece. In summer they stood in
the open air: according to an account of several gar-
dens near London, written in 1691, and printed in the
19th volume of the *Archæologia*, they were preserved
during winter in a moveable shed; the trees were
thirteen feet high; and, in the year preceding this
account, 10,000 oranges had been gathered from
them. They flourished for more than a century and
a half, but were destroyed by the great frost, 1739-40.
In the autumns of 1599 and 1600, Queen Elizabeth
honoured Beddington park with her presence; and
the Queen's Oak and her favourite walk are still shewn.
Sir Francis, on one of these occasions, kept back a
cherry-tree for more than a month beyond its season,
by straining wet canvass over the tree. The fruit thus
increased in size, but continued pale; and when the
precise time of the Queen's arrival was known, the
canvass being removed, a few days brought them to
their natural colour. The population of the parish of
Beddington in 1821 was 1357.

BEDEAD, be and dead. Goth. *godadathan*; A. S.
deadun, to kill, to destroy, to bereave of life.

Whereupon he [*Epictetus*] further adds, that there is a double
mortification or petrification of the soul; the one, when it is stu-
pified and drowned in its inordinance; the other, when it is
bedead'd in its morals, so that neither that naturally should
belong to a man. *Cudworth. Intellectual System*, fol. 193.

BEDECK, be and deck; A. S. *theonon* vel *decon*; Ger. BEDECK.
and Dutch, *decken*, to cover, to clothe.

For when dame nature first had framed his heavenly face,
And thoroughly *bedecked* it, with goodly glances of grace,
Goswain. In prayer of Lady Sandes.

When May is in his prime,
Then may each heart rejoice;
When May *bedeck* each branch with green
Each bird strains forth his voice.

Richard Edwards in Ellis, v. 2.

My deeds at Rome, enrich me with reason,
My talks abroad with pensive filed phrase,
Adorn'd my local coven with a laurel crown.
The emperor did much commend my wale,
So that I was *bedeck* with double praise.

Mirror for Magistrates, p. 187.

Where rest my wane; (till jolly shepherds awaken)
Next morn with pearls of dew *bedeck* in our plains,
We'll fold our flocks, then in fit time go on,
To time mine oaten pipe for Durion.

Brown. Britannia's Pastoral, book i. Song ii.

Sir Walter might, upon some great assemblies at court, have
his very shoes *bedeck'd* with precious stones, that exceeded the
value of six thousand six hundred pieces of gold.

Old's Life of Raleigh, fol. 145.

A very antient pit, called the Old Driv, was also held in great
veneration, and till within these few years, was annually, on that
festival, *bedeck'd* with boughs, flowers, and garlands, and was
encircled by a jovial band of young people, celebrating the day
with song and dance. *Pennant. Journey from Chester.*

BEDELVE, } *be* and *dele*; A. S. *delean*; Dutch,
BEDULVEN, } *deleen*, to dig.

Right as a mame *deleth* the earth, because of filling of the field,
and found there a pocket of gold *bedelve*; then wane folk, that
it is befall by fortuitous bedding.

Chaucer. Barres, book v. fol. 237.

BEDEVIL, be and devil. See DAVIS.

Recruited once more, I forget all my pain,
And was *bedevild*, and burnt, and *bedevild* again;
Not a petticoat fring'd, or the heel of a shoe,
Ever pass'd you by day-light, but at it I flew.

Moor. Song i.

I pop'd upon *Staphylius* again at Turin, in his return home;
and a sad tale of sorrowful adventures he had to tell. He had
been *bedevild* alive, and *bedevild* dead, and used worse than St. Bartho-
lomew at every stage he had come to.

Sterne. Sentimental Journey.

BEDEW, } A. S. *domian*; Dutch, *dawnen*; Ger.
BEDEWT, } *tauen*, to wet, to moisten.

The hot summer drieth the courses, and antempe cometh ayen
of hessian applat, and the steering rain *bedeweth* the winter.

Chaucer. Boecis, book iv. fol. 236.

Up start my staring looks,

I lay for dead a space:

And what with blent and belen I all

bedew'd the doric pile.

Turberville. Pyndard's Answer.

And her faire face, faire become he *bedew'd*

With teares, teares of remorse, of ruth, of sorrow.

As the pale rose her colour lost recoverd.

With the fresh drops fulme from the silver morrow;

So she reviv'd, and cheer'd in unperple'd cheer.

Moist with their own teares, and with teares they borrow,

Fairfax. Godfrey of Bullioigne, book xi. st. 129.

Only the swirlings of the sisters mine,

Relief against me, [*Sonne*] scorn my great command;

And when dark night from her bedgown wings,

Drops sleepy silence to the eyes of all;

They only wake, and with unslack'd toll,

Let me to find the *via Lactes*.

That leads to the heaven of immortality.

Brace. Lingua, act v. s. 16.

BEDEW.
—
BED-
FORD.

Both nations shall, in Britaine's royall crowne,
Their *dis* ring names the signs of faction drowne;
The silver streamers which from this spring increase,
Bedew all Christian hearts with drops of peace.
Elephant. Bowerth field.

For, never gentle knight, as he of late,
So tooned was in fortune's cruel freaks;
And all the while all tears bedew'd the hearers cheeks.
Sponser. Fawcett Queen's, book l. c. 12.

What slender youth bedew'd with liquid odours,
Courts thee on roses in some pleasant cave,
Pyrrhus? *Milton. Her. ed. v.*

Thrice happy he I who, on the sunless side
Of a romantic mountain, forest crown'd,
Beneath the whole collected shade reclines;
Or in the gulfed caverns, woodbine-wrought,
And fresh bedew'd with ever spouting streams,
Sits coolly calm. *Thomson. Summer.*

Go, my boy, and if you fall, though distant, exposed, and
swampy by those that love you, the most precious tears are those
with which heaven bedews the unburied head of a soldier.

Goldsmith. Vicar of Wakefield.

Situation,
extent, and
population.

BEDFORD, or BEDFORDSHIRE, a county of England, encompassed by Northamptonshire, Huntingdonshire, Cambridgeshire, Hertfordshire, and Buckinghamshire. The boundaries of this county are generally mere arbitrary lines, sometimes a small river, and at others only a rivulet. It is about thirty-six miles in its greatest extent, and twenty-two in extreme breadth. The superficial area has been variously stated by different writers. The Report to the Board of Agriculture states it at 307,200 acres, while the Returns to Parliament, relative to the poor's rates, makes it only 275,300; but Dr. Beke, in his *Observations on the Income Tax*, gives 293,059 acres as the superficial content. The first of these statements is equivalent to 490 square miles, the second to 430, and the third nearly to 458. In the Population Returns of 1881, the area of this county is stated at 463 square miles, which is rather more than the mean of the three preceding numbers, and is founded upon the *Trigonometrical Survey of England and Wales*.

From the comparative statements of the population of the English counties, given in the introduction to these Returns, it appears that the number of inhabitants in Bedfordshire has been increasing since the beginning of the last century. The increase, however, has been more rapid during the latter part of the period; as, in the interval from 1801 to 1811, it was about $\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. below the general average for the whole of England; but from the latter date to 1821, it was nearly on a par with that average.

The following are the numbers at the five different periods, in even hundreds, with the average increase in each ten years; viz.

Date.	Population.	Increase per cent.
1700.....	48,500 2.2
1750.....	53,900 4.2
1801.....	68,500 11
1811.....	72,600 18
1821.....	85,400	

The actual number of inhabitants, as given in the Return, however, is only 83,716, presenting a comparative population of 181 persons to each square

mile, which is more than forty below the general average for England. At the three periods in which the information is most to be relied upon, this population included the following,

BED-
FORD.

	Families.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1801....	13,980	30,523	32,870	63,393
1811....	14,927	33,171	37,042	70,213
1821....	17,373	40,385	43,331	83,716

In reference to the employments of this population, the Parliamentary Returns afford the following statements; the numbers in the first are individuals, in the other two to families: viz.

	In Agriculture.	In Trade.	All others.
1801.....	18,766	13,816	28,789
1811.....	9,431	4,155	1,381
1821.....	10,754	4,827	1,792

From the parish register returns, it appears that the annual number of baptisms, burials, and marriages, on an average of ten years, ending with 1820, were

	Males.	Females.	Total.
Baptisms.....	1160	1121	2287
Burials.....	632	703	1335

The marriages were 654; besides which it was ascertained that the annual number of unentered baptisms was about 116; burials, 53; marriage, 1. By adding these numbers to the totals for 1820, and dividing the whole population by the respective sums, we obtain the following proportions: viz.

Marriages.....	one in 192
Baptisms.....	one in 35
Burials.....	one in 57

As nearly the whole of Bedfordshire is situated on the eastern side of the grand ridge which separates the waters which flow into the German Ocean, from those which find an outlet in the Irish Sea, its general inclination is towards the east, and it is chiefly in that direction that its rivers flow. Much of the surface is varied with hills and valleys; though few of its eminences aspire to the character of mountains. The highest range is the Chiltern Hills, which cross a part, and skirt the remainder of its southern borders. This range is chiefly composed of a vast mass of chalk, intermixed with flints, and frequently projects into the valleys in a singular manner. Another ridge of hills crosses the northern part; but this differs altogether in its character from the former, being principally composed of clay. A ridge of sand-hills likewise enters the county from the west, and stretches towards the north-east. Much of the surface of Bedfordshire is composed of alluvial soils, principally consisting of yellow and dark coloured clays; which however are diversified with tracts of chalk and sand. The western, and some of the eastern parts are flat and sandy. South of Dunstable and Luton, the upper stratum is chalk, intermixed with numerous layers of flints, which is succeeded by hard chalk alone. The minerals found within the limits of the county are not numerous. They are chiefly limestone, coarse marble, and imperfect coal; but one of the substances for which it is most noted is fullers earth. Some years ago, the most extensive pit of this was near Apsley-Guise; but now it is chiefly obtained within the borders of Buckinghamshire. There are also several mineral springs in Bedfordshire, which

Minerals,
&c.

BED-
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are resorted to for some particular complaints by a few people in their vicinity, but none that have obtained much repute in other parts of the Kingdom.

Climate.

As Bedfordshire is an inland county, and not very elevated, it experiences a medium temperature and moisture. From meteorological observations made at Leighton-Buzzard, for four years ending with 1804, it appears that the mean monthly height of the barometer was 29.52 inches; that of the thermometer, with a northern aspect, and in the open air, observed at eight o'clock in the morning, was 47° 3. The average monthly quantity of rain was 1.93 inches, and the evaporation 1.05. Thus, by multiplying these numbers by 12, we have 23.16, and 12.6. The former is therefore only a little greater than the average in the neighbourhood of London. The most prevalent wind during the same period was the south-west. This county does not appear to be particularly healthy, as, from the late returns of the population, there are fewer instances of longevity than in many others, in proportion to the population. In May 1821, there was only one person living whose age was 100 years or upwards; and that was a female. This, however, amounts only to twenty-three in twenty thousand of the population. There were also fifteen men, and thirteen women, between 90 and 100 years old, which is 37.1 in 10,000 for the former, and three for the latter; while some of the northern counties average nearly three times that proportion.

Soil, cul-
tivation, and the
predominant
production.

From what has been already said, it is obvious that the predominant soils of this county are clay, sand, and chalk. These, however, are in some places variously mixed, and produce loams of greater or less tenacity, according to the prevailing materials of which they are composed. Much of the county long remained uncultivated; but the late flourishing period of agriculture has now left but few large patches in its natural state. The greater part has therefore been rendered productive of most of the vegetables common to the midland districts of England. Both the wheat and barley of Bedfordshire are good, and are sent to other parts of the Kingdom in considerable quantities, chiefly by the Ouse to Lynn. Part of Bedfordshire is also included among the dairy counties; and large quantities of butter are produced, particularly in a district which stretches from the middle of the county to the south-east corner. This is chiefly sent to London by land carriage. The culture of wood, which was in fashion some years ago, is now mostly discontinued. But many of the sandy districts have been planted with firs; and other patches with different kinds of wood.

The chief rivers that water this county are the Ouse, the Ivel, and the Ouzel. The first of these is by far the most important: it enters the county from Buckinghamshire, and pursues a circuitous course through fertile meadows, till it reaches Bedford, where it becomes navigable; and is found highly serviceable as a medium of conveyance for the produce of that rich vale. Its length within the county is about forty-five miles, which terminates by its entrance into Huntingdonshire, a little below St. Neots. The current of this river is very slow, except at the time of floods; but after much rain it is liable to great inundations. Its principal fish are pike, perch, bream, chub, cray-fish, eels, and dace. The eels are large and fine, and are caught in great abundance.

The other rivers are less important, though the Ivel is navigable from Biggleswade till it falls into the Ouse near Tempsford. The Grand Junction Canal also touches the south-west borders of Bedfordshire for about nine miles, near Leighton-Buzzard.

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Bedfordshire possesses few manufactures except those of straw and lace. Thread lace, sometimes called bone-lace, was for a long time the staple manufacture of the county, but has now diminished, both in consequence of the introduction of the straw manufacture, as well as from the greater prevalence of cotton lace. It is now chiefly confined to the town of Bedford, and a few villages near the borders of Buckinghamshire. Plaiting of straw, and making it into bonnets, employ a great number of people in the neighbourhood of Dunstable and Toddington, as well as near the confines of Hertfordshire. This has, indeed, superseded lace-making in many places, as the employment is not only considered more healthy, but the emolument is greater. Nearly three-fourths of the working part of the female population are, in many places employed in these two branches of industry.

When the Romans invaded Britain, they found Bedfordshire inhabited by the Cassi, or Catuvelani, and it was included in their *Flovia Caesariensis*. After the establishment of the Saxon heptarchy, it became part of the Kingdom of Mercia. A severe battle was fought between the Saxons and Britons in this county, between 570 and 580, in which the former were victorious, and gained possession of the chief places it contained. During the time of the Danish invasion, Bedfordshire was the scene of frequent conflicts, which finally terminated in the total expulsion of the invaders. Many castles had been erected during these periods, most of which were demolished by King John; except that of Bedford, which was dismantled by Henry III. When the present division of England was established, Bedfordshire was divided into nine hundreds, which are still preserved. It is included in the Norfolk circuit, the province of Canterbury, and the diocese of Lincoln; and contains 123 parish churches, with five chapels, and nine market towns. These are Amptill, Bedford, Biggleswade, Dunstable, Leighton-Buzzard, Luton, Potton, Shefford, and Woburn. Remains of Roman, Saxon, and Norman antiquities have been found in this county; and some Roman stations are also to be seen. One of these, supposed to have been the *Magorium* of Antoninus, is situated near Potton. By others it has been supposed to be the ancient *Salene*. It covers a space of about thirty acres, within which many urns and coins have been dug up. Camden also supposes, another place, about one-third as large as the former, at Maiden Bower, a mile from Dunstable, to have been a Roman station, from the coins of the emperors found there. Leighton-Buzzard has likewise been thought to be the site of a Roman camp; and some have imagined that the site of a Roman amphitheatre may be traced near Bradford-Magna. Bedfordshire was also crossed by three Roman roads. That called Ickenild-street, enters it at Leighton, passes Dunstable, and crosses the Warden-hills to Baldock, in Hertfordshire. The Watling-street enters it from St. Albans, near Luton, passes a little north of Dunstable, where it crosses the Ickenild-street, and thence proceeds to Stony-Stratford, in Buckinghamshire. A third Roman road enters the county

BED-
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near Potton, and runs thence to Bedford, where it crosses the Ouse, and proceeds to Newport Pagnell. For further information respecting this county, the reader may consult *Batchelor's Agricultural Report of Bedfordshire*; *Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. i.; and *Lysons's Magna Britannia*. Smith's *Map and Memoir of the Strata of England*, also affords some good information respecting the geological composition of its surface.

BEDFORD. The chief town of the County of the same name is a place of great antiquity. Camden does not believe that it was a Roman station, as it does not stand on any Roman road, and no Roman coins have been found in it. It has, however, been called by others the *Lacidorum* of Antoninus. The Saxons named it *Bedician Ford*, the fortress of the Ford, from its fortifications, which commanded the river Ouse. Offa chose it as his burial-place, and his body was deposited in a small chapel near the brink of the stream, which was destroyed by an inundation. In the wars between the Britons and Saxons, Bedford was the scene of more than one bloody conflict. It also witnessed some defeats of the Danes. A strong castle was built here soon after the Norman Conquest, by the third Baron, who took his title from the town. Of this no remains are now to be seen. As early as the twenty-third of Edward I. the borough sent two members to parliament.

The town is handsome, and contains five distinct parishes, St. John, St. Mary, St. Cuthbert, St. Peter, and St. Paul. The church of the latter is the principal ornament of the place. Lace-making employs a great portion of the inhabitants, who, according to the census of 1821, amount to 5446. The poor's rates of the five parishes in 1803, at an average of 7s. were £2389. 10s. 3d.

Situation
and extent.

BEAUFORD LEVEL, an extensive tract of low land, stretching through parts of the counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, Huntingdon, Northampton, Lincoln, Cambridge, and the Isle of Ely. The whole of this district is calculated at nearly 400,000 acres, or 625 square miles. From various phenomena, noticed by different writers, it appears that the greater part of this space anciently consisted of dry and cultivated land; but either from the neglect and mismanagement, or from some convulsion of nature, it was afterwards converted into a vast morass. Numerous trees, the foundations of buildings, with various other natural and artificial productions, have been found at different depths below the present surface. Dugdale, in his *History of Embanking*, states, that many oak, fir, and other trees, were found in draining the Isle of Axholme, at the depths of three, four, and five feet below the surface, lying close to the roots, which were firm in the earth in which they had grown. The trunks of these trees had been burned down, as the ends were reduced to a kind of charcoal. "The oaks were lying in multitudes, and of an extraordinary size, being five yards in compass, and sixteen yards long; and some smaller of a great length, with a great quantity of acorns and small nuts near them." Mr. Elstob, in his *Historical Account of the Bedford Level*, also affirms, that "in 1764, many roots of trees were found near Boston, in Lincolnshire, in the position in which they had grown, at the depth of eighteen feet below the thin pasture of the surface." Tacitus, in his *Life of Agricola*, states, that "the Britons

complained of their hands and bodies being worn out and consumed by the Romans, in clearing the woods and embanking the fens." This expression has been thought by several to apply with particular force to this part of the country, and to refer in particular to the destruction of the forests which once covered part of the Bedford Level. In addition to the trees, foundations of buildings, a smith's forge, with many of his tools, some horse shoes, and other iron articles, have been found near Boston, at the depth of sixteen feet.

We are not acquainted with any record either of the time when this change took place, or the manner in which it was effected; but Harry of Huntingdon, who wrote in the reign of King Stephen, describes this part of the country as "very pleasant and agreeable to the eye, watered with many rivers which run through it, diversified with many large and small lakes, and adorned with many woods and islands." This description, therefore, applies to about the middle of the twelfth century, as Stephen reigned from 1136 to 1154. William of Malmshury, who was living in the first year of Henry II. who succeeded Stephen, describes this tract of country in the most favourable terms, and particularly mentions the size of the trees by which many parts of it were adorned. This forms a singular coincidence with the large trees that have been found buried in the marshes. From these testimonies it appears, that the great inundation, by which this wide tract of fine country was converted into a marsh, happened after the time of the latter historian. At whatever period it took place, however, the revolution was so great, and the country so completely overflowed, that the putrid effluvia of the stagnant waters filled the air with noxious exhalations, which not only destroyed the health of the inhabitants, but greatly impeded their endeavours to obtain the necessities of life. The country was even rendered almost impassable for boats, by the sedge, reeds, and mud with which it was covered.

Conjecture
relative to
the change.

The first attempt to drain these fens was in the reign of Edward I.; and several others, equally unsuccessful, were also made in the reigns of Henry VI. and Charles I. But Francis, Earl of Bedford, in 1634, in conjunction with thirteen other gentlemen, undertook and completed a great part of this drainage; and from him the name of this farming district was derived. This nobleman had large possessions hereabouts, chiefly granted him by Henry VIII. on the dissolution of monasteries, and he engaged in the undertaking on condition of having 55,000 acres assigned him, in the result of successful accomplishment. The King granted these adventurers a charter of corporation in 1634; and in the course of about three years and a half from that time, the sum of about £120,000 had been expended, and this Herculean task completed, to the satisfaction of the commissioners, who, with the King's surveyor, set out the land allotted to the company by their charter. The right of this corporation was afterwards opposed, and the Earl dispossessed of all his property in that part of the country. But the breaking out of the civil wars frustrated the schemes of the other persons who had engaged in the business; and in 1649, William, Earl of Bedford, the heir and successor of Francis, was restored to all the rights of his father. A new act was subsequently granted for repairing the decayed works, and extensive operations were, in consequence, carried

BED-
FORD.Floods of
its former
state.

RED-
FORD.
BEDIGHT

on, till in 1653, £400,000, had been expended, the Level was considered to be fully drained, and the 95,000 acres were confirmed to the adventurers. In 1697, this Level was divided into three districts, northern, middle, and southern; and a surveyor was appointed for each of the former, and two for the latter. This was designed for the better regulation and government of the property; but it was followed by a series of contentions, litigations, charters and laws. For further information respecting these disputes we must refer to the *Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. ii. and to Elisha's *Historical Account of the Bedford Level*.

Much fine land, however, still remains undrained in this part of England, and during winter considerable tracts are frequently overflowed, and become the haunts of immense flocks of water-fowls, vast numbers of which are caught in decoys. So numerous are these birds at this season in some parts, that 3000 couple are often sent to the London market in one week, from a single decoy in the neighbourhood of Ely.

BEDFORD, Naw, a seaport and post town, in the county of Bristol, Massachusetts, United States of America, and about fifty-two miles south of Boston, the capital of that province. It is pleasantly situated on the west side of an arm of the sea, which stretches from Buzzard's Bay, and may be considered as the estuary of the Accushet river, which enters it near the town. In 1810, Bedford included Fairhaven on the opposite side of the estuary, but this has since been separated, and incorporated into a distinct town. The population of New Bedford has, in consequence, been greatly diminished, and cannot now be estimated at more than 5000 individuals. It contains a Bank, five places of public worship, besides a library, and an academy for Quakers. The harbour is safe and commodious, with a depth of water from three to four fathoms. The amount of shipping in 1818, belonging to the port, was nearly 24,000 tons; but the surrounding country produces few articles of export; many of these vessels were engaged in the whale fishery. Forty-five sail belonging to this district are also engaged in the cod and other fisheries, while several trade directly to Europe, the West Indies, and the other American ports. The average value of the exports is about 130,000 dollars; of which sperm and whale oil, with candles, constitute a great part. Ship-building is also carried on here to a considerable extent, and a weekly newspaper is likewise published at New Bedford. Latitude 41° 38' north, longitude 70° 54' west.

BEDFORD is also the name of a post town, the capital of Bedford county, in Pennsylvania, standing about 900 miles west of Philadelphia. It is pleasantly situated on a branch of the Juniata, is regularly laid out, and contains a court-house, a jail, a market-house and a Bank. It is built on an eminence enveloped by mountains. One of these short distances west of the town, is 1300 feet high, and another on the east about 1100. A mile and a half south of Bedford, some mineral springs were discovered in 1804, which have been much resorted to. We are not acquainted with any analysis of their waters, but they have been found serviceable in cutaneous disorders, ulcers, rheumatism, and chronic complaints.

BEDIGHT, *be* and *dight*, which Skinner is inclined to derive from the verb, to *deck*. And H. Tooke (it

seems) was of opinion that *bedight* was the past part. **BEDIGHT**
of *bedeck*. See **BANCK**. **BEDLAM**.

That Christiana theefe (quoth he) that was so bold
To combat me in hard and single fight,
Shall wounded fall inglorious on the meads,
His locks with clods of blood and dust bedight.
Fairfax. Godfrey of Bulloigne, book vii. st. 54.

I have a bowser at Buckenford-Bury,
Full daintily bedight,
If thou'lt lend thither, my little Mungrove,
Thou'lt lig in sack and single fight.
Little Mungrove in Percy, v. 11.

With sorrow for my guide, as there I stood,
A troop of men the most in arms bedight,
In tumult cluster'd 'bout both sides the flood.
Mirror for Magistrates, fol. 270.

Whereas he sitting found, in secret shade,
As smooth, saluage, and racient wight,
Of grisly howl, and foule dilavour'd sight,
His face with smoke was tawd, and eyes were beard,
His head and beard with soot were ill bedight.
Spenser's Faerie Queene, book ii. c. vii.

For, all his armour was like salvage weed,
With woody moss bedight, and all his steed
With oaken leaves atreapt, that seemed fit
For salvage wight. *Id. ib. book iv. c. iv.*

With see it fares now, as with him whose outward garment
hath bin injur'd and ill-bedight; for having no other shift, what
help but to turn the inside outwards, especially if the lining be of
the same, or, as it is sometimes, much better.
Milton. Apology for Smectymnus, li. 110.

BEDIM, *be* and *dim*. A. S. *dimman*, *adimian*, *adbræ-*
re, to dull, to darken, to make *dimme*. *Somner*.

By whose apyle
(Wenke masters though ye be) I have bedym'd
The noone-tide sun, call'd forth the mactuous windes,
And twist the greene sea, and the sun's d' visit
Set roaring warre. *Shakespeare, Tempest, fol. 16.*

What devious thousands just within the goal
Of wild debauch direct their nightly course!
Perhaps so sickly quales bedim their days,
No morning salutacions shock the head,
But, ah! what woe remain!
Arcturion. The Art of preserving Health, book ii.

BEDIZEN, *be* and *dizen*, perhaps *daze*, *dazen*. See
DASE.

Now lightly down, ye spens of modern race,
Ye cite that rose bedizen Nature's face,
Of the more massy structures here ye view;
They roose for greatness that ye never knew.
Langhorne. The Country Justice.

Well, now you're bedizen'd, I'll swear, as ye pass,
I can scarcely help laughing—don't look in the glass.
Those tattering boys shall be walep if they tease you,
So come away, girls.
Whitehead. Fenns stirring the Grace.

BEDLAM, *n.* } *Bethlehem, bethlem, bedlam.* The
Hospital of St. Mary *Bethlem*, be-
Be'DLAMITE. } stowed in 1545 upon the city of
London, who appropriated it to the reception of in-
sanatics. See Pennant's *London*, p. 340.

Sometimes, in thinking of what I have had,
I from a sudden ecstasy grow mad:
Then, like a *bedlam*, forth thy Elar runs,
Like one of Bacchus' raging frantic sons.
Drayton. England's Heroical Epistles.

And as he would proceed with his oration,
One of the chiefest of this bedlam nation
Lays hold on him, and asks who he should be.
Id. The Moon-Calf.

BE- wide sleeves to their robes, and occasionally girls richly embroidered. They preserve a single lock from the crown of the head, by which, like other superstitious Mussulmans, they believe the prophet will carry them up to Paradise; and they have the greatest respect for their beards, which they are continually stroking and anointing. To spit upon the beard of an Arab, is to offer him the most unpardonable offence; and it is even said, that the loss or diminution of his beard, will cause an Arab to wander far from his tribe and country, that he may not incur the disgrace which such a deficiency entails upon him.

A tooth for a tooth, and an eye for an eye, was, we know, exacted by the law of Moses; and no where is the principle of that law more rigidly followed up, than through the whole extent of the Arabian deserts. The duty of avenging the death of a relation devolves upon every member of the family; and the different tribes are on this account involved in an interminable state of warfare. The universality of the *Lex Talionis*, or law of retaliation, is one of the distinctive marks of the Bedwin race, and was probably adopted by Mahomet, in order to conciliate them; but their love of hospitality is not a less remarkable characteristic. Even an enemy is secure if he can fly for refuge into the tent; and Ali Bey (Don Pedro de la Hada) tells us that when one of the Bedwins heard that his wife had given some food to his foe, who had asked for charity at his tent, not knowing whose it was, he replied "I should probably have killed my enemy had I found him here, but I should not have spared my wife, if she had forgotten the law of hospitality."

The wants of the Bedwin are few and easily satisfied. Milk, butter, and cheese are furnished by his flocks and herds. The oases, or fertile spots, scattered over the deserts present palms and acacias, of which the dates and gum add to his stock of provisions: the former are among the most important articles of his diet; the latter is sometimes, though rarely, used in times of severe dearth. The camel is occasionally slaughtered, as a costly luxury, to regale the traveller; and the game found in the less barren parts of the desert is almost the only article of animal food which the wandering tribes ever taste. But of all the animals which form the wealth of these Arabs, the horse is among the most valuable. They trace the genealogies of their favourites to the mares of Mohammed's stud, or even to those of Solomon's. They give the preference to mares, as being the most manageable, and not likely to betray their riders by neighing. The power of enduring hunger and fatigue manifested by these animals is astonishing. The Emir, visited by the Chevalier d'Arvieux, was saved by a mare who carried him three days and nights without rest or food, and conveyed him out of the reach of his enemies. The attachment of the Bedwin to his horse is almost as proverbial as the fleetness of the animal itself. They inhabit the same tent, are treated with as much care, and are almost as much caressed as the children of the family; and this extraordinary domesticity gives the horses of the desert a tractableness and docility which no other breed possesses. Niebuhr speaks of the kohlânet, or thorough-bred Arabian horse, "as not possessing any beauty or other excellence than swiftness: he was probably deceived by the wretched condition in which they are usually kept, from the difficulty of procuring sufficient fodder;

and he seems to have been equally misinformed as to the little value set upon them by the Turks. It is possible that the case may be altered since his time; but at present the Turks esteem, and often give very high prices for horses of the genuine Arab breed.

A sort of guitar, called rehâ or erbâb, is almost the only musical instrument in use among these people, and they accompany themselves upon it when singing their favourite ballads, and regaling themselves on holidays. Their love of poetry is well known, and all the most ancient Arabian poems, are, in fact, the productions of Bedowins, descriptive of their customs and opinions, and filled with images drawn from the scenery of their deserts. The *Book of Job* affords a more ancient picture of the same nation, and of the same country, and its phraseology, as well as its imagery, is susceptible of much illustration from the poems and romances of the earlier Arabs. Tales in prose form another of their favourite amusements; and the *Adventures of Antar and Alah*, or the marvellous stories contained in "*The Arabian Nights*" are handed down by tradition, and repeated at idle hours, from the banks of the Nile to those of the Euphrates. Their knowledge of these productions is preserved by memory; for few of them can read or write; and materials for writing cannot be procured without considerable difficulty among a people who have so little occasion to use them. These tales and poems constitute all the literature of the Bedwins; for a few traditional receipts in medicine, and a practical knowledge of the name and position of the constellations, will scarcely be allowed to deserve that title. Their ignorance in every other respect is extreme; and superstition, the child of ignorance, is no where more powerful than among these wanderers in the Desert. Their dread of charms and spells cannot be better illustrated than by the following passage from Burckhardt's *Account of his Journey in the Peninsula of Mount Sinai*. Having observed, that "he made it an invariable rule never to let the Arabs, among whom he was travelling, see him write," he adds that, "on one occasion, his long absence from his companions roused their curiosity. One of them came to look after him, and seeing him immovably fixed, squatted down on the ground, and closely snuffed up, approached on tip-toe, and suddenly lifting up the cloak which screened him, detected a book in his hand. 'What is this?' exclaimed the Arab, 'What are you doing? I shall not make you answerable for it at present, because I am your companion; but I shall talk further to you about it, when we are at the convent.' When they had returned to their halting-place, Burckhardt requested him to tell what he had further to say." To this the Bedwin replied, in a passionate tone, 'You write down our country, our mountains, our pasturing places, and the rain which falls from heaven; other people have done this before you, but I at least will never assist in the ruin of my country.' Burckhardt assured him that he liked the Arabs too well to wish to injure them: 'On the contrary,' he added, 'had not I occasionally written down some prayers ever since we left Tabu, we should most certainly have been all killed, and it is very wrong in you to accuse me on account of that, the omission of which would have cost us our lives.' He was startled at this reply, and seemed nearly satisfied. 'Perhaps

BE-
DOWINS.

BE- you say the truth," he observed, "but we know that DOWINS some years since several men, God knows who they were, came to this country, visited the mountains, wrote down every thing, stores, plants, animals, even serpents and spiders, and since then little rain has fallen, and the game has greatly decreased." The same opinions prevail in the mountains, as are current among the Bedowins of Nubia; they believe that a sorcerer, by writing down certain charms, can stop the rains and transfer them to his own country." (*Travels in Syria and the Holy Land*, p. 519.)

Those who are fond of speculations, or of the effect produced by local circumstances upon the national character, will find much matter for their consideration in the most detailed and minute accounts of this remarkable people. Quickness of perception and strength of imagination are the mental qualities by which they are peculiarly distinguished; their poems do not, like those of the Persians, abound in extravagant metaphors, but they are distinguished by the force and variety of their similes; and though their love of an unexpected or epigrammatic turn often betrays them into puns and puerilities, the skill with which they draw an unforeseen inference, or bring out an unexpected result, plainly marks the general acuteness of their understandings, and shows the effect of habitual rapidity in plan and execution, such as their perpetual warfare and predatory habits continually require. Their talent for repartee is well known: when one, who could repeat all the Hadith, or sayings of Mahomet, by heart, was asked how his memory could retain so many different sentences at once, he instantly replied; "Just as the sand in the desert retains all the pearly drops that fall from the heavens without losing a single one." Another, on being asked how he knew that there is only one God, answered, "I can recognise a man by his footsteps in the sand; and must not the constellations, the productions of the earth, and the waves of the sea, convince me that there is one God." In answer to the same question, a third said, "Does the light of dawn require a torch in order to make it visible?" The vehement and unrestrained emotions incident to so wild a condition, give force and animation to every line of the Arabian poems, and their satires are as keen and pointed, as their odes and elegies are impassioned and emphatic.

Living constantly, as these Arabs do, under the tents of camel's hair, solely occupied with the care of their flocks and herds, speaking nearly the same language, and many of them placed in the very regions where they were traversed by the Israelites under Moses, their usages and habits bear the strongest resemblance to those of the Jewish Patriarchs, who were nomades in the strictest sense; and from no source can more copious illustrations of the Mosiac accounts be drawn, than from a minute and accurate description of the peculiarities by which they are distinguished. The *Memoirs of the Chevalier d'Arvieux* have already supplied much curious and useful information on this subject; but no European probably ever observed their manners and customs with so much care, and under such favourable circumstances, as the traveller whose work we have just quoted; and as that publication has added much to our knowledge of sacred geography, so may we venture to predict his account of the Bedowins will enlarge our views of the Patriarchal period of the Jewish History.

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BE- To undertake to attempt a complete enumeration of DOWINS the Bedowin tribes, would be a task almost as hopeless as it would be uninteresting to most of our readers. Though each tribe has its peculiar territory, upon which its neighbours do not think themselves authorized to encroach; war and rapine often occasion voluntary or involuntary removals; and many remarkable changes of abode would, doubtless, be found by any one who could compare the accounts collected by Soyûti in the fifteenth century, with the present actual position of the different tribes. The principal families noticed by travellers in modern times are—

I. Those on the southern and eastern side of the Great Arabian and Syrian Desert, extending from the Province of Nejed and El Ahsâ to the banks of the Euphrates.

1. Beni Khâled, (the children of Khâled,) in El Ahsâ.

2. Beni Kiyh, on the northern side of the Persian Gulf, and in Persia.

3. Beni Lâni, on the Tigris.

4. Montefic, or Montefij, on the Euphrates, between Basrah and Baghdad.

II. Those on the borders of Mesopotamia, (Al Jezirah,) nominally subject to the Pasha of Baghdad.

1. Tâi, one of the most ancient and powerful tribes; rendered illustrious by one of its Princes named Hâtim, whose generosity is the subject of many well known romances. This tribe occupies the fertile plains between Mosul and Nisibis.

2. A few more important clans.

III. Those on the confines of Syria, who provide escorts for the caravans of pilgrims to Mecca.

1. The Mawali.

2. The Beni Sâker.

3. The Fâhili, and

4. The Anezeh, one of the most numerous and powerful, extending from Syria to the Nejed. It is divided into five inferior clans; is master of the whole caravan-route between Aleppo and Medinah, and during the reign of the Wahhâbia, was one of their most powerful adherents.

IV. More than an hundred other tribes have been mentioned by the writers named below; and there are several in Oman, Hadramaut, Mahrah, and other provinces of the Arabian Peninsula, never visited by any European travellers. The Bedowins also occupy a large portion of Egypt, stretch along the banks of the Nile almost to the confines of Abyssinia, and are met with in the Sûdân itself, as far as the fifteenth degree of east longitude. The latter call themselves branches of the Anezehs, Johinahs, and other well known tribes in the Arabian and Syrian Deserts; and it is remarkable that all the Bedowins of the Sûdân differ entirely in colour and features from the Negroes, approaching more to the Arab cast, and one of the Beni Hassan, established in Dûr Katak, near Bornu, whom Burckhardt met at Mecca, "was of the darkest brown colour, somewhat approaching to a copper tinge;" yet "his features were decidedly Arab, having nothing of the Negro in them." (Burckhardt's *Nôbe*, p. 477.)

Amusing sketches of the Bedowins may be found in Valney, Sonnini, Bruce, and other Asiatic travellers; but by far the most accurate accounts are those of the Chevalier d'Arvieux, *Mémoires*, 6 tomes, in 12mo. Paris, 1735, edited by Fother Labat, Niebuhr,

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BE-
DOWNE.
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BEDRID.

Beschreibung von Arabien, p. 379. Setzen, *Von Zachs Monatsliche Correspondenz*, 1819, February and March. Description of *l'Egypte*, *Memoirs par Dubois et Larrey*. Much information may be collected from different parts of Burckhardt's *Travels*; but as he left also a separate and very detailed account of the Bedouins, having taken great delight in studying their manners and character, and in comparing them with the accounts of Moses and other ancient writers, it is to be hoped that the African Association will be encouraged to give that work also to the public.

The history of the Arabian tribes is to be found in the *Mezhar* of Soyûti, and in the great historical works of Abû l'Fedi, Shahrîstânî, and Makrizî; and a considerable portion of it, in an abridged form, is given in Pococke's *Specimen Historiæ Arabum*, (p. 38.) and Sale's *Preliminary Discourse* in his *Translation of the Korân*, (p. 8.) See also Barchard's *Translations from Makrizî*, (Nubia. Appendix, No. iii.) Quatremère's *Mémoires sur l'Egypte*, ii. 190.; Volney, *Voyages*, ii. 25.; Sonnini, *Voyages en Egypte*, cap. xxvii.; Jackson's *Account of Morocco*, p. 92b.

BEDOWL, be and dowl. *Bedowled* seems here used as if *dowl* meant *down*: but see **DOWL**.

At Aganly, than, lay thee down to drink
Unstiff thy stomach sweet to raise thy name,
What thou' time yet cannot *bedowled* thy chin?

Chaucer. An Eclogue.

BEDRAGGLE, be and dragle. *Dragle* from *drag*.
To drag, draw, or drawl along.

Poor Patty Blount no more be seen,
Bedraggled in my walks so green.

Seyt. Pastoral Dialogue.

BEDRAWE, be and draw. A. S. *dragan*; Dutch,
dragen. To drag or draw.

And after take the dewy core,
And let it *bedrawe* away with horns
Unto the bounde, unto the rauen,
She was some other wise drawn.

Gower. Conf. Am. fol. 59.

BEDREINTE, } From the A. S. *bedrecean*, *dren-*
BETREINTE, } *cea*; to drench or drink; which
two words differ only in the application. See **DAENCKE**
and **DAENCKE**.

With doleful chere, full feile in their complaint
Cried Lady Venus, weve upon our sore
Receive our billes, with leares all be *bedreit*.

Chaucer. The Court of Love, fol. 351.

BEDRIBBLE, be and dribble. A. S. *drispan*; Dutch,
druppen, to drop or drip. To *dribble* is to drip or drop,
slowly, in small quantities.

His fathers, like sepulchral dogs, tore up the graves of God's
saints and gnawed upon their dead bones; and now this whelp of
theirs, committing crimes, *bedribbles* their souls.

Hall. The Hen of the Married Clergie, v. l. sec. viii.

BEDRID, *bedd* and *rid*. A. S. *ridan*; *insidere*, *in-*
camerare. A. S. *bedreda*. One so weak through sickness
or old age, that he cannot rise from his bed. *Bedred*,
Somner. *Bedd-raise*. A man fixed to his bed by con-
tinued sickness. *Rise* from *risen*, *cadere*. Wachter.

And a layde man for a bordoun, oþ a *bed reden* woman.

Piers Plowman. Vision, p. 115.

For wile or wo she n'ill him not forsake:

She n'a not wery him to love and serve,

Though that he be *bedred* till that he sterre.

Chaucer. The Marchante Tale, v. 9166.

Why diddest thou, not only heale him that was *bedrid* thirty-
eight years, but also bade him trye his bedde away upon the
Sabbath day.
Lyndall's Works, fol. 237.

When showres of teares from the celestial globe,
Beswail'd the face of new-born Brittain;
When smiles as frequent were as various sighs,
When Hope lay *bed-rid* and all pleasures dying.

Brown. Eclog. on Prince of Wales.

Man, wilt thou then serve the Phillisians with that gift
Which was expressly giv'n thee to annoy them?
Better at home lie *bed-rid*, not only idle,
Inglorious, unemployed, & walk age out-worn.

Milton. Sam. Ag.

Fear not now the fever's fire,
Fear not now the death-bed gown,
Pangs that torture, pangs that tire,
Bed-rid age with feeble moon.

Mann. Caractes.

BEDROFT, be and drop. A. S. *drispan*; Dutch,
druppen. To drip or drop.

And as men see the dew *bedrops*

The leaves and the flowers etc.:

Right so upon his white cheek:

The would saille tears fell.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii, fol. 170.

(Not so thick swart'd o'er the soil

Bedroft with blood of Gorgon, or the lake

Optima.) *Milton. Paradise Lost, book x.*

She [Lady Raleigh] has on a dark colour'd hanging-sleeve robe,
tuff'd on the arms; and under it, a close-bodied gown of white
sattin, flower'd with black; with close sleeves down her wrist;
has a rich ruff in her ear, *bedroft* with large pearls.

Clay's Life of Raleigh, fol. 145.

The priest whose flattery bedroft the crown,

How hurt he you, he only stain'd the gown.

Pope. Imitation of Horace, Ep. vii.

BEDUCKED, *ducken*, *duyken*. *Submersit latitare*,
sublitterare *sens.* Killian. *Ducken*, *currere*, *inclinare*, *deprimere* *ad terram*. Wachter.

To dip, dive or drop, to sink down.

The varlet saw, when to the flood he came,
How without stop or stay he fiercely leapt,
And deep himself *beducked* in the same,

That in the lake his lolly crest was steep'd,
Ne of his safety seemed care he kept.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book ii. c. vi.

BEDUNG, be and dung. A. S. *dyngan*, *deicere*, to
cast down. Applied to that which is cast down, (*sc.*)
after passing through the body of an animal.

And had still gone on to triumph over that trembling army, had
not God's interposed champion, by divine instinct, takes up the
manner, and vanquish him, leaving still but his head to *bedung*
that earth, which had lately shaken at his terror.

Hall. Memorials, Decade i. fol. 181.

BEDWARF. Dutch and Swe. *dwargh*; Ger. *zwerg*;
A. S. *deowol*. Wachter thinks they were so called by
the ancient Germans, who were proud of their huge
stature, as if *zwerg*, *maß*, *provi*, *et error natura genti*

But 'tis not so: we're not *ret'd*, but *damp'd*,
And as our bodies, so our minds are *comp'd*:
'Tis shrinking, not close wearing, that hath thus
In mind and body both *bedwarfed* us.

Dante. Anatomy of the World.

BEDYE, be and dye. A. S. *deagan*, *tingere*, *infingere*,
inficere, *imbuerere*. Somner. To stain, to colour, to dip
or steep.

There licks and lymys in salt water *bedyit*,

Strekit on the coist, spread furs, belkit and dryt.

Douglas. Eneid, book i. fol. 18.

BEEVE.
—BEECH.

Faire Goddess lay that furious fit aside,
Th' l of warres and bloody Mars doe sig,
And Briton fields with heretic blood bedide,
Twist that great Fairy Queene and Paynim King,
That with their horrow beaues and earth did sig.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book i. can. xi.

And thereforthall doe three her garments lay aside,
Vnder the which a thousand things I saw with eie,
Both knives, sharpe swords, pismires all bedide
With blood, and poisons great which stee could well deir.

Mr. for May. 66.

BEE, } A. S. *beo*; Dutch, *bie* or *bye*; Ger.
BEEHIVE, } *bien*; Swe. *bē*. Wachter, because
BEEHASTERS, } these animals dwell together under
one government, and build their dwellings with great
skill and industry, would derive their name from the
A. S. *bean*, *habitare*, *enigiter*.

Lo, like a busy bee withouten gile
Thou servest thy this oven thoul Cattle.

Chaucer. The Second Nonnes Tale, v. 15663.

Like to the bee in the field barret new,
Gadding there and here, of many divers new,
In soft summer the bright sun leat schuyng
Queen of there kynd thame hat awarise out bryng,
Or jokame licture thare hony clene,
And with swete liquor stuffe thare cellis schene,
Or reasins the hives from vnde thairout,
Or fra thare lyff togidder in a rout
Expelle the bowler best, the feryt drone be,
Thare habiter is busy and fervent for to se,
The hony smellis of the swete tyne seid.

Douglas. Eneid, book i.

And lyke as bees among the flowers, when from the summer faller
In sways of one apple their work, when greener is thy yong
Or when their hives they gin to stop, and hony sweet is sprung;
That at their caves and cellers close with dulcet liquor fillen;
Some dath valude, some other brings the stuffe with ready wylles;
Sometime they joine, and all at once do from their managers fet
The stouffful drone, that would consume, and sought will do to
get

The worke it heates, the hony smellis of flowers and time ywet.

Pharr. Eneidos.

Thus to their toils, in early summer, run
The chafing bees, and labour in the sun;
Led forth, in colonies, their bustling race,
Or work the liquid sweets, and thicken to a mass,
The busy nation flies from flow'r to flow'r,
And hounds, in curious cells, the golden store;
A chosen troop before the gate attend,
To take the burdens, and relieve their friends;
Warm at the fragrant work, in bands, they drive
The drone, a lazy robber, from the hive.

Pitt.

And Mr. Butler, a great bee-master, in his *Frameline Monarchie*
hath observed, that the drones are such by kinde, not by accident, (i. e. not by losing their stings.)

Halewell. Apologie, fol. 11.

[He should] take it well and be thankful, if haply by some
sharp words and cutting speeches, any man hath cleaned and
purified his heart full of cloudy mist and palpable darkness, like
as men drive bee-hives, and rid away bees with smoke.

Holland's Plutarch, 47.

BEE-BIRD, in Zoology, a name given by Montagu to the
Muscicapa Griseola, or Spotted Fly-Catcher. See
MUSCICAPA.

BEE-NETTLE, a name given to the *Galeopsis ver-*
sicolor.

BEECH, } A. S. *bece*; Dutch, *beuche*; Ger.
BEECHEN, } *buche*; Swe. *bok*. There are not a few
BEECHES, } (says Ibre) who derive the northern
word from the Greek *φύκη* and Latin *fagus*, being
changed into *b*, as in a hundred instances: *φύκη* was
called *βύκη* *τὰ φύκη*, because the mast-bearing tree
supplied men with food in the earliest ages.

BEECH.
—BEEF.

This false Chanoe (the fowle feed him fetch)
That of his lawne take a beechen cole,
In which full subtilty was made an hole.
Chaucer. The Chanones Yconostas Tale, v. 16629.

But oft, when vnderneath the greene wood shade,
Her stocks lay hid from Phobus scorching shade,
Vnto her knight she songs and sonnets made,
And them engar'd in banks of beech and hales.

Fairfax. Gullfrey of Basing, book vii. st. 19.

A beechen mast then, in a hollow base
They put, and hoisted; flat it in his place
With cables. *Chapman. Iliad. Od. B. li. fol. 30.*

The gentle shepherds on an hillock plac'd,
(Whose sludy head a beechy garland crown'd),
View'd all their stocks that on the pastures graze'd:
Then down they sit while Thersit' ran the round.

P. Fletcher. The Purple Island, c. vi.

On earth's fair bed beneath some sacred shade,
Amidst his equal friends carefully laid,
He sings thee, Beechen, patron of the vine;
The beechen bowl foams with a flood of wine,
Not to the loss of reason, or of strength.

Cowley. Translation from Virgil.

I know not why the beech delights the glade,
With boughs extended, and a roscader shade;
Whilst towering firs in conic form arise,
And with a pointed spear divide the skies.

Prior. Knowledge, book i.

When Emma hunts, in huntsman's habit drest,
Heary on foot pursues the bounding beast,
In his right hand his beechen pole he bears;
And graceful at his side his horn he wears.

Prior. Henry and Emma.

Heroes and their feats
Fatigued me, never weary of the pipe
Of Tityrus, assembling, as he sang,
The rustic throng beneath his fair rite beech.

Cowper. Task, book iv.

BEEF, n. } Fr. *boeuf*; from the Latin *bos*,
BEEF, adj. } *bovis*; the Greek, *βοειν*, from *βω*,
BEEFWITTED. } (*βωειν*) to feed.

Or give us of your braun, if ye have any,

Bacon or beef, or swiche thing as ye find.

Chaucer. The Scowpours Tale, v. 7332.

Also in the land of Palestyne and in the land of Egypt, they eten
but lyttle or non of Beesche of veal or of beef.

Sir J. Mandeville. Travels, c. vi.

Beefes and motons were also dere for scarcenesse of grasse and
pasture.

Falsgar. Ann. 1455.

Han by the sight accused thieves
Shaine his lambs, or stole his beeches.

Brown. The Shepherd's Pipe, Eccl. li.

ARA. Thou bitch-wolfe-souce, canst y' not heare?
Felic then.

THEE. The pleasure of Greece upon thee thou

Mengrell beef-witted lord.

Shakespeare. Troilus and Cressida, fol. 84.

[I shall lay down a] conjecture (for the greater facility of the
calculation) what proportion each of them [beasts in the ark]
may bear, either to a beef, or a sheep, or a wolf; and then what
kind of room may be allotted to the making of sufficient stalls for
their reception.

Withers. Best Character, fol. 164.

He, that of honest, wit, and mirth, partakes,
May be a fit companion o'er beef steaks;
His name may be to future times enroll'd,
In Esau's book, whose grinders frum'd of gold.

Ains. Art of Cookery.

BEEF.

BEEJA-
FOOR.

On some, a priest succet in amice white
Attends; all flesh is nothing in his sight;
Beasts, at his touch, at once to jelly turn,
And the huge boar is shrunk into an urn.

Pope. *The Dunciad*, book iv.

As these were dishes with which I was utterly unacquainted, I was desirous of seeing only what I knew, and therefore begged to be helped from a piece of beef that lay on the side table: my request at once disconcerted the whole company.

Goldsmith. *Citizen of the World*, Letter xxxii.

BEEFEATER, in *Zoology*, the English name of the *Buphaga* *Africana*. See BUPHAGA.

BEEJAPUR (Bijā-pūr, an corruption of Vijaya-pur, the city of Victory, the original name of the capital,) a large province on the Deccan, between the fifteenth and eighteenth degrees of north latitude; bounded on the north and east by Aurang-shād; on the east and south by that province and Hindur-shād, along the course of the B'hima river; and on the south by the Bāla-g'hāt, Ceded districts, and Canara; and on the west by the Indian Ocean. The chain of the western G'hāts traverses this province at a moderate distance from the coast, and in a direction parallel with it; but the mountains gradually expand into plains in the centre, and on the eastern side of the province; and the level country is well watered by several streams, of which the principal are the Crishna Tumb'hadra, B'hima, and Gaturba. The productions of this country are generally similar to those of the rest of the Decan; but the neighbourhood of the B'hima is celebrated for its breed of horses, and supplies the best cavalry in the Mahratta armies.

The territorial divisions are as follow:

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. The Cōcan. | 9. Gajindra-gar'h. |
| 2. Cōlā-pūr. | 10. Anāgrūdi. |
| 3. Murtezā-shād. | 11. Banā-pūr. |
| 4. Ased-nagar. | 12. Gindac. |
| 5. District of Bijā-pūr. | 13. Nārgul. |
| 6. Sācar. | 14. Azim-nagar. |
| 7. Fāi-chūr. | 15. Rāi-bāgh. |
| 8. Mudgal. | |

The divisions under the Mahratta government were somewhat different, (see Scott Waring's *History of the Mahratta*, p. 243.) Of the rivers which flow through this province, the largest is the Crishna, (erroneously called Krishna and Kistna,) which derives its name from the dark colour of its waters, or from some mythological connection with the history of the Indian Apollo, a favourite deity of the Hindūs, who bears the name of Crishna. It rises in the western G'hāts, not more than forty-two miles in a straight line from the coast, and flows in a south-westerly direction, till it passes Merich, where it is greatly increased by the waters of the Wārah; and subsequently bending to the eastward, after having received in its course the principal streams of this part of India, discharges itself into the Bay of Bengal, by three distinct channels. Through a great part of its course the banks are too high to allow of its being used for the purposes of irrigation. It does not, therefore, contribute so much to the fertility of the surrounding country as the Ganges and its tributary streams; nor does it carry so large a body of waters to the ocean as the Gōdāvari; but it is probably more abundant in gems than any other river in India. During the dry season, diamonds, cats-eyes,

onyxes, and chalcidoles, are said to be found in its bed, as well as a small portion of gold. It is properly the southern boundary of the Decan, or of the South, as the Musselmans established in the Upper India called this part of the peninsula. The whole length of its course may be estimated at 700 miles.

The Tumb'hadra, or Tungu-b'hadra, named from the Tumbhakra two streams by the junction of which it is formed, comes from the same mountainous region, the most elevated land in this part of the peninsula; its sources are in the neighbourhood of Bednē and Mangalūr, and after following a very winding course, it pours its waters into the Crishna. It was for a considerable time the boundary of the British territories in this part of India.

Of the B'hima or BHM we have already given an account in the article AURANG-ABAD.

1. Cōcan, Cōcanā, or Cōcān, is a large district, 1. Cōcan, occupying the whole seacoast of this province: it is bounded on the north by the small river Sāwārī separating it from Cālyāl; on the west by the Indian Ocean; on the south by Canara; and on the east by the G'hāts. Its length is about 220 miles, and its average breadth thirty-five. The principal subdivisions are Cōcan, B'hōnāla, and Goa. Formed by the gradual declivity of the mountains towards the sea, it presents a very unequal surface, intersected by numerous streams and torrents, with a coast abounding in bays and inlets; but it has no considerable streams, or deep and spacious harbours. The soil below the G'hāts is fertile, and produces the grains, for which this coast has been always celebrated, in great abundance; but the hemp, though stronger than that raised on the table land, is said not to give any productive seed. The sea air here, as elsewhere, is favourable to the growth of the cocoon-ut; and the trees planted near the coast require less care, and are more vigorous than those cultivated higher up the country. The Brāhmans of this province are a peculiar race, much favoured in the Mahratta Empire, though not acknowledged by their brethren in the rest of India. A peculiar language is used in Canana, closely connected in origin, if not immediately derived from the Sanscrit. This country was finally taken possession of by the British government in 1818.

Bancoot, or Fort Victoria, is a small fortress in a Bancoot, or commanding position at the entrance of the Banādi Fort Victoria river, in lat. 17° 56' N. long. 73° 19' E. at the northern extremity of the Cōcan. It was, like Gherāt, a nest of pirates, when taken by the English forces, in conjunction with the Mahrattas, in 1756, and was immediately taken in exchange for that important post. Its territory comprehends nine villages on both sides of the river Mahār, commonly called Bancoot, and intermixed with those belonging to the neighbouring powers. The advantage of living under the British authority is such, that in 1812 the population of this little territory had doubled within the last ten years; and would have increased still more rapidly, but for want of fresh water, a deficiency since remedied by order of government. The industry of the inhabitants, who have to struggle against all the disadvantages of a barren, rocky soil, shew what Hindū perseverance can do when not checked by oppression. The Hindūs and Musselmans are in nearly equal proportions. Mahār, about twenty-five miles above Banādi, is the principal place on the river, which is navigable so far

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FOOR.Krishna
river.

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for small vessels: a sand-bank at its mouth, which is continually increasing, prevents the entrance of large ships. The population of this territory was estimated at 17,000 souls, and its revenue, after deducting the ordinary charges, amounted to 17,737 rupees, (£2,917.)

Savara-
drug.

Sáveo-drug, (or Savara-durga, the golden fortress) is another celebrated post in this district of the province of Bija-púr. It is a small rocky isle, within cannon-shot of the continent, in lat. 17° 46' N., long. 73° 15' E. It was the head-quarters of the pirates Angria, and taken from him by Commodore James, in 1766.

Zygbar.

Jay-gar'h is a port on this coast, in lat. 17° 14' N., long. 73° 33' E. at the entrance of a river about three quarters of a mile broad, and navigable a considerable distance up. This harbour affords shelter during the south-west monsoon for vessels of all draught.

Vijala-
drug.

Vijaya-durga, or Vijay-drug, is another convenient port on this coast, at the mouth of a river navigable for twenty-five miles inland, and affording shelter for ships of considerable tonnage within the entrance. As there is no bar or sunken rock, this harbour is, on the whole, considered as the best on this coast after Bombay.

Gheriat.

Gheriat (Giriyá, mountainous,) a well-known fortress, on a small rocky promontory, in lat. 16° 30' N., 73° 25' E. connected with the continent by a narrow strip of land. It is near the entrance of a harbour, and is the place where the pirate Angria established an independent sovereignty in 1707. In 1756, it was taken by Admiral Watson, and Colonel, afterwards Lord Clive, who destroyed all Angria's fleet, and put an end to his dominion.

2. B'hánsa-
sals.

2. B'hánsa, the second divisioo of the Cóncan, is bounded on the north by Dég'har river, on the west by the sea, and on the south by the Portuguese settlement of Goa. It consists, like the rest of this district, of a sloping ground, descending from the western Gháts to the sea, and is watered by many mountain streams and torrents.

Dargbar.

It has several strong posts on rocky heights, difficult of access; the principal ones are, Dég'har, or Dég'har, in lat. 16° 21' N., long. 73° 30' E. on an island commanding a fine harbour, into which a navigable river flows. B'ghwant-gar'h is thirteen miles farther to the south, on the Masúra river. It, together with Dég'har, was captured by the British troops in 1818, and is placed in a very inaccessible position, in the midst of rocks and precipices.

Warree, or
Newwar
Warree.

Wárf, or Sáwant Wárf, is the principal town in this division: its chief usually bore the title of B'hánsa; whence arose the name of the territory. This town is in lat. 15° 56' N., long. 74° E. The territory stretches along the coast, about forty miles northward from Goa, and twenty-five miles eastward from the sea of the Gháts. The whole country is rocky, and generally barren; a large portion of it has never been cultivated, being, in the neighbourhood of the mountains, covered with wood, (jungle,) and towards the coast entirely bare. Though thinly peopled, its bold and rocky hills render it naturally strong, and the vicinity of its strong holds to the sea makes it exactly the country calculated for the abode of pirates. Wárf became an independent state through the assistance of the Moghuls, shortly before the death of Sámb'háji, in 1685, and continued to infest the adjoining seas with

its piratical fleets till 1812, when the reigning sovereign, a woman, entered into a treaty with the Bombay government, by which she relinquished piracy, and ceded the fortress of Vingorla, with a small surrounding territory, in lat. 15° 48' N., long. 73° 47' E. This and some other similar cessions were substantial securities for the observation of the treaties thus concluded. Wárf, the capital of this little state, together with the fortresses of Néárf and Rárf, were taken possession of by British force in 1817, after many fruitless attempts to prevail on the sovereigns of these petty states to observe their engagements to each other, and to the British government.

Malwan, or Sundar-drug, is a fortified island on this coast, in lat. 15° 53' N., and long. 73° 47' E. It was obtained, as mentioned above, in 1813, from the Rája of Cólá-púr, for the purpose of enabling our government to put an effectual check to the piratical expeditions of the native chiefs. The soil is extremely fertile, and produces abundance of cocoa and betel nuts, grains of different kinds, sugar, ginger, saffron, cardamoms, pepper, and other tropical vegetables. Hemp may be cultivated to any extent; and iron is found in the mountains, but it is worked in a very clumsy manner by the inhabitants. Malwan has an excellent harbour, and its trade is increasing; but the neighbouring country is thinly peopled. The revenue in 1812 amounted to 24,000 rupees, (£3,000.)

3. Goa, (Gowah, or more properly Govay,) the 3. Goa, capital of the Portuguese settlements in the east, forms, together with its territory, the southern division of the Cóncan. It is placed in lat. 15° 30' N., and 74° 2' E. The new town, which is the residence of the Viceroy, is at the mouth of the river, protected by the forts of the harbour. The old town, remarkable for the magnificence and architecture of its churches, is nearly eight miles up the river; but the unhealthiness of its situation, and the dread of the Inquisition, have caused it to be almost deserted in modern times. The number of ecclesiastics in this settlement is very considerable, and in 1808 was estimated at 3000. The Portuguese territory occupies about 400 square miles; but this includes the sea between the islands. The trade, which was a royal monopoly, has latterly declined very much; and the difficulty of procuring European goods was such as rendered Goa a very uncomfortable residence: contrasting its singularity with the English settlements in its neighbourhood, where every luxury was found in the greatest abundance. Arrack, made from toddy, (or tálí,) the fluid extracted from the trunks of palm-trees, was its principal manufacture; but a similar spirit, obtained from rice and sugar, and manufactured at Batavia, has superseded that of Goa. The Portuguese language is, of course, more prevalent here than elsewhere in India; but a barbarous mixture of that and the Canara and Mahratta languages, is the proper dialect of the place.

After having been long possessed by the Hindh Rája of Bija-púr, Goa fell into the hands of the Musselman Sovereigns of the Decan, of the Bahmani dynasty, about 1470; and was taken by the great Albuquerque in 1510. It was at one period the mistress of all the European establishments in the eastern seas; but the perseverance and activity of the Dutch, seconded by the astuteness of the Spanish government, during its occupation of Portugal at the close of the

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Vingorla.

Malwan, or
Sundar-
drug.

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sixteenth century, completed the downfall of the Portuguese Empire in India; and during the late war Goa was occupied by the British troops, with the consent and approbation of the Court of Lisbon. It was restored after the peace of 1814.

By much the greatest part of the inhabitants are the spurious offspring of Europeans and native converts, or their descendants; and though the terrors of the Inquisition secured a nominal conformity to the church of Rome, yet many idolatrous superstitions were secretly retained; and a greater jumble of incongruous absurdities can hardly be conceived, than that which forms the creed of many of the lower classes at Goa. Its trade has very greatly increased since the return of peace; and besides its commercial intercourse with the Brazils, it carries on a small trade with our own eastern possessions, and those still retained by the mother country, which are Damão Diu, Delli, the island of Timor, and Macao, in China.

2. Cola-
poor.

3. Cola-poor was in the *Serár* of Rát-bágh, according to the former division of this province, and subsequently formed a small independent state. It consists of several districts, some above, others below the mountains, so intermingling with those of the neighboring states, as not to be discriminated without much difficulty. The Rájás are derived, by adoption, from Samb'há, grandson of Sévájí, the founder of the Mahratta Empire. The capital of this territory is placed in lat. 16° 19' N., and long. 74° 25' E. in a strong, hilly country, but little known, having been scarcely ever visited by any Europeans.

Parnella.

Parrella, (Parnálaya,) in lat. 16° 47' N., long. 74° 17' E. is the most beautiful place in the Mahratta dominions, and the post at which Adrángzáb was encamped, when Sir William Norris came as ambassador from the East India Company to his court, in 1701.

3. Mortis-
abad.

3. Mortis-abad, (contracted from Mortezá-ábád,) is a small division of the province, to the east of the G'háts; it is hilly, and at a much greater elevation above the sea than the Cócán. The Crishna, which traverses nearly the whole of it, rises at Mahábalsar, within this division of Bija-poor. Among its most remarkable places is the hill-fort of Satarah, a strong hold of no small celebrity in the Mahratta annals. Its name signifies seventeen, the reputed number of its towers. It stands in lat. 17° 42' N., long. 74° 18' E. on the highest pinnacle of a hill, and is accessible only by a narrow winding path, which admits no more than one person at a time. A wall of solid rock, thirty or forty feet in height, surrounds it on all sides. The surrounding country has many similar sites, occupied, as this is, by fortresses which, to a native army, must be nearly impregnable, except by stratagem. Kelingah is considered as almost capable of baffling European skill, if resolutely defended. Satarah was first occupied by the Mahrattas under Sévájí, in 1651; and is remarkable for having been for more than a century a sort of state prison for his successors, who were kept by their ministers, the Peshwas, in a more complete state of subjection than were the successors of Charlemagne by the *Meires du Palus*. Never were appearances more studiously observed, than in the intercourse between those puppets of sovereignty and their real masters, though nominal servants, the Peshwas. In 1818, when the English government had found it absolutely necessary to put an end to the usurpation of the Peshwa, it was thought right to reinstate the

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POOR.

Raja of Satarah in an independent territory. An area of about 11,000 square miles was reserved for that purpose. It is bounded by the G'háts on the west; by the Wárah and Crishna rivers on the south; by the Nizám's dominions on the east; and by the rivers Nira and Bhima on the north. The clear revenue, however, does not amount to more than about sixteen lacs of rupees, (£300,000, nearly) as more than one half of the lands are possessed by feudatory lords, who are exempted from any allegiance or tribute to the Rájá. The principal towns in the Rájá's dominions are, Satarah, Pundar-pur, Bija-pur, Mahábalsar, Merich, and Hattání; and a considerable portion of the eastern part of the province is comprehended within this newly-formed territory.

Merich, (i.e. producing pepper,) a considerable town, in lat. 16° 51' N., long. 74° 47' E. formerly the capital of a Hindú principality, and since the residence of Parasu Rám, and other Mahratta chiefs. It is now within the limits of the Satarah Rájá's dominions.

Carrá, a considerable town in the valley of Satarah, in lat. 12° 30' N., long. 74° 40' E. It is remarkable for two very lofty and beautiful pagodas, and is surrounded by an extremely fertile country.

Táj-góang, fifteen miles north from Merich, is lat. 17° 4' N., long. 74° 40' E. It was fortified by Parasu Rám B'hád in 1792, and is considered as his capital.

4. Ased-nagar, (the city of lions,) a division of this province, bounded on the north and east by the Nira and Bhima; by Mortezábad and Satarah, on the south and west. It is rendered fertile by numerous streams, though hilly and rugged like the rest of the province. Its principal town is Pundar-pur, (Pun-yá-hara-pura,) on the left bank of the Bhima, in lat. 17° 42' N., and long. 75° 26' E. It is large and well-built, having many handsome houses, and what is more extraordinary in an Indian city, broad, well-paved streets. The markets are extensive, and well supplied; and the shops are furnished not only with native productions, but with many articles of English manufacture. The banks of the river are lined with stone walls, and handsome flights of steps lead down to the water's edge. The houses are built of stone and brick, and have a good appearance. The trade and population of this place are considerable, and the soil round it is fertile, but little cultivated, as it is held too sacred by the Bráhmans to be used for such unholy purposes, as producing food for mortals: a holy shrub is the only production they suffer to be raised. A subordinate and late incarceration of Vishnu is peculiarly honoured in this town, under the title of Wittoba. His image is the principal temple is as large as life, and is visited by myriads of pilgrims.

5. Bija-pur (Vijaya-puri, the victorious city) a large S. Beja-division of the province, bounded on the north by the Bhima; on the west by the Mán and Angari; on the south by the Crishna; on the east by Satarah and other small divisions. It has suffered greatly from war and oppression, and is now, comparatively with what it once was, poor and thinly peopled. Its chief city is Bija-pur or Vijaya-puri, formerly the capital of the province, and called Viziaspur by the European travellers of the three last centuries. It is in lat. 16° 46' N. and long. 75° 47' E. When taken by Adrángzáb in 1659, it was one of the most wealthy, extensive, and populous cities in Asia; but it fell with the kingdom

Merritch.

Kerwar.

Tanj-gong.

Ased-nagar.

Pondur-mer.

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under which it flourished, and now presents nothing to the eye but shapeless heaps of ruins. The outer wall, a considerable part of which yet remains, was twenty feet thick, flanked with large towers at intervals of 100 yards; the ditch had vast dimensions, and was excavated out of the solid rock; the fort appears, from its ruins, to have been about eight miles in circumference, and was probably one of the largest in the world. At the distance of a mile and a half from its western wall, there are magnificent remains of the ancient city and the tombs of several Mohammedan saints, which are visited with great devotion by Musselman pilgrims. The Mosque and Mausoleum of Ibrahim Adil Sháh, the Bahmaní Sovereign of this country, so often mentioned by the Portuguese historians of India, still retain the wrecks of their former splendour, though much injured by the neglect and depredations of the Marhattas. Their common basement is nearly 400 feet long by 150 feet broad. The fort, which is in a better state of preservation than the rest of the city, contains the great Mosque, nearly 300 feet in length, and 160 in breadth, having a large reservoir within its enclosure; and the Mausoleum of Sultan Mahmud Sháh, which has a dome 117 feet in diameter. An inner fort, anciently the exclusive residence of the Sovereign, contains a small but handsome Mosque built by Ali Adil Sháh, almost the only building still kept in repair. Though this fortress contains several distinct villages, and is in a great part encumbered with ruins, there is yet room for some cornfields and enclosures; a fact which conveys a more just idea of its vast extent than any description. The rock on which the city stood, furnished abundance of stone for public and private buildings, and the style of their architecture often unites elegance with solidity. Abundance of water, and, to the north, a level productive soil, rendered it an agreeable as well as an advantageous residence, and give an air of probability to the splendid accounts of its former wealth and magnificence.

Hattány. The principal place in this district is Hattány, a large and populous town in lat. $16^{\circ} 43' N.$ and long. $75^{\circ} 15' E.$ carrying on an extensive trade in cottons, silks and grain. A large and excellent d'harm-sála or caravansary, affords accommodation to the many traders, attracted by the manufactures of this place, and the abundant supplies of grain from the neighbourhood. It had considerable dealings with the English established in this part of India, in the latter part of the seventeenth century.

6. Sacher 6. Sácar is a district between 16° and 17° north lat. called by the Musselmans Núrsh-ábád, and belonging to the Nizám of the Decan. It is included within an angle formed by the rivers Crishna and B'ham; and is fertile, though thinly peopled. Its chief town bears the same name, and is placed in lat. $15^{\circ} 36' N.$ and long. $76^{\circ} 47' E.$

7. Raichoor 7. Rái-chúr or Ráichúr is a district, at the south-western angle of this province, bounded by the Crishna and Tumb'hadra rivers. Its capital bearing the same name, is in lat. $16^{\circ} 9' N.$ long. $77^{\circ} 30' E.$ an irregular and ill fortified town, for some time the residence of Dák Jáh, nephew of the late Nizám h-dáuláh, Séúlsháár of the Decan.

8. Mudgal 8. Mudgal, a small district like the last to the south of the Crishna, and enclosed between it and the Tumb'hadra, is in lat. $16^{\circ} 8' N.$ long. $76^{\circ} 26' E.$ It was

ravaged by the Musselmans under Aláu'd-dín, in the beginning of the fourteenth century.

9. Gajndrá-gar'h is a Mahratta district bounded by the same rivers on the south, west and north, and by Malparba to the east. Its capital Gajndrá-gar'h is in lat. $16^{\circ} 43' N.$ and long. $76^{\circ} 3' E.$ This district was for a short time independent of the Peshvá.

10. Anágúndi, a small district on the north bank of the Tumb'hadra. Its chief towns are Bijnágar and Cópul. The native Rájás retained their authority as tributaries to the Musselman Princes of the Decan till Tipú took possession of Anágúndi or Bijnágar in 1796, and expelled the Hindú Sovereign. He however recovered his dominions in 1799, but was finally dislodged by our troops. This district has since been ceded to the Nizám. Its capital Vijaya-nagara, or the victorious city, called Bijnágar in Hindú, and Anágúndi in Canarese, occasionally also Alpanth, is in lat. $15^{\circ} 14' N.$ long. $76^{\circ} 37' E.$ The ruins of the ancient city are on the south side of the Tumb'hadra; it occupied about eight miles in circumference, and was bounded on the eastern side by strong walls, and by the river on the west. lofty, shelving, rocky hills, crowned with pagodas, occupy a considerable part of the interior, and wide streets, one of which still remains, ran between them. The city was watered by many streams. It was begun and completed within the first half of the fourteenth century, by two brothers named Hari-hara, and was first named Vidyánagara, the city of knowledge. At the close of the fifteenth and commencement of the sixteenth centuries, the Sovereigns of this country subdued the Chóla Chéna and Pandian dynasties established in Tanjor and Madura. Their kingdom then comprehended the whole Carnatic above and below the mountains, (G'hats) and was well known to the European traders under the names of Bijnagar and Narsingam from Bijnágar, the Indian appellation of the country, and Nara-sing'ha its powerful monarch. Cmsar Frederick describes the capital as being twenty-four miles in circumference, and containing many hills and pagodas within its walls. It was finally ruined by the Mohammedan Kings of the neighbouring states, who defeated its sovereign, Ráma, on the plains of Telicóta in 1504.

Cópul (Capula) a fortified town in lat. $15^{\circ} 19' N.$ Copul. and long. $76^{\circ} 10' E.$ one of the strongest fortresses in southern India. It stands at the foot and on the side of a steep rocky hill, and is well provided with granaries and reservoirs.

11. Bancá-púr, a district occupying the southern extremity of this province, and lying on the banks of the Wardá and Tumb'hadra. It has a productive soil, but is thinly peopled. Its principal towns are

Sháhnúr (more properly Sávanúr) in lat. $14^{\circ} 59' N.$ Shahnour long. $75^{\circ} 26' E.$ The only handsome buildings of this town, its palaces, are now in ruins. It has a wall and ditch, but is a place of no strength. To the south of the town there is a lake, and the soil of the country round it is fertile. The territory of Sháhnúr fell into the possession of the Bahmaní dynasty at the close of the fourteenth century; was afterwards possessed by a petty independent prince, one of whose successors became tributary to Tipú till 1784, when he placed himself under the protection of the Mahrattas. The town was soon afterwards taken, plundered, and converted into a heap of ruins by Tipú's troops, but was restored to its own Sovereign in 1792, through the influence

BEEJA-
POOR.9. Gajndrá-
gar'h.10. Anag.
gúndi or
Bijnágar11. Ban-
cá-poor.Shahnour
or Saranour

- BEERJA-FOOL.** of the Mahrattas. This territory was finally given to the British government, in exchange for a district in the Bundelk hand, by the Peshwa.
- Bees-poor or Beesky-poor.** Baach-pār or Benkī-pār is a large town, five or six miles to the south-west of Shāhūr. It was formerly a post of importance, but was dismantled in one of Tipu's campaigns against the Mahrattas.
- 12. Genduck.** 12. Gandaki or Gandac, a district lying between the forts of the Malabar river, to the south of the Crishna. The soil is fertile and the population considerable, when compared with that of the district last described. Its principal towns are Dārwar, Hubli and Kittūr.
- Darwar or Nasrabad.** Dārwar, a fortified town, in lat. 15° 28' N. long. 75° 8' E. is called Nasrābād (the shade of victory) by the Musselmans. It is very strong, though not regularly fortified, and it sustained, in 1790, a siege of seven months from the Mahrattas under Parasū Rām B'hād, assisted by the Bombay Sipāhī (seapoys). The town and surrounding territory are now attached to the Madras presidency.
- Hubly.** Hubli or Havili is a town of great trade in lat. 15° 20' N. and long. 75° 15' E. in the midst of a country well provided with wood and water. It rears silks, cottons, woolless and rice in considerable quantities to Goa, and receives sandal-wood and elephant's teeth in return. Its bankers have agents in Surat and Halderabad, and carry on a correspondence through a much greater extent of country. The ruins of mosques which the Musselmans were formerly numerous in this part of the country; but there is not one to be found in twenty towns or villages at present.
- Kittūr.** Kittūr, about nineteen miles west-north-west of Dārwar, in lat. 15° 35' N. and long. 74° 58' E. is situated in a fertile territory, capable of yielding an annual revenue of five or six lacs of rupees (₹60 to 80,000). It has always been tributary to the Pāna government.
- 13. Noor-gool.** 13. Nārgul is a small district of this province, placed in the Dāb or peninsula formed by the Gattarba and Malabar rivers. Its principal place is Bādāmi, one of the strongest hill-forts in India, in lat. 15° 55' N. and long. 75° 49' E. It was taken by storm by the detachment under General Munro in 1818.
- Badami.** 14. Azim-nagar, a large district to the south of the Crishna, watered by the Gattarba, Malabar and many other streams, and is one of the most fertile countries in the peninsula. Its chief towns are,
- Gokak.** Gokak on the south side of the Gattarba, in lat. 16° 11' N. long. 74° 55' E. It lies on the declivity of a hill, and is of considerable size and consequence; having an extensive manufactory of silk and cotton cloths. It was a place of some importance when taken by Sultān Mūdazim (Maurun) in 1685. At a place in the hills about two miles from this town, the Gattarba falls through a perpendicular height of 174 feet with a breadth of 169 yards; in the dry season, however, the stream is comparatively insignificant.
- Manoli.** Manoli, on the north-west bank of the same river, in lat. 15° 55' N. long. 75° 17' E. This town is now held by a tributary of the Pāna government, but formerly belonged to one of the branches of the Sind'hiya family.
- Ryebough.** 15. Rāi-bāgh, a fertile district occupying the peninsula (Dāb) between the Crishna and Gattarba. Its principal towns are, Rāi-bāgh, its capital, in lat. 16° 30' N. and long. 75° E. a small walled town which never appears to have been a place of importance.

Chicuri, a large trading town, in lat. 16° 28' N. and long. 74° 44' E.

Walshgarh, a hill-fort in lat. 16° 20' N. long. 74° 38' E. It was possessed for a short time by the Colla-pār Rāy, but was restored to the Peshwa in 1804.

BEELZEBUB or BAZAZUR, a God of the Philistines, whose temple was at Ekron (2 Kings, i.). The name signifies the Lord of a Fly, and the commentators say he means grey, whether it is the real title of the Philistine deity, or one given in contempt by the Jews.

BEER, } Ger. and Dutch *bier*. Goldast thinks a *pyria*; beer being first made Be'ra-azwen. } of pears. Vossius from the Latin *biber*; *biber*, and (*extrito* b) *bier*. Sommer—from *bar*, Hebrew, *fragmentum*. Noel (cited by Somner) says beer is metheglin, or a kind of drink made with honey, whence it hath the name of *bee*. Wachter quotes Lue. i. 15. And he ne drineth win ne beer; whence he infers that beer was made of any grain or from honey or pears, &c.; and supposes the Welsh *beray*, coquer, to be the parent of the word.

And eke their braines with double *berre* are lynde.
Gargene, Harkes.

Thy waston grapes we do detest;
Here's richer juice from barley pressed.
* * * * *
Oh let them come and taste this *beer*,
And waster henceforth they'll forewent.

Thomas Nashe in Ellis, v. iii.

And then shynen and other evil disposed persons as then drove to y^e said Geoffrey Gaze, rubb'd agayne the herchouses, and sette some of them on fyre.
Falgon. Anno 1569.

They shot off; but the French retired with diligence, and returned to Edinburgh without harme done, except the destruction of some drinck *berre*, which lay in the stables, chappell and church.

Knox. History of the Reformation in Scotland, fol. 50.

Among those that were without the fort, and which were of the foresaid company of Captain Rihault, there was a carpenter of three score yeeres olde, one a *beer-brewer*.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. M. Rex Ludovici, v. iii. 354.

Flow, Weibed, flow! like thine inspirer, clear;
Though stale, not ripe; though thin, yet never clear;
No sweetly mawkish, and so smoothly still;
Heady, not strong; o'erwhining, though not full.

Pope. The Dunciad, book iii.

BEER, BEERICK, sometimes also called *Bir* and *Bradschin*, is a town of Asiatic Turkey, supposed to have been the ancient Thir or Barsampos. It is situated in the government of Orfa and crowns a lofty eminence on the left bank of the Euphrates, which is near a deep and rapid stream, about 150 yards wide. The caravans from Aleppo to Orfa, generally pass the river by a bridge of boats at Beer, for which a certain toll is paid. Niebuhr describes it as comprising about 500 houses, defended by a citadel and wall, in a dilapidated condition. The citadel stands on a precipitous eminence, and is considered as a place of great strength. When Dr. Pococke visited this castle, it contained a curious collection of ancient arms and armour, which were used in military operations, before the invention of gunpowder. Among these were bows, arrows, and slings. The bows were nearly straight, and about five feet long. Some of the arrows were pointed with iron, others had bodies of combustible matter attached to them, which were lighted before they were shot off, and were designed to set the places on fire into which they were discharged. The slings seemed to

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BEER.

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BEE.
—
BEETLE.

have been adapted to various machines, and some of them were capable of throwing stones a foot in diameter. Dr. P. thinks these arms correspond very well with the description of the ancient Roman arms given by Ammianus Marcellinus; and from various Arabic inscriptions on some of them, and some other circumstances, he supposes them to have been in the castle at the time that fire-arms were first used. The chief thoroughfare from Aleppo to Diarbekir and Persia, as well as to Orfa, appears to be through Beer. It has also a trade with Haggad by vessels which navigate the Euphrates. Beer is about 144 miles north-east of Aleppo, and in latitude 36° 48' north, and longitude 38° 6' east.

BEER-SHEBA, the well of an oath. The well at which Abraham and Isaac swore friendship to Abimelech. Here a city was built, which was given by Joshua to the tribe of Judah, and afterwards was transferred to the tribe of Simeon (*Joshua*, xv. 28). It stood twenty miles to the south of Hebron, and forty-two in the same direction from Jerusalem; and when Eusebius wrote, a. d. 315, was still a considerable town *καὶ πόλις*, garrisoned by Roman soldiers. The boundaries of the Holy Land are often described in Scripture, as extending from Dan to Beer-Sheba (*2 Sam.* xvii. 11.) and after the separation of the kingdoms of Judah and Israel, the boundaries of the former are mentioned as from Beer-Sheba to Mount Ephraim. The Beer-Sheba which is described by the historian of the Crusades (*Jacobus de Vitriaco Hist. Hieros.* 36; *Guilielmus Tyrius*, xiv. 23.) as situated ten or twelve miles from Ascalon, is evidently a different place.

BEETLE, v. *Beetle*, a mallet, Skinner and Beauclerc, n. *Beetle* is perhaps from the verb *to beat*. A three man beetle *BEETLEBROWED*, was one so heavy that it required three men to manage it. *Nares.* *Beetleheaded*, as thick as a beetle; beetle, the insect, Skinner also supposes to be from the same verb, to beat; because in their evening flight, they beat against us. *Beetle-brow* is a brow, overhanging like that of a beetle. Hence Mr. Malone thinks Shakespeare coined the verb, to beetle, to hang over.

Proude Jerusalem deserved not to have this preeminence, which, albeit she were in every deed as bludge as a beetle, yet thought herself to have a merry good eye, and for that cause was more venerable. *Udall. Merch.* cap. i.

He was beetlebrowed and bachelupped, whitt two blery ejen. *Piers Plowman. Vision.* p. 37.

Say not the people well, that fortune favours fools? So well they say, I think, which name her beetle blind. *Merry for Magistrates.* 149.

Hens. What if it tempt you toward the flood, my Lord? Or to the dreadful summit (summit) of the cliffs, That beetles o'er his base into the sea. *Shakespeare. Hamlet.* fol. 237.

He was the most perfect submarine person that ever was beheld. — He was of a middle stature, broad forehead, beetle-brow'd, thick shouldered, flat-nos'd, full lips, down look'd, of black curling stiff hair, and spely-footed. *Wood. Athens Oxon.* l. fol. 379.

Give me a case to put my visage in, A visor for a shrow, what care I? What curious eye doth quote deformitie? Here are the beetle-brow'd shall blush for me. *Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet.* fol. 56.

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BEETLE.
—
BEFALL.

KATE. Patience! I pray you, 'twas a fault unwitting.

PET. A horse beetle-headed flap-ear'd knave! Come Kate sit down, I know you have a stomach. *Shakespeare. Taming of the Shrew.* fol. 222.

FAL. If I do, fling me with a three man beetle. *Id. King Henry IV.* part ii. fol. 77. — Whence borne on liquid wing, The sounding culver shoots; or where the hawk, High in the beetling cliff his airy builds. *Shakspeare. Spring.*

Oh! if I could, how I would mass! His tallow-face, and wainscot paws, His beetle-brow, and eyes of wail, And make him soon give up the cause. *Swift. The Dean at Sir Arthur Arden.*

Where the brow beetling from the mountain sprang, With stunted thorn, and shaggy rocks o'erhang. *Brooke. The Fox-chase.*

— Or when the stillness of the grey-eyed eve, Break's only by the beetle's drowsy hum, Invites us forth to solitary rales, Where awful ruins on their mossy roofs Denote the flight of time. *Cropper. The Power of Harmony.* book ii.

Or where the beetle winds His small but sullen horns, As oft he rises 'twixt the twilight path, Against the pilgrim borne in heedless helm. *Colman. Ode to Evening.*

BEFALL, he and fall; A. S. *befallan*; Dutch, *befallen* to fall, to happen, to become, to come to pass.

The kyng made hym jere yow, & smen hem alle Bed hym kille of non jang, jut kyn schalide hi falle. *R. Gloucester.* p. 145.

Here now of jair schance, what chance befalle. *R. Branne.* p. 123.

As on a May morrowyng, on Malvern hilles Me by fel for to slepe, for weyness of wandryng. *Piers Plowman. Vision.* p. 1.

Befalle, that, in that season on a day, In Southwerk at the Tabard as I lay, Rody to wend on my pilgrimage To Canterbury with devoute courage. *Chaucer. The Prologue.* v. 15.

What shall befalle here afterwarde God wote, for now upon this tide Myn are the world on every side In sondrie wise so disordered. That it well nigh aint all reoured. *Gower. Conf. Am. Prologue.* fol. 1.

And it befel that whanne Zachary schould do the office of prest-hod in the ordir of his cours to fure God. *Wiclif. Loh.* chap. i.

In the meene season a bitter plague befell among them for their corrupt living, consuming in short tyme such a multitude of people, that the quicke were not sufficient to bury the dead. *Stowe. Chron.* Ann. 447. *Bryngton and Sares.*

I could say much more of the king's majesty, without flattery, did I not fear the imputation of presumption, or of such things, that it might befel these papers of mine (though the loss were little) as it did the pictures of Queen Elizabeth, made by skilful and common painters; which, by her own commandment, were knock'd in pieces and cast into the fire. *Sir Walter Raleigh. Preface.* fol. x.

[Plato] lay's down as a principle, that whatever is permitted to befal a just man, whether poverty, sickness, or of such things which seem to be evil, shall either in life or death, conduce to his good. *Spectator.* No. 237.

As for myself, I am well, if it be well, can wish any prosperity, be said of a man, who lives in the utmost suspense and anxiety, under the apprehension of all the accidents which can possibly befal the friend he most affectionately loves. Farewell. *Melmoth. Pious Letters.* book iii. let. 17.

BEFARIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Dodecastrina*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: calyx seven-fid, petals seven, stamina fourteen; berry of seven cells, many-seeded.

This genus contains two species, inhabiting New Granada. *Mutis, Amer. vol. 1. tab. 7. 8.*

BEFIGHT, be and *fight*; A. S. *fechtan, fichtan*; Ger *fechten*.

As wrestling winds, out of dispersed whirl,
Befight themselves, the weak with scutcher blast.
Sherry. Runic, book ii.

BEFIT, be and *fit*. *Fit, aptus, idoneus*, a Fr. G. *fait, factum*, q. d. *factum, i. e. aptum ad hoc*. Skinner. Made for this, adapted to it.

To adapt, to suit, to become.

So that it comes her will
Play, play, play, play, to sing,
Since *ye befitst* him so well,
In every kind of thing.

Guinevere. The Camp of Phylomena.

For which, ere long, to his just trial led
In all the robes befitting his degree,
Where Senoy, chief justice in that dang'rous stead,
Communion had his lawful judge to be.

Drayton. The Baron's Wars, book iv.

What eye can now pity the deepest miseries of Manureh?
What but bondage can *best* him, that hath so lavishly almsed his
liberty? What but an utter abdication can *best* him that hath cost
of his God, and doted upon Devils? What *isn't* a dying life, and a
tormenting death can *best* for a man of blood?

Hall. Cont. Manasseh.

Ill it *bests* thee, oh it *bests* thee
Acanto's daughter, his whose open stores,
Though vast, were little to his simpler heart,
The teller of a country, than to pick
The very refuse of these heaven-sent-delits,
Which from his bounteous friendship I enjoy.

Thomson. Autumn.

And now let mine of the selected band,
Whose greener years *best* such station best,
With wary circuit pace around the grove:
And guard each inlet.

Mason. Caractacus.

BEFLAINE, be and *flaine*, past part. of the verb, to
flay. A. S. *fleas, beflaen*, to flay, to pill, to pull off the
skin or rind. Sommer. *Flora, elanden, elaghen, degh-
bere, pellem dechahere, excutire*. Killian.

Out of his skin he was beflaine

All quick - and in that wise slaine.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 158.

BEFOAM, be and *foam*. A. S. *famos, spumare*, to
foam, or froth.

His belted back a teach impud' appears,
And stands erect, like a field of spears.
Proth fills his chaps, he needs a grunting sound,
And part he claps, and part befoams the ground.

Dryden. Translation of Ovid's Metamorphoses, book viii.

At last the dropping wings, befoam'd all o'er,
With flaccid heaviness their manner bore;
A rock he *spit*, whose horrible head was low,
Bare at an ebb, but cover'd at a flow.

Euxine. Translation of Ovid's Metamorphoses, book v.

BEFOOL, be and *fool*. Fr. *fol*; It. *folle*. From the
Lat. *folius*, says Ménage, *ad innoxiatam ventori folis*,
Skinner prefers the Ger. *fohl*, *stow*, careless. In A. S.
foht is *foht*.

And nothings fall many wise
Defoiled have been *so*le or this.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 167.

Debauch'd by those they thought would teach and rule 'em
Who now they find did ruin and befool 'em.

W. Browne to Lord General Monk.

Canst thou ingross a slavish shamer, which men,
For below the region of the stars,
Not more abhor, than study to revenge?
Thou an Italian? I could burst with rage,
To think I have a brother so befool'd.

Jord. Lord's Sacrifice, act iv. scene i.

Do but for a little reason to yourselves this, when the wise men
of the world, those that are wise in these generations, shall appear
before God, when they shall reflect upon all earthly objects, and
consider the vanity and vexation of them, how will they befool
themselves.

Bacon. On the Power of God, ch. ii.

BEFORE, } The imper. be and the noun fore.
BEFO'ERHAND, } Written before, before, before; ante-
BEFO'ERTIME, } rior or prior to, in space or time; in
front or presence of, in preference to.

Yst hundred yer and twent it was she *is* fore,
Er jua our Lord Jhesu Cryst on erpe was y bore.

R. Gloucester, p. 40.

And jee gode *beure* hym jere
Four kyngs, and four scores of gold *beure* hym jere.
Id. p. 190.

In Acres of bir is born a mayden childre *deem* Jone.
Was non fairer *before* of Inglis als *schon* one.

R. Branne, p. 230.

Just time in Scotland was a mayden geig,
As I red *beforehand*, Maketime dounthir jee kyng.
Id. p. 98.

I loved hire first, and tolde this my wo
As to my counsel, and my brother sowes
To further me, as I have told *before*.

Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, v. 1168.

And reason revealed, *rygt* as a pope
And conscience his *conser*. *before* jee kyngs stande.

Piers Plouman. Titon, p. 81.

Jole ye and be ye glade; for your meede is plentiful in herres;
for so thou has purposed also prophets that were *before* you.

Wiclif. Matthew, chap. v.

The prophetic had grown knowledge *beforehand* that Messias
should come out of Bethleem, where Jesus was borne.

Udell. John, chap. vii.

By this provident counsell, and laying downe this good founda-
tion *beforehand*, all things went forward in a due course, to the
achieving of our happy enterprise.

Drake. W. L. Fagge, fol. 16.

And if the smearer of blood pursue after him, thei shal not
deliver the slayer into his hand *before* he smote his neighbour
ignominiously neither bated he him *beforetime*.

Mabie. Geneva Version. Judges, chap. xx. v. 5.

Lady, ye trust openly ye confesse,
And if against good conscience and right,
Any good han ye take more or lesse,
Before this house, of any manner wight,
Yield it none.

Browne. Shepherd's Pipe. Act i.

Yet the fears of Herod over-ruled all the prejudices of his sect,
and raised up *before* his eyes the semblance of the murdered Bap-
tist armed with the power of miracles, for the very purpose (be
perhaps, imagined) of inflicting exemplary vengeance upon him for
that atrocious deed, as well as for his adultery, his incest, and his
other crimes.

Porteus. Lecture.

So far, therefore, from adapting the means, she [the hen] is not
beforehand apprised of the effect.

Paley. Natural Theology, ch. iv.

BEFORT, sometimes called Belfort, was a county
of old France in the Soudgion, in Upper Alsace. It is
now included in the department of the Upper Rhine,
and the town of the same name is the capital of the
arrondissement. It lies at the foot of the Vosges, and
forms a pass from Alsace to Franche Comté. Its popula-
tion is about 5000, who are, by its central position,
enabled to carry on a good trade in the wines of
Burgundy and Champagne, besides iron and other

BEFOOL
—
BEFORE

BEFORT.
—
RE-
FRINGE.

commodities produced in the neighbourhood. Part of its inhabitants are also employed in the forges used in manufacturing the iron obtained in the adjacent mountains. Befort is situated at the point of meeting of several great roads; viz. of two from Paris, two from Switzerland, one from Strasburg, and one from Lorraine. The county and town of Befort were ceded by Austria to France in 1648. In 1659, Louis XIV. granted them to Cardinal Mazarin; and in 1781, they were obtained by the Duke of Valentinois, who lost them at the Revolution. The soil in this part of Alsace is sterile, but the fisheries, forests, and mines are productive. Befort is about thirty-five miles south-west of Colmar, and seventy in the same direction from Strasburg. Latitude 47° 34' north, and longitude 6° 57' east.

BEFORTUNE, *be* and *fortune*. *Lat.* fortuna, from *for*, a *ferendo*; *est enim fors, prout res fert*. Voss.

To happen, to betide, to bechance, to fall to the lot of.

Engl. Madam, I pity much your grievances,
Which, since I know they verily are plac'd,
I give consent to go along with you;
Wracking as little what belideth me
As much, I wish all good *befortune* you.
Shakespeare. Gentlemen of Verona, fol. 34

BEFRECKLE, *be* and *freckle*. Chaucer uses *frakes*, in the Knight's Tale, v. 2171; and Mr. Tyrwhitt says *frakes* is Saxon for spots; *freckles*. See FACKLES.

As when the evening is with darkness overgrod,
Her star befreckled face with clouds lorrowed,
You oftentimes behold, the trembling lightning fly.
Dryden. Poly-Otius, Song xxi.

BEFRIEND, *be* and *friend*; A. S. *frian*, *frien*, *comare*, to love. To act as a friend to.

My patience I will put in ure,
My charity I will extend;
Since for my use there is no cure,
The helpmen now I will befrend.
Constant Penelope in Percy, vol. iii.

This last request to you I do commend,
That playing my sad plaints, you may befrend
My wretched soul with quick dispatch in death,
And not with torture, when I yield my breath.
Morrey for Magistrate, 612.

The mercy of our good God allows his favourites, not only to receive but to give; not only to receive for themselves, but to convey blessings to others: what can that man want that is befriended of the faithful? *Holl. Cost. The Rapture of Elijah.*

Yet mad they rush'd, as whirling wind descends,
And down'd for heedless those the Lord befriended.
Parnell. The Gift of Poetry. Hakokuk.

Here he [Troy the elder] stopped to consider whether he should return back; to which the pilot advising him, "Fortune," he said, "befriends the brave; steer to Fompholion."
Melmoth. Pilgr, book vi, letter 16.

After such strong assurances as these, by which God Almighty stands as it were engaged to befrend us, one would not think it possible for the wit of man to fall in question so plain a truth, as that of our ability, with the Divine assistance, to correct constitution and resist temptation. *Fortius. Sermon iii. v. l.*

BEFRINGE, *be* and *fringe*. Fr. *frange*; It. *frangia*; Sp. *franja*; Ger. *fransen*; of uncertain etymology. Menage thinks from the Lat. *ambria*.

And when I flatter, let my dirty leaves
(Like journals, odes, and such expensive things
As Ennius, Philips, Settle writh of bays)
Clothe spires, line trunks, or, fluttering in a row,
Befringe the rails of Bedlam and Soho.
Pope. Imitation of Horace, epistle 1.

BEG, *v.*

BE'GOAR, *v.*
BE'GOAR, *n.*
BE'GOAR, *adj.*
BE'GOING, *n.*
BE'GOAR, *n.*
BE'GOARINO,
BE'GOARINERS,
BE'GOARLY, *adj.*
BE'GOARLY, *adv.*
BE'GOAR-FEAR,
BE'GOAR-MAID,
BE'GOAR-MAN,
BE'GOAR-WOMAN.

For he hat begger's o'p' biddeth, hote if he have neede
He is sale and fattour, and defraude he neede
And also gyleth him jay give.

Piers Ploughman. Vision, p. 150.

And the same sayth Innocent in oon of his bookes: he sayth, that sorrowful and misery is the condition of a poure *begger*, for if he see not his need, he dyeth for hunger, and if he see, he dyeth for shame and signes necessary constraineth him to see.
Chaucer. The Tale of Meibourne, v. 2. p. 115.

But of the body, whiche shall deye,
Although there be diners weye
To deye, yet, is there but one eade,
To whiche that every man shall weade,
As well the *begger* as the herke,
Of oon nature of oon accorde.

Generr. Conf. Am. book iv. fol. 76.

For sickerly my dette shal be quit
Towardes you, how so that ever I fare
To go a *begging* in my kirtle here.
Chaucer. The Franklin's Tale, v. 11892.

For his blamey alle *beggerie*, he geft certyyn.
Piers Ploughman. Vision, p. 155.

And she was chad full poorly,
All to an olde torne country
As she were all with dogges torne,
And both behind and eke before
Clouted was she *beggerly*.
Chaucer. Remount of the Rose, fol. 117.

Wee having nothing to do at all, have medled yet in all matters, and have spent for our private causes more then all Christendome, even unto the utter *beggering* of our selves, & have gotten nothing but rebuke and shame & hate among all nations.
Tyndall's Works, fol. 375.

Whanne he gode forth fro Jerico and hisse discipels and ful myrthe people, Bartholomew a blynde man the sone of Thyneye sawt beside the waye and beggide.
Wiclif. Mark, chap. x.

And as we went oute of Hiericho with hys dysciples, and a greute nombre of people: Bartholomew the sone of Thimene whiche was blynde, sate by the hys waies side *begginge*.
Bible, 1551.

The Pharisee being made extreme woude with this courage and boldnes that *begger* was of fal to extremitee, and to say the vitermost they could. They upbraided him with his olde blindness, they cast him in the teeth with his *begginge*, as though God hadde punished him therewithall for his sinnes.
Udall. John, chap. ix.

By whose eyed rythes and auctorite the pope wth his prelates ascendd from poure *beggerly* dryers and fluteres unto sicke an imperial maiestye sone emperours and kinges.
Joya. Expousion of Daniel, chap. vii.

So as their *begging* now them filled quire;
For none would give, but all men would they wote:
Yet would they take so paines to get their biing,
But seeke some other way to gaine by giving,
Much like to *begging*, but much better named;
For many *beg*, which are therewith ashamed.

Spenser. Mother Hubbards Tale, fol. 6.
3 D 2

BEG.

Some, says Junius, think *beg* derived from the Ger. *begeren*, *cupere*, *appetere*. *Beg* and *beggar* vel, q. d. *beggar*, because *beggers* carry with them bags, into which they put the victuals or money that may be given to them. To ask, to crave, petition, solicit, or entreat for.
To *beggar* is to bring or reduce to a state of meanness, wretchedness, poverty of one who asks, craves, petitions, &c.

BEG.

And for as much as all good things come of God, whether they pertain to the body, or to the soule, and at all times to be delivered from adversity is one of his singular benefites, we may no doubt begge the same at his handes, referring notwithstanding the granting of it to him, who knoweth what is better for us than we do our selves.

Whitcliffe's Defence, fol. 492.

Trebellius objecting to Cælius, and charging him with factions behaviour, and dissolving of discipline: Cælius replies that Trebellius had spoiled and beggered the legions.

Sævius. Tacitus, fol. 34.

And to what end is all this, but that seeing himself forsaken of all, he may at least, like the begger's prodigal, return again to his father?

Hopkins. The Vanity of the World, fol. 14.

Some it highly displeaseth, that an great exposes this way [in building churches] are employed. Touching God himselfe, both hee any where revealed, that it is his delight to dwell beggerly? and that he taketh no pleasure to be worshipped, raising only in poore cottages?

Hooder. Eccles. Pol. book v. sec. 15.

DUL. O heaven defend my soule from such foule sin.

Shall I seeme crest-falne in my father's sight,

(He with pale beggar-fare leeches my night)

Before this out-dur'd dastard.

Shakespeare. Richard II. fol. 24.

—But chief of all,
O loss of sight, of these I most complain,
Blindness among enemies, O worse than chains,
Dungeo, or beggary, decrepit age.

Milton. Sam. Agon.

Amongst these things comes out of his ship the poore creature Hamulio, in a filthy and beggarly cloak port about him, at the sight of whom the mourners as they stoode in rushes clapted about him.

Gudage. Justice, fol. 92.

In beggary other inferiour things, it may become us to be reserved, indifferent and modest; but about these matters (wherein all our felicity is extremely concerned) it were a folly to be slack or timorous.

Burrow. Sermon vi.

He owed him money, which he had promised to pay him several times, but never kept his word; and in short, he was an idle, beggarly fellow and of no use to the publick.

Foster. No. 246.

—With half an eye
Your far-fetched sophistry I spy;
Which ac'ts so subtly disguised:
By two plain words shall be confuted:
I first affirm you beg the question.

Cambridge. Learning.

Persuade a man that he is a beggar and a vagabond, and you shall instantly see him change his manners.

Beattie. On Frank, part ii. chap. 2.

A mistake in which I had no share, decides at once upon my liberty and property, sending me from the court to a prison, and adjudging my family to beggary and famine.

Burke. vindication of Nat. Society.

The poverty of the lower ranks of people in China far surpasses that of the most beggarly nations in Europe.

Smith. Wealth of Nations, book i. chap. 8.

Beo, commonly pronounced Beï, a title of honour among the Turks, given to persons possessing a military rank. It originally signified Prince or Leader, and belongs properly to the feudal chiefs who have a command over the holders of fiefs or military tenures. The lowest rank of these feudatory chiefs is that of Alai-bey, who has a standard and trumpet, and when to the field, several inferior commanders under his orders. The next rank is that of the Sanjak-bey, who has the command of a large district called Sanjak (or standard) containing many smaller fiefs. The third and highest rank is that of the Begler-hög (Prince of Princes) or Pashà who governs a whole province containing many Sanjaks. See Von Hammer's Osmanischen Reichs Staats Verfassung.

BEGALLED, be and gail. A. S. *geallad*; galled, fretted, chafed.

To gail, to fret, to chafe, to rub sore.

And shake your sturdy trunks, ye prouder pieces,
Whose swelling girths are like beguill'd slugs,
With the deep furrows of the thunder-stone.

Hall. Defence to Envy, st. 1.

BEGAWED, be and gawd. *Gawd* is the past part. of A. S. *gifan*; *gawd*, *god*, *gawd*, *gawd*, and means any such trifling thing as is given away or presented to any one. Tooke, i. 266, 267.

To begu'd is to beuck with such things, with any fine, showy, gay things.

The senate liked very well of this device, and chose such a number of bond-maids as she desired to have, and trimming them up in fine apparel, begawd with chains of gold and jewels, they sent them forth to the Latins, who were occupi'd not far from the city.

North. Flatach, 127.

BEGAY, be and gay. To make gay; to begawd; see BEGAWD.

The rural swain, whose courser eyes
Ne'er star'd so other beauteous things than what
Begay the simple fields.

Dennet. Psyche, chap. iii. sec. 73.

BEGENDER, one of the richest and most fertile provinces of Abyssinia, bounded by Denbea on the west, Saacen on the north, Angot on the east, and Amhara on the south. It also includes the dependency of Lasta, with which addition its length has been stated at 180 miles, and its breadth at 60. Its mountains are less steep and rugged than those in many other parts of Abyssinia, and there is a much greater proportion of what may be called level ground than in almost any of the other provinces in this alpine region. These mountains abound with iron, and afford good pasture for numerous cattle, with which Begender is well stocked. It also supplies the flower of the Abyssinian cavalry, of which Mr. Bruce was informed that it was capable of raising 45,000. The southern boundary of this province is full of deep and rugged ravines, which form a good natural bulwark against the incursions of the fierce and warlike Galla.

BEG'ET, } Be and get; A. S. *begetan*, *gettan*.
BEG'ETTER, } To gain, to acquire, to reach, to
BEG'ETTING, } attain, to obtain, to procure, to produce, to generate.

Jo adde þe Brutons þe maystris al biþigste.

R. Gloucester, p. 219.

He shoule be oþres eȝr of al þat be adde,
ȝif he of þis salne non oþr eȝr biþigste nadde.

Id. p. 386.

A litle þer biȝore died Margarete,
þe heȝr of Scotland born, of Alisander biȝete.

R. Branne, p. 248.

A yonge man called Melibous, mighty and riche, begate upon his wif, that called was Prudence, a daughter which that called was Sophie.

Chaucer. The Tale of Melibous, v. li. p. 72.

He had a brother netheles,
Whose right name was Facos,
And he the worthy knight Jussas.
Bygatte.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 101.

Which delyverida us fro the power of derknesse, and translate into the kingdom of the sonne of his kyngdom in whom we have agayne bying and remission of synne: which is the ymage of God unspottable, the dinte bygeten of ech creature.

Wiclif. Cathol. chap. 1.

BEGALLED
—
BEGG'T.

BEGIRT.
—
BEGONIA.

From Durdama am I descended, he
From Jove; where gods, immortal though they be,
Do oft serve mortals: who begirt me round
Round with a wall, a wall that we'er shall down.
Shakespeare. The Rape of Helen.

— Thee thou shalt behold
Whether by aspiration we intend
Address, and to begin the Almighty throne
Resolving or beseeching.
Milton. Paradise Lost, book v.

At home surrounded by a servile crowd,
Prompt to abuse, and in detraction loud;
Abroad begirt with men, and swords, and spears,
His very state acknowledging his fears.
Prior. Pausan. Solomon, book iii.

Whence Hardyknute, a baron bold,
In Scotland's martial days of old,
Descended from the stately feast,
Begirt with many a warrior guest,
To quell the pride of Norway's king,
With quivering lance and tramping string.
Warton. Ode xi.

BEGNAW. A. S. *begnagan*, *knagan*, *rolere*, *corro-*
dere; Dutch, *knagen*; Ger. *nagen*; Swe. *knaga*. To
eat into; corrode.

The worms of conscience still *begnaw* thy soul,
Thy friends suspect for traitors they thou'lt
And take deep traitors for thy dearest friends.
Shakespeare. Richard III. fol. 178.

His horse hip'd with an old rusty saddle, besides, *begnawed*
with the bits.
Id. Taming of the Shrew, fol. 219.

BEGONE, be and gone. Gone far; sunk deep;
(*sc.* in woe or weal.) Also the imper, *be*, and the
past part, *gone*; got you gone; go.

I trow that no wight might her please
Nor do that thing that might her ween,
Nor she wold her sorrow slide
Nor comfort none rate her take,
So deepe was her woe *begone*
And she her hart in angre ronne
A sorrowfull thing well seemd she.
Chaucer. Remount of the Rose, fol. 117.

That other said no thyng so,
But he is ryche and well begone,
To whom that god wold wode wele.
Gower. Conf. Amm. book v. fol. 97.

And witteth well, that one of the
Is with treasure so full *begone*,
That if ye hadde therupon,
Ye shall be riche men for ever.
Id. B. book v. fol. 96.

There was a kyng, which Lichemede
Was hote, and he was well *begone*,
With faire daughters many one,
And dwelt ferre out in an yle.
Id. B. book v. fol. 101.

When he awoke, and neither he no find
Woman, ne etch, he wept bitterly,
And said, "Alas! now is there in no land
Man wome I knowe better than am I!"
Brown. The Shepherd's Pipe.

Begone, I will not hear thy vain excuse,
Not as thou lov'st thy life, in the speed from hence.
Shakespeare. Gentlemen of Verona, fol. 50.

Ungrateful wretch, *begone*, and no longer pollute my dwelling
with thy baseless; *begone*, and never let me see thee again; go
from my doors, and the only punishment I wish thee is an ashamed
conscience, which will be a sufficient tormentor!
Goldsmith. Vicar of Wakefield, v. 37.

BEGONIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Monocotyledon*, order *Polygonaria*. Generic character: male; calyx, none; corolla of four petals, two larger than the others; stamina numerous: female; calyx, none;

corolla, six; four petals; styles, three, bifid; capsule *BEGONIA*, inferior, triangular, alate, trilobular, many-seeded.

Willdow describes twenty-five species of this genus: they principally belong to the West India Islands. See *Dryander* in *Transactions of the Linnean Society*, vol. i. *Bolander Magazine*, 1473.

BEGORED, be and gore: covered with gore, or slimy, clotted blood. *Gor*, Sax.; *gore*, Dutch. *Limus*, *cenium*; Ger. *goren*, *goren*, *fermentescere*, *effervescente*; to throw up the dregs or filth. *Wachter*.

On chief of sable (taken from the dam)
A sucking babe (oh! how the babe's language,
Begor'd with blood, and perched with a lance.
Guescligne. The Fruits of Warre.

For, wall'd it was with wanes, which rag'd and roar'd
As they the cliffs in pieces would have cleft:
Besides, ten thousand monsters foule abhor'd
Did write about it, paying priestly, all *begor'd*.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book ix. c. 11.

BEGRAVE, be and grave. Dutch, *graven*; Ger. *graben*; Fr. *graver*; Sp. *gravar*; all from the A. S. *grafan*. To carve or cut out, to dig, to excavate.

— And with great slight
Of workmanship it was *begrave*
Of such work, as it should have been.
Gower. Conf. Amm. book i. fol. 22.

Than at last came in there
His manors, for the shade came,
Where that he wold be *begrave*,
And of what stone his sepulture
They sholden make, and what sepulture.
Id. B. book vii. fol. 155.

When that to Rome come were,
So princely that dwellers there,
As that that thoughten to decore,
Was none, that might of hem perceive,
Till then in sondry stodes have
Her guide under the arch *begrave*
In two treasure, that to behold
That sholden come as they were old.
Id. B. book v. fol. 95.

BEGRIME, be and grime; to make grim; to smear with any thing dirty or sooty, and thus give a grim appearance; a fierce aspect. See *GRIM* and *GRIME*.

— My name that was as fresh
As Dido's vine, is now *begrim'd* and black
As mine own face.
Shakespeare. Othello, fol. 526.

Upon a valne and foolish superstition, enjoying men to *begrime*
and bewray themselves with dirt, to lie and wallow in the mire.
Holland. Plutarch, fol. 215.

— Some there are,
Great lords of counties, mighty men of war,
And well-dress'd courtiers, who with heaving eye
Can in the face *begrim'd* with dirt discern
Strange charms, and pent for Cynthia in a cloud.
W'atched. The Scepters.

We must take up the prince in his laboratory, *begrimed*,
uncombed, perhaps in a dirty shirt.

Walpole. Catalogue of Engravings, v. 5. p. 135.

BEGRIPE, be and gripe. Goth. *gripan*; A. S. *gripan*, *begripan*; Dutch, *grypen*; Swe. *grypa*; *prehendere*, *quantum quis una manu potest*. By Gower, simply to surround.

— Asle, Afrika, Europe,
The which under the heave's cope
Begripeth all this earth roundly,
As leve as stretcheth my ground.
Gower. Conf. Amm. book vi. fol. 144.

BEGROW, be and grow. A. S. *growan*, to spring, sprout, flourish, was ripe. *Sommer. Begrown*; covered over by the growth of any thing.

BEGROW.

The byll
Of Tondun, which was begrowe
With vines.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 122.

BEGUILE.

Such faces foule she [Alceste] shifte, so many manethes she turning
makes.

So serpent-fall she seemes, and over all begrowne with snakes.
Pleaser, *Æneides*, book vii.

BEGRUDGE, be and grudge. *Begrudge*: a very old, and in speech a very common word. *Grudge*, written by Chaucer *grutche*, *gruche*, and in some copies *groche*, is the past part of *hreamian* (*ge-hreogan*) *hreamian*, *ge-hreocian*, *dolere*, *ingeniacere*, *penitere*. Tooke, ii. 340.

To grieve, fret, or repine (sub. at the good fortune of another.)

And alle þat halpen me to crye, oþ' elles to weden
Shal have lere by oure Lorde, to go and glene after
And make hym murje þe myd, in angre bo by grutche.
Piers Planchman. Fison, p. 131.

Nones will have cause to *begrudge* the beauty or height of corner
stones, when beholding them to beare a double degree of weight
in the building. *Standard of Equality*, § 25.

BEGSHEHRI, (pronounced *Beisbehri*) a Sanjakate or Captaincy in the Pashalik of Karaman-ili, in Anatolia. Its capital, bearing the same name, is protected by a castle built by Ala-ud-din, the Seljuké Sultan in the twelfth century. This district contains 132 smaller and 13 larger fiefs, called by the Turks *Zimârets* and *Ziyânets*. (See *Jehân-oumâ*, p. 618.)

BEGGE, an old term for the national mark in the mouth of a horse which distinguishes his age. The word probably is derived from the French, in which the same word signifies a *stutterer*. It is by no means clear however in what manner it obtained its English application.

BEGUILE, } Be and guile. Guile from *ge-*
BEGUEN, } *begian*, and *wile* from *wigian*, to
BEGUITY, } deceive. Tooke, ii. 312. Guilt is
gewigild, guiled, guil'd, guilt.

Schewthly he cadd' þe man þat is fals,
If he tret on his frenkes, þe begile him als
Begiiled is William, taken in & bounden.

R. Browne, p. 329.

Richt as þe þeþow howe gyle, þe gylede man for most
No shal grace þat si þe gan, make a good ende
And by gyle þe gyfwe. Piers Planchman. Fison, p. 348.

This miller smiled at his niceties,
And thought, all this e' it don but for a wile.
They wenen that no meo may hem begile.

Chaucer. The Reeve Tale, v. 4044.

For often he that will begile,
Is guiled with the same guile.
And thus the gwyler is beguiled.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vi. fol. 135.

Wherefore I say, that swiche wicked delites ben subtil begiters
of men that they be dampned.

Chaucer. The Prioress Tale, v. li. 361.

Whom we escape from a little while, and know the beguiler, we
think that we are beguiled alrewhile with other greater wiles.
Golden Book, chap. xxii. 1.

And that wicked folk wyemen betraethes,
And begileth hem of her good with flourengys wordes.
Piers Planchman. Crede.

The knight was wroth to see his stroke beguiled,
And smote againe with more outrageous might;
But backe againe the sparkling steel recoiled,
And left not any mark where it did light.

Spencer. Faerie Queene, book i. c. xi.

BEGUILE.

BEHANG.

There pleading might you see great Nestor stand,
As 't were encouraging the Greeks to fight;
Making such sober actions with his hand,
That it beguaid attention, charm'd the sight.

Shakespeare. Rape of Lucrece.

By easy communications of publick penance for a private pecuniary mulct (thou) dost at once beguile thine own conscience with sordid bribery and emboldens the adulteress to commit that sin again without fear, from which he hath once escaped without shame, or so much as valuable loss.

Bishop Sanderson. Sermons, p. 275.

Whilst we smile to see how easily you beguile these silly fishes that you catch we fast with the false bait, possibly we are not much less unwary ourselves; and the world's treacherous pleasures do little less delude me and you.

Bayle. Occasional Reflections, dia. iii.

While o'er his lips her lovely forehead bow'd,
Won by his graceful eloquence, which south'd
With sweet variety the tedious march,
Beguiling time.

Gower. London, book vii.

BEHĀDUR, a Tatarian title signifying warrior, hero, much used by the Moghuls as an appellation of honour, but not implying any distinct rank.

BEHALF. A. S. *healf*, half, part; Goth. *halb*; Ger. *halb*; *meint halben*, prepare me; Dutch, *mijnent halven*, unweent halven. For my or your part or share, sake, or behalf.

And therefore I counselle, that ye sende your messengers, swiche as ben discrete and wise, unto youre adversaries, telling hem on youre behalf, that if they wol tene of pees and of accord, that they shope hem, withouten delay or taryng, to come unto us.

Chaucer. The Tale of Melibee, v. li. p. 128.

Yet this I say in his behalf

If Helen were his leake,

Sir Paris woulde not to displease

Him through the sea to seek.

Turkische. In preface of Lady P.

Sir, good Sir William Helman, we are sent hither to the to sheweth that we shoulde shewe you on their behalf, that rythe they come into this countrey they have had neither great nor wages of you, y which they desyre generally to have.

Prossart. Cronicle i. fol. 678.

Now for that he sheweth this sight of his against the Boonians and Corinthians especially, although he speareth not any others whatsoever, I thought it my part and duty to deked herein the honour of our ancestors in the behalf of truth, against this only part of his writings and no more.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 1068.

To do in another's name implies doing (chiefly) for the interest or advantage of another; upon another's behalf or account; as the servants or factious of another.

Burrow. Sermon i. v. iii.

Such evil she hath wrought, and such a flame
Kindled in heaven, that it burns down to earth,
And, in a furious inquest that it makes
On Gods behalf, lays waste his fairest works.

Cowper. Task, book ii.

BEHANG, be and hang. A. S. *hangian*, *pendere*; Ger. *hangen*; Dutch, *hanghen*; Swed. *hanga*.

With freuche thynges, and with glode
The noble towne was all behanged,
And every wyte was sore alanged
To see this lustie lady ride.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vi. fol. 138.

And so (the citizens) conveyed through the cycle, which then was garnished and behanged with tapestries and arms and other clothes of syke and of richenes in most goodly wyse, unto Westmyster.

Falgon, 1299.

Every strait

Was it hangred, Jch say forsooth,

With many pail, and many cloeth.

Merlin in Elith. Romances, v. i.

BEHAP- BEHAPPEN, *be and happen.* Ger. and Dutch,
FEN. *happen.* To fall to the lot of.

BEHAVE

But why have ye, said Arthurgill, forbore
Your own good shield in dangerous dunnys;
That is the greatest shame and highest scorn,
Which ruins any knight *behave* say,
To lose the badge, that should his deeds display.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book v. c. 11.

BEHAT, the Hydaspes of the Greeks. See PEN-AN.
BEHATED, *be and hate.* Goth. *hatjan*; A. S. *hatian*;
Dutch, *haten*; Ger. *hassen*. The A. S. *hatian*, means
to heat, to be hot; whence Junius thinks is deduced
the metaphorical application to hatred, rancour,
malice; and observes that of similar origin are the
verbs to be incensed, *incendi*; to be inflamed, *inflam-*
mati.

Alpines yet thereof be hateful to all folk, that is to say that all
was be *behaten* of all folk, yet this wicked Nero had great lord-
ship.
Chaucer. Boecius, fol. 223.

Your uncle of Gloucester, to threaten to make you to be *behaten*
with your people, hath sworn diverse schandous words upon you
throughout London and in other places, saying: howe ye be not
worthy to beare ye *behaten* nor to hold so noble an herirage
as is ye realm of Engleterre, yther ye have taken to your wyke the
daughter of the Frenche kyng your adversary.
Freemant. Croyche, v. li. C. 222.

BEHAVE, } *Be and have. Be and have,*
BEHAVING, } *from the verb to have, says Skinner,*
BEHAVIOUS, } *behave, gerere se, to hold or hear*
himself. Goth. *haben*; A. S. *habban*. See *have* and
haviour.

To have, hold, bear, conduct, or manage.

Therefore will I shewe you how ye shuld *behave* you in paterne
of your riches, and in low wyl manere ye shuld use leas.
Chaucer. The Tale of Melibee, v. li. p. 115.

After that he describeth the outward conversation of Christen
men, how they ought to *behave* themselves in spiritual things,
how to teach, preach and rule in the congregation of Christ,
to serve one another, to suffer all things patiently, and to commit
wreake and vengeance to God; in conclusion how a Christen
man ought to *behave* himselfe unto all men to friend, foe, or what-
soever he be.
Tyndall's Works, fol. 49.

John taught us this lesson, that a preacher of Goddes word
should not get himselfe estimation and authority, by gorgeous
apparel, or poynted haire, but by honest behaviour, and Godly
conversacion.
Udall. Merck, chap. 1.

Then he [Henry VIII.] put of his bonnet & came forward to
her, & with most lovely countenance and princely behaviour saluted,
welcomed & embraced her to the great rejoycing of the
beholders.
Hall. King Henry VIII. fol. 240.

My level through London was drawne on a slide,
To Tower hill, where with an axe he did.
Clad in his armour painted all on paper,
Turne out reuerd's in rite of his *behave*.

Horror for Magistrates, 473.
As one all civil courtesy that could:
Who full of bounty, hospitably meek,
Of his behaviour greatly pleas'd to be,
Fortwithly commands his servants him to seek,
To honour him by whom his honour'd were.
Dryden. Measur'd for Measure, book 1.

Thus they put in wrytunge all the deeds of the kyng who was
in prison, and all that he had done by cruel counsell, and all
his wrongs, and cruel *behave*, and how cruel he had possessed
his realm, that which was ruled openly by tyrannical.

Freemant. Croyche, C. 14.

I persuaded myself, that chiefly & immediately you do it, to
thinken to undertake the better, howe that you shall *behave*
yourselfe, in ruling & gouernance of your realm.

Nichols. Theophrastus, fol. 7.

And with such sober and vnswayed passion
He did declare his anger was was agd,
As if he had but prou'd an argument.
Shakespeare. Titus of Athens, act. 35.

Whose a pompe of proud estate (quoth she)
Does swimme, and bathes himselfe in courtly blisse,
Does waste his daies in darke obscuritie,
And in oblivion euer buried is:
Where euer abundance, it's eate to doe ends;
But who his limbe with labours, and his mind
Beleaves with cares, cannot so eate mine.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book ii. c. 3.

How gravely, how modestly, how reverently would ye *behave*
yourselfe before him all the while you are in his house, and
especially at his holy table, where you are him coming to you,
and offering you his most blessed body and blood, to preserve
your souls and bodies to everlasting life.

Beveridge. Sermon iii.

She often expressed her dissatisfaction at that indecency of car-
riage which universally prevails in our churches; and wondered
that they should be most careless of their behaviour towards God,
who are most scrupulously exact in exacting and paying all the
little decencies that are in use among men.

Atterbury. Upon the Death of the Lady Cotti.

The concluding clause, this is the law and the prophets, has by
some been interpreted to mean, this is the sum and substance of
all religion; as if religion consisted solely in *behave* justly and
kindly to our fellow-creatures, and beyond this no other duty was
required at our hands.
Parsons. Lectures vii. v. 1.

We are not, perhaps, at liberty to take for granted that the
life of the preacher of Christianity was as perfect as their
lesson; but we are entitled to contend, that the observable part
of their behaviour must have agreed in a great measure with the
duties which they taught.
Paley. Evidences, chap. i. p. 1.

BEHEAD; } *Be and head. Head, is heaved;*
BEHEADING, } *heav'd, the past part. of the verb to*
heave; as the A. S. *heafed* was the past part. of *heafian*
(meaning the part of the body, or any thing else)
which is *heav'd*, *raised*, or *lifted up*, above the rest.
Tooke, ii. 39.

To head or behead, is to take off, cut off, strike off,
the head.

And Erondie seide, I have *beheaded* Jon, and who is this of
whom I here sicke things? and he soughte to see him.
Wiclif. Luk, chap. ix.

And Herode sayde: John hath I *beheaded*: who that is this of
whom I heare such thynges? And he desired to see him.
Bible, 1551.

So that there lyeth before the high altar, in St. Peter's Church,
two slabs, betwene two quernes, to wit, the D. of Somerset,
and the D. of Northumberland, betwene Q. Anne, and Q.
Katherine, all four *beheaded*.

Stowe. Ann. 1553. Queen Mary.

Thus you see what he is principal points of his
fable, setting aside and excepting those which are most credible,
to wit, the dismembering of Iherus and the *beheading* of Ios.
Holland. Plutarch, fol. 1054.

I think it was Caligula who wished the whole city of Rome had
but one neck, that he might *behead* them at a blow.
Spectator, No. 16.

Lord Clarendon relates that he [M. of Arnyyle] was condemned
to be hanged, which was performed the same day; on the con-
trary, Burnet, Woodrow, Heath, Eckard, concur in stating that
he was *beheaded*; and that he was condemned upon the Saturday
and executed on the Monday.
Paley. Evidences, p. iii. chap. 1.

BEHEARD, *be and heard*; past part. of the verb
to hear.

Robin Hood sett Goyen horse to his mouth,
And a loud blast it did blow,
That *beheard* the shirriff of Nottingham
As he leaved under a tree.

Robin Hood. Percy, v. 1.

BEHAVE
—
BE-
HEARD.

BE-
HEARD.
—
BEQUEST

All this *beheard* her owne damelle,
To her bed wheress she lay,
Quoth she, My lord shall knowe of this,
Soe I shall have golde and fee.
The Child of Elite. Prerog. v. i.

All that *beheard* his litle footpage,
As he waivered his master's steed;
And for his master's and perille
His very heart did bleed.
Old Robin of Portingale. Id. v. iii.

All *the beheard* a litle foot-page,
By his ladyes coach as he rane;
Quoth he, though I am my ladyes page,
Yet I mee my lord Bernardee swanne.
Little Magrune. Id. v. iii.

BEHEMOTH, this word in the original Hebrew signifies beasts in general, more particularly the larger animals fitted for bearing burdens. The description of the Behemoth in the book of Job, xl. 15. has been variously interpreted to signify the Hippopotamus or River horse, an Ox of extraordinary size, and the Elephant. Bochart, in his *Hierozoicon*, has used convincing arguments to show that it is the first of these animals. According to the Jewish Rabbins, God in the beginning created two Behemoth, male and female; the female was killed and salted to be reserved as an entertainment for the faithful whenever the Messiah shall come; the male is still living, and when the last day arrives God will kill it, and give it to the Israelites, who shall then rise from the dead. Calmet relates that the Jews are still so convinced of these extravagant traditions, that it is a common custom to swear by the share that they are to have of Behemoth hereafter, Job, xl. 15. Calmet's *Dictionary of the Bible*; Harmer's *Observations on Scripture*, vol. ii.

BEHEN, a name given to the *Silene inflata*, or Bladder Campion.

BEHEST, *be* and *hest*. Goth. *haitan*; A. S. *hætan*, *aitan*; Dutch, *hezen*; Ger. *heissen*; *nominare*, *nuncupare*, *vocare*, *dicere*, *habere*. See **BEHEER**.

That which is unaid, said, ordered (to be done); the declared will,—in order, mandate, promise.

Ne þat on man is worþe to be yeluped kyng,
Nate þe heye kyng of house, þat wrohte al þing,
þat þat kyng of water, and of erþe al so.
Heuene & lulle & æl þing mot nede þu ærte do,
An lathre þim as lordes, vor þam æn is wya,
þerfor æl þu kyng, myd varigt is þu,
þerfor æl þu kyng, þat þu æn æl kynges croune
Neuere bere ærþe, vor my poer is þer done.
R. Gloucester. p. 322.

Ac Harold made his wya bynne, as myd sykedom,
Myd gynþa & myd rapre bynne, & ænong þe kyngedom.
Id. p. 334.

After þu blyste, þat Thomas to þam said,
Sone alle þe tempest in a throwe was laid.
R. Bruce. p. 149.

To breken forward is not min entente,
Behest is dette, and I wold hold it fayn
All my *behest*, I can no better sayn.
Chaucer. The Man of Lawes Prologue, v. 4468.

For I dare make this *behest*,
That I to you haue nothing hid,
But tolde right as it is betide.
Gower. Conf. Am. book i. fol. 30.

Therfor was forwene my foo, for al here fayre þu heste
And forwene purwene me, and putte me to be lowe.
Piers Plowman. Vision, p. 201.

And that they might be assured, that he would performe all these
behests and promises; he helpt with his left hand a lambe, and in
the right a first stone, and prayed solemnely, That if hee failed
herewe, *Angels* and the rest of the Gods, would so kill him, as hee
slew that lambe; and presently after his prayer done, he smote the
lambe on the head, and dasht out the brains.

Holland. Lucien, fol. 419.

But as he sends upon his high *behests*
For state, as sovren King, and to ensure
Our prompt obedience.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book viii.

— The plain, by slow degrees, shall rise
Higher than erst had stood the sunnill-hill;
For time must ensure's great *behest* fulfill.

Prior. Solomon, book i. Knowledge.

But soon he calls the vision to his mind,
And ponders on the glorious charge assign'd;
Fresh to his soul the high *behest* returns;
And with redoubled zeal his bosom burns.

Brooke. Jerusalem Delivered, book i.

BEHEW, *v. be* and *hew*. A. S. *ahæwian*, *hæwian*; Dutch, *hauwen*; Ger. *hauen*; *accidere*, *scindere*, *delere*. Of stane *ahæwien*. Wiclif. Hewen of a stone. *Mark, xvi. 46.* A. S. *hæw* and *hæw*, says Junius, (English *hew*, or *hue*), is form, or image, especially such as is effected by cutting or carving. From the application, to form, figure, shape, it seems to have been extended, to the general aspect or appearance, to complexion and colour.

But lord so faire it was to shewe
For it was all with golde *beheved*.

Chaucer. The House of Fame, fol. 281.

BEHET, See **BEHEST**, and the quotation from **BEHEW**, R. of Gloucester. *Behete*, to declare the will, in promise rather than command; to promise. *Be* or *be-hete*, *BEHEW*, *be* or *be-hight* are constantly used in Wiclif, where the modern version uses, to promise. *Mark, xiv. 11.* A. S. *and bebeton him feoh to sylmann*. Wiclif. And bighighen to give him money. *Behest* still remains in common use.

þerfor he gaf is þim, as he byhet hym bynne,
And sende to hym myd þe gifte to Narnanþu þerfor.

R. Gloucester. p. 348.

And this *beheste* I you withouten faille
Upon my trooth, and as I am a knight,
That whether of you bothe hath that might,
This is to sayn, that whether be or thou
May with his hundreth, as I spake of now,
For his contrary, or out of listis drewe,
Him shall I yeres Ennile to wite,
To whom that fortune yerech so fayr a grace.

Chaucer. The Knightes Tale, v. 1856.

Also wyymmen in conuenable abite with schenclastene and sobrenesse sryngeþe beuissil, not to wraithen beuissil, eithir in gold, eithir in perille, eithir previous clooth. But that wicouneth wyymmen *beheste*geþe pite, bi good wylle.

Wiclif. Tyms. chap. ii.

Thus shal man hope, that for his wikes of porance God shal were him his regne, as he behtight him in the gospel.

Chaucer. The Perceus Tale, v. ii. 301.

Loose was her haw loket up, and lord mercey criede
And by *beht* to hym, þat on alle made
Hue shoude weywe hure smok, and sette þer an heire
To sithen hure flesch. þat fer was to sjan.

Piers Plowman. Vision, p. 87.

He spake and mid; if I the sawe,
What sikenes shall I have
Of contrait, that afterwarde
Then wold me gyve some wreche
As thou behtist some before?

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 113.

Antoniard some the scathfull gift beheld,
At night by row into the chert Mierre.

Serry. Jherus, book ii.

BEHET.
—
BEHIND.

And hath *behate* him by his fryth,
That who the best reason cryth,
He shall receive a worthy *ende*.
Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 152.

To you my father I confesse,
Such will my wife have *conscience*,
That what no hope she *behoir*,
Full many a time I wene it sooth.
Id. A. book I. fol. 19.

In so myche less is maad *hiketh* of the better testament.
Wiclif. Eborac. chap. vii.

The authors meaning should of right be heard,
He knoweth best to what end he endith:
Words sometime beare more thee heart *behoir*
Murre for Magistrates, 461.

Now I a walleful widow *behoir*,
Of my old age have this one delight,
To see thee succede in thy fathers stead,
And flourish, in flowers of lisselhood.
Spenser. The Shepherds Calendar, fol. 21.

Unto you would I be my live's space
As true, as any woman on earth is
Unto a man, doubteth nothing of this.
Small may she doe, that cannot well *behoir*,
Though not performed be such a promise.
Brown. Shepherds Pipe. Eccl. 1.

Upon which occasion his father at the varnyng of the south-
sayers, which tolde him that the child should be a king, tolde
the child to him, and brought him vp withall diligence in hope
of the state that was *behoir* him.
Goldyng. Justice, fol. 106.

BEHIND, } The imperative be and the noun
BEHINDWARD. } hind. After; posterior in time or
space.

Com þe erl of Kent aid us ȝog þis tricherie
Al frech bi hynde þe Britones.
R. Gloucester, p. 56.

Though I by ordre telle not these thinges,
Be it of popes, emperours, or kinges,
After his age, as we written finde,
But telle hem now before and soon *behinde*,
As it now cometh to my remembrance,
Have me excused of min ignorance.
Chaucer. The Merchant's Prologue, v. 13991.

Chidyng and iscelenge. þat was þus chet-lyfode
And blame man *lyfynde* here back.
Piers Pluchman. Vision, p. 90.

So that to fore us *behynde*
He wex to thyng, but as the bynde
Wakente unlight of his courage,
He duth mervail in his rage.
Gower. Conf. Am. book vi. fol. 134.

My curiosity to see a solemn procession on St. John Baptist's
day might have drawn me into danger, through my willing un-
reverence, had not the bulk of a tall friarster, *behind* whom I stood
in a corner of the street, shadowed me from notice.
Ep. Hell. Account of Himself.

Lzo. Oh my brother,
(Good gentlemen) the wrongs I have done thee stirre
Afrech within me: and these thy officers
(So rarely kind) are as interpreters
Of my *behind-hand* shakewyse.
Shakespeare. Winter's Tale, fol. 295.

But they were so disappointed, through the vigilance and valour
of Raleigh's company, and that of captain Drury, that such as were
not left dead *behind*, were forced to retreat with more haste than
good speed.
Gilby's Life of Raleigh, p. 15.

As two points of good-breeding, which I have hitherto insisted
upon, regard behaviour and conversation, there is a third which
turns upon dress. In this too the country are very much *behind-
ward*.
Spectator, No. 115.

In the journey of life some are left behind, because they are **BEHIND**.
naturally feeble and slow: some because they miss the way, and
many because they leave it by choice, and, instead of pressing **BEHOLD**.
onward with a steady pace, delight themselves with momentary
deviations, turn aside to pluck every flower, and repose in every
shade.
Johnson. The Rambler, No. 99.

BEHOLD, } A. S. *be-healdan, be-haldan, Heal-*
BEHOLDEN, } *dan, tenere, servare, observare.* To
BEHOLDING, } keep or hold (i.e. the eyes fixed upon
BEHOLDERS. } any object) to look at it, to observe,
to consider.

Beholden, *tentus, obligatus*; holden, kept, bound,
obliged. Hold or holden is thus used by Gower.

I made a tale written also
How that a worthy prince is *hold*
The law of his land to *hold*.
Gower. Conf. Am. book vii.

————— To hym in speciall
About all other I am most *hold*.
Id. A. book viii.

that is, bound, obliged; under bond, or obligation.

In þu schip as oþer pryces in gret pryde he bi *hold*,
And he hadde mid hym twa teeni men, hym þyge yeleste *hold*.
R. Gloucester, p. 34.

There is right at the west side of Italle
Down at the rote of Vernus the cold,
A lusty plain, habundant of vitaille,
There many a towne and fourte hundred *hold*.
Chaucer. The Clerk's Tale, v. 7933.

Estward ich *behold*, after þu some
And sawe a tour as ich knowede, truthe was þer yene.
Piers Pluchman. Vision, p. 11.

A kyng is *holden* over all
To pite, but in speciall
To him, where he is moste *holden*,
They shalke his pite moste *holden*,
That ben the lyes of the londe.
For thei ben ever under his bounde.
Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 167.

Maltese we witen that thou art toth fast and thou teachist in
treuthe the way of God, and thou chargist not of any man, for thou
beholdist not the persons of men, therefore seye to us, what it seem-
ith to thee.
Wiclif. Matt. chap. xxiii.

And Sherris *behold* him and seide aenstis men, it is impossible:
but not aenstis God for alle thingis þus possible aenstis God.
Id. Mark, chap. x.

Britheren, if a man be occupied in any gilt, ghe that ben *appty-
toul* reforme ghe such non in apptis of *reform*, *beholdyng* this
ill lost that thou be tempted.
Id. Galathies, chap. vi.

Yet maye it signifye Cryste cuer to be sought and to be *be-
holden* in faith of men in exyle.
Joye. Exposition of David, chap. vi.

Whome blessed and sacred body and soule raised and huyte in
one with the holy gothied, is a perfite and a cleare glasse, wherein
lys moste plessaunte glorified manhode maye be *beholden*.
Uall. Reuelacion, cap. xxi.

They should consider howe deeply they were bounden and
beholden to hym therefore, and with devout thanks, inwardly
remember his inestimable louy theie.
Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 1324.

His pleasure was, that for our saluacion we should to him be
beholdyng and not to the hepyng of the lawe.
Uall. Galathies, cap. ii.

The third god of great comfort
That yench to lovers most doopt,
Cometh of sight and *beholdyng*,
The cleer is wrote lokyng.
Chaucer. The Remenant of the Rose, fol. 125.

And to the wynter folowynge were royal inter *holden* in Smyth
filds of London, and many goodly and myghty feites of armys
down to the great house of the kyng, and all his realme and
gildyngs at al *beholden*.
Fabyan. Edward III. Ann. 1354.

BEHOLD. Then came Jesus forth, wearing the crown of thorns, and the purple robe; and Pilate saith unto them, *Behold the man.*
John, c. xix. v. 5.

BEHOOVE. Thus will'st such time as I may in some more larger measure, make known my loss to the happy and generous familie of the Goodloves, (to which I confesse myselfe to be *beholding*, for the most part of my education) I wish you all happiness.
Dryden. Dedication.

When as the sun their thickens doth oppose
 In his descending, shining wood'rous cleave,
 To the beholder, far off standing, shows
 Like some besieged towne that were on fire.

Id. Battle of Agincourt.

Thanks, lovely virgin; now might we but know
 To whom we have been *beholding* for this love,
 We shall acknowledge it.

Ford. 'Tis Pity She's a Whore, act iv. sc. 1.

Moreover when they had thrown there into all theyr riches, they caste them selves also lyeing after them, to the extent their enemy having gotten the victory, should enjoy nothing of theirs, more then the *beholding* of y^e fire.

Golding. Justice, fol. 70.

And as she did to Philoclea, so did she to her, with the tribute of pite seek to bring her mind into servitude: and all other means, that might either establish a *beholdingness*, or at least weake a kindness.

Sidney's Arcadia, book iii.

Leonatus, the young king of Pontus, (who had been there to acknowledge his *beholdenness* to them, whom he was deservingly bound to) took the field.

Id. Ib. book vi.

We must not be ashamed to acknowledge that we can do nothing of ourselves whereby to obtain the favour of God, but that we are *beholden* wholly to our Saviour for it.

Beveridge. Sermon 83.

I frequently offer'd to turn my sight another way, but was still detained by the fascination of the peeper's eyes, who had long practised a skill in them, to recall the parting glimmer of her *beholdenness*.

Spectator, No. 53.

If our constitution, I say, with so great advantages, does not, in fact, provide any such remedy (against mal-administration) we are rather *beholden* to any minister who undermines it, and affords us an opportunity of erecting a better in its place.

Harve. Essay iii. Politics a Science.

BEHO'OVE, or

BEHO'VE, v.

BEHO'VE, n.

BEHO'VE, n.

BEHO'VEFUL,

BEHO'VEFULLY,

BEHO'VEABLE

BEHO'VELY,

BEHO'VELY.

A. S. *behefe*; Ger. *behaft*; Dutch, *behoef*; Swe. *behof*; A. S. *behofan*; Ger. *behaften*; Dutch, *behoeren*. To need, to have need of. *Behofath* A. S. *oportet, interest, necesse est*; it behooveth, it is needful or necessary. Sommer.

To be needful, necessary, useful, serviceable, convenient, meet, fit.

In tyme of grete erme's nest, þat hi herdeþ in þre, Eke þu is a roche hym self, for hi is no more nogt ne be, Nor hem byhoofe nache meite.

R. Gloucester, p. 177.

I haf had a vowe to leue for wele ne wo,
 At my nede now with me *behooveth* yow go.

R. Brunne, p. 221.

And worke not alway in every nede by an conceitour allowe: for sometime *behooveth* it to be consoled by many.

Chaucer. The Tale of Malbeus, v. li. p. 88.

This wit wot wherly, as þe world tereþy

Wast oþer þy howeþ, þat hath more children

And hath no castel botte bus crathe, to cloþe hem and to fode.

Piers Plowman. Finian, p. 151.

A kynge *behooveth* eke to bee
 The vice of prodigalitye,
 That he muniere in his expence
 So kipe, that of indigence
 He make be softe, as who that needeth,
 In all his werke the wores he spendeth.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 153.

And thus it *behooveth* Crist to suffer; and rise agen fro deeth in the thirde day; and prudence and remission of synnes, to be prechid in his name into alle folkis bygyngynge at Jerusalem.

Wiclif. Loh, chap. xxi.

Thus it *behooveth* Christe to suffer, and to ryse agayne from deathe the thirde day, and that repentance and remission of synnes should be preached in his name among alle nacions, and synners begynne at Jerusalem.

Julie, 1551.

But it were through the God of Loue,
 I knew not eke to my *behoove*
 That might me ease or comfort gette,
 But if he would hime entereite.

Chaucer. Remount of the Rose, fol. 159.

The kynge upon his tale answerde
 And said: If this thing, which he herde
 He moeth, and mai be brought to proue;
 It shall not be to his *behoove*.

Gower. Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 37.

Now shalt thou understand what is *behoofeful* and necessary to every purit poynt.

Chaucer. The Pervous Tale, v. li. p. 283.

This kynge Stephen preparyd to set forwarde his people, and eke Bandewyne had wordes of comferte to the kynge's people, and sayd: "men y^e shall fyght, to them is *behoof* all thre thynges: y^e trust is ryght of y^e cause," &c. &c.

Fabyan, cap. 232.

But yet in that point in which it had been chiefly of all expedit and *behoofeful* to give cure unto Johns saynges, he did not oonly doe after his counsaile, but also caste hym into pryson for giving hym good advertisement.

Udell. Luke, cap. 3.

And sith thar is every tales strength,
 And this matter is so *behoof*,
 What should I point or drawe it on length
 To you, that ben my frend so faithfully!

Chaucer. Troilus and Criseide, book ii. fol. 159.

Now it is *behoof* to tellen which ben dedly synnes, that is to say, chieftainces of synnes.

Id. The Pervous Tale, v. li. p. 311.

For trouble, (which to mannes nede)
 Is most *behoof*fulle over all.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 153.

All these things it *behooveth* your Maistie to send in tyme: for I can assure your Maistie that you shall not have upon the sea such goodshippes as these are.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Spaniards Letters Intercepted, v. iii. fol. 516.

King Henry (3.) being sick, called before him Gilbert de Clare, Earle of Gloucester, and caused him to be sworn to keepe the peace of the land, to the *behoof* of Edward his sonne, & then died the sixteenth of November, in the yeere 1272.

Stowe. Ann. 1272. King Henry III.

Whence it was, that his said late Majestic (of happy memory) gave publicke order for bestowing the later parts of God's day in familiar catechizing; then which, nothing could be devised more necessary and *behoof*ful to the soules of men.

Hall. Old Religion. Ep. Dedication.

But tell us of some more weighty diadems in the Statutes then these, and that may more *behoof*fully import the reformation of them.

Sponser. Of Ireland.

For a citie and a province he got the faire houses, and the strong walles, nor the defence of any engine, but the living bodies of men, being able in number and strength, to maintaine themselves by good order of justice, and to serve for all necessary, and *behoof*ful uses in the common weale.

St. John Church. The hurt of Sedition.

If therefore we mean to be good or to be happy, it *behooveth* us to loose no time; to be presently up at our own great task; to snatch all occasions, to embrace all means incident of reforming our brutish and irre.

Burrow. Sermon 16. v. lii.

It *behooveth* you, therefore, (and I cannot repeat it too often,) it *behooveth* you well to consider the end of your office, and to represent to yourself how great and important is the administration of governing a free state.

Melmoth. Pity. book viii. lett. 26.

BEHOWL-
BEH-
RING'S
ISLAND.

BEHOWL, in the old folio it is *behold*. Warburton and Farmer have established the reading, *behowls*, in the modern editions. See To Howl.

Puck. Now the hungry lions roars,
And the whole *behowls* the noise.
Whilst the heavy ploughman sows,
All with weary laze fore-does.

Shakespeare. Midsummer Night's Dream, fol. 162.

BEHRING'S BAY is situated on the west coast of North America, in the 60th degree of latitude, and received its present name from Captain Vancouver. When Behring visited these shores, he anchored in a large bay, the position of which was not correctly ascertained. Captain Cook, on sailing along these shores, assigned this appellation to a different part; but as he only saw them from a considerable distance, he could not perceive the tract of low ground that stretches from the base of the sweep of mountains which he supposed to bound the bay. Vancouver, on a clear survey, found that this low land precluded all appearance of a bay, in the place which Captain Cook had assigned it; and therefore, as the name was intended to be applied to the bay in which Behring anchored, he transferred it to that which Mr. Dixon had previously called Admiralty Bay, and which is situated as above specified. This he conceived himself justified in doing, as there is no other bay between Cape Suckling and Cape Fairweather, in which Behring could have found shelter.

BEHRING'S ISLAND, an island in the North Pacific Ocean, which has sometimes been included in the Aleutian chain, and at others considered as detached from it. But if this range be regarded as forming the connection between the two continents, this island forms the most western link, being only separated by a strait from the eastern coast of Kamtschatka. It was discovered about 1740 by Vitus Behring, a Dane, and Commander in a Russian voyage of discovery. He approached it under circumstances of great distress, and his vessel was soon afterwards wrecked on the coast. The crew experienced extreme hardships during the following winter, and many of them perished from the hardships and privations to which they were exposed. Among these were the Captain, and M. de la Omyere, the French astronomer in the expedition. The island at that time contained a great number of wild animals common to these regions, and as they were totally unaccustomed to any interruptions from man, the Russians were often obliged to contend with troops of foxes for the dead fish cast on the shore by the waves; and before they could bury their deceased comrades, the bodies were sometimes partially devoured by these animals. The length of Behring's Island is about 100 miles, and its medial breadth twelve or fifteen. The aspect is mountainous and sterile. The most elevated parts are principally composed of sandstone and granite, and the summits are covered with perpetual snow. There are two bays on the coast, where vessels engaged in the fur trade sometimes winter, but they are difficult of access, and not well sheltered from the north winds. Several plants have been found on the island, but no wood. The principal land animals are two or three species of foxes, and the shores are frequented by numerous sea otters and sea lions. The sea cow was also once plentiful, but the rapacity of the Russian hunters has either destroyed the whole breed, or banished it to some other place. The

BEH-
RING'S
ISLAND.
BEIRA.

latitude of the island is about 53° north, and the longitude 167° east.

BEJADE, be and *jade*; of unknown etymology. To weary, to tire; to dishearten.

But if you have no mercy upon these, yet spare yourself, lest you *kynde* the good collawer, your own opinionster wit, and make the very conceit itself bluish with spur-galling.

Milton. Adam upon the Rock. Defence, fol. 99.

BEJAFE, be and *jape*; perhaps as *jabber*, and *gile*; from Ger. *gabbern*; Fr. *gaber*; It. *gabbar*; *jocari*, *augari*. To joke, mock, deride, delude.

Then hast *bejaped* here duk Theane,
And falsely changed him thy name thus.

Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, v. 1587.

Now was his hart dull, now was it light
And thus *bejaped* shiden for to stare
About naught, *beis* Trullie and Pandure.

Id. Trullie and Pandure, fol. 190.

They bea but Ingulere, and lagers of kynde,
Loche and lecheres, and leman lollen,
Nether in order ne out, but vanech lybethe,
And *bejapeth* the folk, with gettes of Rome.
It is but a ferynt folke, flynned by on laper.

Piers Plouman. Crede.

Tho was there flattere none,
The worthy prince to *brage*,
The kynge was otherwis shap
With good counsaill.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 155.

BEJAR or BEIAS, a fortified town in the district of Ploacentia, Spanish Estremadura. It stands in a pleasant valley encompassed with the mountains called Sierra de Bezar, the highest summits of which are covered with perpetual snow. It was raised to the rank of a duchy in 1448, and possessed by the house of Zuniga. Bejar is now most noted for its mineral springs. One of these is cold, and is used for drinking; the other is warm, and is employed as a bath. There is also a lake in its vicinity, which is said to be greatly agitated before a tempest.

BEILD, *beild*, shelter. North. Grose. A.S. *be-aldian*; to cover, to protect, to shelter.

This is the *spure*, that makes our courses sure,

This is our harbour, safe from dangers floods;

This is our *beild*, the blustering winds to shunne.

Voltaire. Godfrey of Boulogne, book ii. st. 84.

BEILSTEIN, or axe-stone, in *Mineralogy*, a green-coloured stone, remarkable for its toughness; used by the natives of the South Sea Islands, New Zealand, and some other places, for making hatchets and other implements, whence its name has been derived. Images, idols, and personal ornaments have also been made from the same stone, by the inhabitants of those islands, numbers of which have been brought to this country, and may frequently be seen in the cabinets of mineralogists, and in those of the collectors of curious objects of art. See Treatise on MINERALOGY, species Jade.

BEIRA, a province of Portugal, chiefly bounded by the river Douro on the north, by Spain on the east, by the Tagus and Portuguese Estremadura on the south, and by the Atlantic on the west. The extent is computed at 11,000 square miles, and the population at nearly 900,000, which is about eighty-two persons to a square mile, or rather less than the number for the whole of the kingdom. Much of this province is mountainous, particularly towards the east, where it is traversed by the Sierra Estrella, one of the principal ridges in Portugal. These give rise to numerous streams

BEIRA.
—
BEIT-EL-
FAKIH.

which either fall into the two great rivers that wash its northern and southern borders, or find their way into the Atlantic Ocean. The valleys afford rich pasturage, and the bases of the mountains produce much excellent wine; but the quantity of grain raised is not sufficient for the consumption of the province. Chestnut trees cover many of the mountains, and their fruit in a great measure supplies the place of grain, to the lower orders of the people. Olive plantations are numerous, and their produce, with that of the vineyards, forms the chief exports of the province. Mines both of silver and lead were formerly wrought in the mountainous districts of Beira, and rich specimens of ore have been found near Lamego; but since Portugal obtained her transatlantic possessions, the inhabitants have been prohibited from extracting the precious metals in their native country. Beira contains seven episcopal cities, and about 230 other towns; one of the most noted of which is Coimbra.

BEISTON, a township in the parish of Banbury, in the county of Chester, distinguished for the ruins of a magnificent castle. An insulated sandstone rock sloping gradually on one side to the general level of the country, but rising precipitously to the height of 366 feet on the other, is crowned by a fortress built in the year 1220, by Randle Blundeville, Earl of Chester. It enclosed an area of between five and six acres, and was guarded on the accessible side by a vast moat cut in the solid rock. In the time of Henry VIII. this stately pile was much dilapidated: yet in the civil wars of Charles I. reign, we find it in a state of defence, which rendered it a most important post. When it was garrisoned for the Parliament, Captain Sandford, a celebrated cavalier, undertook to scale its almost perpendicular side; and having thus gained entrance, with eight men only, he intimidated the commander, Captain Steel, by this unexpected assault, and compelled him to surrender. Steel was soon afterwards shot for cowardice. The royalists were then besieged for upwards of four months. Prince Rupert relieved them; but the castle was a second time invested, and a blockade of eighteen weeks reduced the garrison to the most piteous extremity of famine. Nevertheless, after a gallant defence, they obtained the most honourable terms, and the castle was immediately dismantled by orders of the Parliament. The township of Beiston, in the census of 1821, contained 441 inhabitants.

BEIT-EL-FAKIH, (the Doctor's house) the capital of a district bearing the same name in Tehamah, in lat. 14° 31' N. long. 43° 5' E. This town, though of a considerable size, was unknown to the older Arabian geographers, having been founded by a Musselman saint, named Ahmed ibn Musa, in the seventeenth century. It is the great emporium of the coffee trade, the best samples of that article being, as is well known, produced in the neighbouring mountains of Yemen. It is subject to the Imam of Yemen, and owes its prosperity in great measure to the rule of Ghalefah, a town on the Red Sea, and formerly the port of this part of Arabia, but now a miserable hamlet in consequence of the destruction of its harbour by coral reefs. Captain Hamilton, in his *Account of the East Indies*, has given a very erroneous description of this, and other places in the neighbourhood, derived probably from the oral testimony of persons who gave him inaccurate information. (Niebuhr's *Reisebeschreibung*, i. 317. and *Beschreibung von Arabien*, p. 226.

BEITH, a town and parish in Scotland, situated chiefly in Ayrshire, though a small part of it is in Renfrewshire. The population of the entire parish was, in 1821, 4472, and of these 4435 were in Ayrshire. They are chiefly employed in the manufactures common to that part of Scotland. Bleached and coloured thread are made in large quantities, and numerous looms are employed in weaving cotton. Many of the females are also engaged in tanning and flowered muslin for the manufacturers of Paisley and Glasgow. A beautiful marble has lately been found in the neighbourhood of this town, containing many petrifications and marine substances; it is much employed for chimney pieces and other ornamental purposes. Beith is eight miles from Irvine.

BEKAA, a fertile valley between the chains of Libanus and Antilibanus in Syria, chiefly inhabited by the sect of Marwān. It suffered very severely from the great earthquake of 1750.

BEKESCH, a county of Hungary, bounded on the north by great Cumania and Bihar, on the east by Zaránd, on the south by Arad, and on the west by Salnok and Csongrad. It forms a square of nearly forty miles, and contains four towns, sixteen villages, and about 55,000 inhabitants, who are composed of Hungarians, Bohemians, Slavonians, and Walachians, professing the Greek, the Lutheran, and the Catholic religions.

BEKLA, a small island in the West Indies, about sixty miles north-east of Grenada. It was called Little Martinique by the French, and has a good harbour, but no fresh water. It produces wild cotton and water melons, but is infested with snakes and venomous insects. It does not appear to be inhabited; but is sometimes visited by the people of Grenada and St. Vincent's, for the purpose of catching turtles. Its latitude is about 13° north.

BEKISS, be and kis. Goth. *kukjan*; A. S. *cysson*; Dutch, *kussen*; Ger. *kussen*, *oculari*; Goth. *thammē kukjan*, *sa ist*; A. S. *sæa harglene sæa ic cyssæ*, *he hit ys*. Whomever I kiss, he it is. Mark, xiv. 14.

Mrs. Come, Amie, you'll go with us?

Ans. I can not well.

Lio. She's sick o' the young shepherd that heit her.

Ben Jonson. *The Sad Shepherd*, act I. sc. 6.

BEKNIT, be and knit. A. S. *cnifian*, *nectere*, *figure*. *Becnytle*, *ncrus*, knit, bound, tied. Somner.

Here stood the fowls, (Tilphoea,) and stoop'd their passage out;
And playing forth her filthy arms about with snakes about,
Did come and wave her hateful head.

Arch. Golding. *Orid's Metamorphoses*, book iv.

BEKNOWE, be and know. A. S. *canthan*, to know; to recognize, to acknowledge.

That is both ich seide, and so ich by knowe

That ich have that time.

Piers Plouman. Vision, p. 80.

For I dare not beknowe min owen name,

But ther as I was wont to kichte Arclie,

New lighte I Philotrist, not worth a suite.

Chaucer. *The Knights Tale*, v. 1558.

And when they had told all her distress

And all her temper and all her hard case

Unto the Queene appeared Enas

And openly beknowe that it was he

Who had toyd them, but his meine

That hadden found her lord, her governeur.

Id. *The Legend of Good Women*, fol. 202.

BEANOW

BELATE

So we deeply wounded with the bloodie thought,
And gnawing worms that griev'd our conscience so,
Neuer took ease, but as our heart enlought
The stayned signs in witness of our woe,
Such restless cares our fault did well besow.

Mirror for Magistrates, p. 416.

So sir Jaques of Helley entred into the court bold and spurred;
as then he was not belated, for he had of long tyme latched farre
countreine.

Francis. Cron. v. li. C. 219.

BELA, the capital of Les, in Belajistân, in lat.
28° 10' N., long. 66° 40' E.
BELAÏKOU, be and labour. Lat. labours. See
To LABOUR.

To work hard, diligently, carefully, actively.

Violins strike up aloud,
Fly the gitters, scour the crowd,
Let the nimble hand keelbow
The whistling pipe, and drumming tabor.

Drayton. Nymphs, viii. p. 463.

And because the legions had committed certain insolencies,
whereupon they fell together by the ears, and the enemies had the
better hand, after he had sharply reproved them, he took the tenth
man of the two first bands, and belechered Jubeltus with a
cudgel.

North. Plutarch, 964.

If this earth is belechered with culture, it yieldeth corn; but
lying neglected, it will be overgrown with brakes and thistles.

Bacon. Sermon xviii. v. 3.

Homer illustrates one of his heroes encompassed with the
enemy, by an sea in a field of corn, that hath his sides belechered
by all boys of the village, without stirring a foot for it.

Spectator, No. 161.

What groan was that I heard? Deep groan indeed
With anguish heavy laden. Let me trace it
From yonder bed it comes, where the strong man,
By stranger arm belechered, gasps for breath,
Like a hard-busted beast.

Baird. The Grave.

BELACED, be and lace. Belace, to cover with lace.
Lace is the past tense, and past participle of lacean,
lacegan, lacegan, prehendere, apprehendere. Tooke, li. 353.
The lace of a shoe is that by which the shoe is
laced, caught, or held. Lace = made by catching and
holding the threads together.

With proud delight, and with no less success
I turn'd my heart to those soul-conquering charms
Which flourish in smooth numbers: how to dress
In fierce way war's thundering alarms;
How to belace and fringe soft love,
For all my ink was now Castilian dew.

Broomont. Psyche, c. li. st. 48.

BELAMY, } Fr. bel amy; bel amour. Belias amicus,
Be'lamous, } fair friend.

Then bel amy, thou pardonneur, he said,
Tel us some worth of paper right anon.

Chaucer. Pardonneur's Tale, ProL v. 12252.

Wise Socrates,
Pour'd out his life, and last philosophy,
To the false Critias, his dearest belamis.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book li. c. 7.

Lo, lo, how brave she decks her bounteous bower,
With silken curtains and gold-colour'd bower,
Therein to shew her sumptuous belamis.

Id. ib. book li. c. 6.

BELATE, } Be and late. Goth. latjan;
BELATERE, } A. S. latian. Differre, tardare, morari
canctari. To deferre, to delay, to linger, to tarry, to
come behind or too late. Sommer.

To thee sage Hermegild myself I leave,
My fame and pre'e: the action cannot waste;
Cautious retard, nor promptitude deceive;
Slowness belate, nor hope drive on too fast.

Deverant. Goodfellow, book li. c. 2.

Faerie elves,
Whose midnight revels, by a forest side
Or fountain some belated peasant sees,
Or dreams he sees.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book i.

Yet that you may see that I am something suspicious of myself,
and show take notice of a certain belatedness in me, I am the
holder to send you some of my nightward thoughts some while
since, because they come in not altogether unfitted, made up in a
Petrarchian stanza, which I told you of.

Id. Letter. Birch's Life.

A watch-low'r to the wand'rers of mankind;
Furrow, belated, and with passions blind,
Who tread the foolish road their fathers tread,
And 'midst life's errors, hit on death's by-road.

Heric. Miscaries.

This day, for the first time, we hear of the proofs. But when
were those proofs offered? Is what came? Who were the
parties? Who inspected? Who contested this belated account?

Burke. On the Nihil of Arct's Debit.

BELAWGIVE, be, law, and give. A compound of
Milton's. To give law to.

Did not the distemper of their own stomachs affect them with a
dizzy megrim, they would soon tie up their tongues, and discover
themselves, like that Assyrian blasphemer, all this while reproach-
ing not sin, but the Almighty, the Holy One of Israel, whom
they do not deny to have belawg'd his own sacred people with
this very allowance.

Milton. On Deceit.

BELAY, be and lay. Dutch, belaghen. Sommer
says, belawan, prodero, to belay, to bewray, betray.
Skinner adds, insidiari. But he further suggests, be
and lay, q. d. insidius objicere. Similar to this is
waylay.

To lay, (sc. in wait, upon the watch, in ambush, in
blockade, for an opportunity to assault or attack.)

By sole byette Kasterbury, and vassal b'lay,
And great raymon of hen wyjane came to be set of w.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 126.

— The Greeks sought

Unto the towers, and it belay,
And wolden never parte away,
Till what by sight, and what by strength,
They had it wonne in broke and length.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 126.

— The Greeks sought

Unto the towers, and it belay,

And wolden never parte away,

Till what by sight, and what by strength,

They had it wonne in broke and length.

They had belayed all the coast along for vs, and being disposed
so, were not well to be number'd.

Haldy. T'agney, &c. M. Froisher, li. 3. 73.

Gainst such strong castles needeth greater might
Then those small fortens, ye were want b'lay;
Such heretie minds can't to beary fight
Discipline to yield unto the first assay.

Spenser. Sonnet xiv.

Silent they sped away, and haste their flight,
To neigh ring woods, and trust themselves to sight
The specks bore all passages b'lay,
And spur their sunning steeds to cross their way;
And watch each entrance of the winding wood.

Drayton. Faerie, book li.

BELAY, be and lay. Inland or overlaid; covered.

All in a woodman's jacket he was clad
Of Lincoln green, belayed with silver lace.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book vi. c. 2.

BELBEIS, a town of Egypt, situated about thirty
miles north-east of Cairo, and supposed by some
writers to be the ancient Babastum; but D'Anville
rather thinks it was Pharothis. It stands at the
junction of several canals, derived from different parts
of the Nile, and was formerly well fortified, and con-
sidered as the chief bulwark on that side of the
country. Its fortifications, however, had been long

BELATTY

RELBEIS.

BELBEAS. neglected when they were repaired by Buonaparte, in 1799, as a defence against the Turks. Its population is now supposed not to exceed 5000, though it was formerly three or four times as great.

BELCH, v. } A. S. *beolcan, beolcetan, cræclære,*
beolcan, n. } *effunder.* G. Douglas, in the pas-
BELCHING. } sage cited from Phæar and Addison,
 uses "belkies forth." Piers Plowman writes, "belke."
 Bishop Hall and Dr. Beusomoot, "belking." Phæar
 uses both *belch*, and *belke*. *Erigit eructans.* It belch
 and belkies out.

To pour forth, to eject, to throw or drive forth,
 to expel. *Belch* also appears to have been the name
 of some heavy windy liquor.

Beedleite he bygon wit a belke, and his brest knocked.

Piers Plowman, Passus, p. 110.

For when he gorged had himself, with meats and drinking
 drowned,
 He bowed his neck to sleep, and there he lay along the ground;
 An hideous thing to sight: and belching out the guts of blood,
 And lumps of flesh, with wine, he gulped forth.

Phæar, Boetides, book iii.

The giant, gorg'd with flesh, and wine and blood,
 Lay stretch'd at length and aching in his den,
 Belching raw goblets from his maw, o'erwhelm'd
 With purple wine and cruddled gore confusion.

Addison.

As burning Ætas, from his boiling stove,
 Doth belch out flames, and rocks in pieces broke,
 And ragged ribs of mountains molten saw,
 Enwrap in coal-black clouds and filthy smoke,
 That all the land with stench, and heaven with horror choke.

Spenser, Faerie Queene, book i. c. xi.

All radishes breed wind wonderfully much, and provoke a man
 that eateth them, to belch. *Holland, Phæar, fol. 16.*

Still, still I burn; my fire but changed is to,
 And though my lust be cool'd, my guilt is hot,
 And belch and boils.

Beusomoot, Pryck, c. li. st. 146.

Their belking hoarse heaved high, and false
 They would have belched out their working load
 Of blasphemy, which held their souls in pain.

Id. ib. c. xv. st. 47.

For our bodily grievances, what varieties do we here meet
 without? What aches of the bones, what twinges of the joints, what
 convulsions of sinews? *Bishop Hall, Helix of Gaius.*

Nor Ætas vomiting sulphurous fire
 Will ever belch; for sulphur will expire,
 (The veins exhausted of the liquid store);
 Time was she cast no flames; in time will cast no more.

Dryden, Ovid's Metamorphoses, book xv.

'Tis notorious from the instance under consideration, that it
 must be owing to the use of brown jugs, mostly belch, and the
 fumes of a certain memorable place of rendezvous with us at meals,
 known by Staines Hole. *Spectator, No. 396.*

Belch'd from the breast thrust of war, would hide,
 Indistinctly, the ruin which it spreads,
 As if ashm'd of massacre.

Thomson, Sickness, book v.

BEL'AGUE, } *Be and league.* Ger. *legen*; Dutch,
BEL'AGUE. } *laeghen, be-laeghen*; Swe. *belegra*;
 A. S. *lægan*, to lay. V. **BELAY.**

To lay, place or dispose; to lay wait for, (ac. to
 assault, to attack.)

For even the very expeditions and voyages in warre, have not
 alwaies battels arrayed, nor fields fought and bloody skirmishes,
 as yet besieging and beleaguering of cities.

Holland, Plutarch, fol. 319.

And that if the great princes of the north
 Will with an army royal set him forth,
 Before the year expire'd that is to come,
 He will with Bourne new beleague Rome.

Drayton, The Owl.

See, every way's a trap, each path's a train:
 Hell's troops my sole beleague; how these wars,
 And hear my cries pierce through my groans and fears.

P. Fletcher, The Purple Island, c. xii.

BELEE. I have been informed, (says Mr. Steevens,) that one vessel is said to be in the lee, when it is so placed that the wind is intercepted from it. Iago's meaning therefore is, that Cassio had got the wind of him, and becalm'd him from going on.

Lee is a place secure from the injuries of wind and weather. A. S. *leow.* Lye. And *leow* is the past participle of *lêcan, hleowan, tepere, fovere.*

To *belee*, here then, is applied consequently. To shelter (ac. from the wind; and thus, to have no wind to enable me to sail).

But he (Sir) had th' election;
 And I (of whom his ries had seen the proofe
 At Rhodes, at Cyprus, and on other grounds
 Christen'd, and Heathen) must be be-lee'd, and calm'd
 By debitor, and creditor.

Shakespeare, Othello, fol. 310.

BELFAVE, *be and leave.* *Quousque (refus) omnes
 nefas in morte relinquit.* Quomodo now, scheme to say
 the harme, so wikkily redily to myschevus deith
 beleft have I. G. Douglas. Whom all (phaser) I now
 have left unto their death and grave. *Alban V.
 LEAVE.*

Voe þe kring Edward and þe men kward ywand were,
 þe folc of Kant, ægen þa wille, *byrdne þere.*
R. Gloucester, p. 269.

Voe þe folc of þis lond to sýne þe wille all gent,
 And got soile betwæ þe synners bylows
 þere we and other halowen. *Id. p. 265.*

And ever amongst the holy tales,
 Like as thei weren fishes scales
 Thei fallen from hym now and eft,
 Tyll that there was nothyng beleft
 Of all this great maschie.

Gower, Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 47.

BELED-EL-HARAM, or the HOLY LAND OF ISLEM, is a mountainous district of Arabia, on the east shores of the Red Sea. It stretches from Araboss, a port about twenty-one leagues north of Jeddah, to Almissa Ibrahim, about thirty-two leagues south-east of the same place; being more than fifty leagues in length, and nearly twenty-eight in breadth. It is only watered by a few small springs, but is sacred ground in the estimation of the Mahomedans. When the pilgrims, on their way to Mecca, arrive at Beled-el-Haram, certain introductory ceremonies commence, one of which is that of putting on a garment without a seam.

BELEM, or BETHLEEM, a town of Portuguese Estremadura, on the banks of the Tagus, and about three miles west of Portugal. It is principally separated from that capital by the suburbs of Alcantara and Juqueria. It was founded by King Emanuel, and contains a royal palace, a hospital for decayed nobility, and a celebrated monastery of Hieronymites, the church of which is the burial-place of many of the royal family. This church and monastery, indeed, are among the most magnificent in Portugal. A square tower, also called Belem, stands in the middle

**BE-
 LEAGUE.
 BELEM.**

BELEM. of the Tagus, and is the principal citadel of Lisbon. At this place vessels pay tribute in ascending the river, and opposite to it is the station for quarantine. After the great earthquake, in 1755, the royal family removed from Lisbon to Belem; but the wooden house in which they resided being consumed by fire, the court removed to Queluz. It was also at Belem that an attempt was made to assassinate King Joseph, in 1758.

BELEMNITE. In *Mineral Conchology*, is one among the many species of organic remains which are found in a fossil state, and of which no analogues are known to exist at this time. It occurs first in the chalk formation, and very sparingly in the upper beds of that substance. It is, however, abundant in the beds immediately below the chalk: its form is nearly cylindrical, pointed at one end, and having a conical hollow at the other. The animal from which it has been derived, is considered to have belonged to the testaceous mollesco, and to have been contained in a multilocular univalve shell; but the fossil does not present itself in a sufficiently perfect state to furnish an accurate knowledge of its exact form. Its substance is siliceous carbonate of lime, radiating perpendicularly from the axis of the cylindrical body. In the districts in which the remains of Belemnites are found, they have been vulgarly called thunderbolts, and have been supposed to accompany violent storms.

BELEPER, be and leper. Gr. and Lat. *lepro*, from *lepro*, squameo, sc. scale.

Lepra, that which breaks the skin into scales. Vossius.

Eternal mischief: I must urge no more:

For were I not *beleper'd* in my soul,

Here were enough to quench the flames of hell.

Pope. Luc's sacrifice, act ii. sc. ii.

Son. Turn will I pull thy hair, and thus I'll drag

Thy lust *be-leper'd* body through the dust.

Yet tell his name.

Id. 'Tis Pity She's a Whore, act iv. sc. iii.

Under which two primitive names, (the purity and poverty of ministers,) for such they were indeed, the Church of God more truly flourished than ever after, since the time that impurity and church-revenue rushing in, corrupted and *leper'd* all the clergy with a worse infection than Gelaz's.

Milton. Elzevir. ch. xlv.

BELFAST, one of the principal seaports of Ireland, in the county of Antrim. It stands at the bottom of Carrickfergus Bay, on the east coast of that county, and is nearly in the centre of the linen manufactures. It is the chief place for the export of that article, and may be considered as almost a Scottish colony. Belfast is one of the most important commercial places in Ireland, and has been greatly improved within the last twenty years. The lower parts of the town are only a few feet above high water mark, at spring tides; but the streets in all the more open parts are broad, straight, and well paved and lighted. Two good bridges cross the river Lagan, which enters the bay at this place. Most of the houses are built of brick, and among the public buildings are two episcopal churches, several chapels appropriated to the Roman Catholics and Dissenters, and some good buildings dedicated to commercial purposes. The port is connected with the interior by means of a canal, which joins the Bay to Lough Neagh. Besides its principal linen manufactures, Belfast has others of cotton, glass, vatrol, and pottery, are also made;

and there are several sugar refineries. In addition to BELFAST, and the export of linco, those of beef, lather, pork, and other products of the interior, are likewise sent from BELFAST to the West Indies, and other places. The Custom-house duties have some years amounted to more than £400,000. More than fifty ships belong to the place, carrying a burden of between eight and nine thousand tons, and navigated by about 7000 men. Vessels drawing thirteen feet water come up to the wharf at high tide; and convenient docks have been constructed both for building and repairing ships of a considerable size. Belfast is a royal borough, and sends one member to the Imperial Parliament. The government of the town is vested in the Marquess of Donegal, as lord of the castle, the constable of the castle, and twelve burgesses. There is also a Police magistrate; and a House of correction was completed in 1817. Belfast, too, contains several institutions for benevolent purposes, as well as one devoted to the diffusion of literature and taste. The progress of Belfast has been very rapid; for, in 1758, the population was only 5549; in 1782, the inhabitants amounted to 13,105; in 1798, they had increased to 18,920; and they are now about 30,000. It is eighty miles north of Dublin, in lat. 54° 35' N., and longitude 5° 46' W.

BELGARDES. Beautiful looks. Fr. *belles regards*. Upton. Amorous glances.

The whiles, ravages away her wond'ring eye

And greedy cares, her whole heart from her bore.

Which he perceiving, ever proudly

In speaking, many false *belgarde* at her let fly.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book iii. c. ix. fol. 170.

And on thine eyelids, waiting thee beside,

Ten thousand graces sit, and when they move

To earth their smother'd *belgarde* from above,

They fly from leave's, and on their wings convey thy love.

G. Fletcher. Christ's Triumph and Victory.

BELGÆ, a horde of ancient Scythians, or Goths, who advanced from Asia into Europe, at an early date in the history of the world, and drove the Cimbric, or Northern Celts, from the regions which they had previously occupied in the north-western districts of Gaul, which from them obtained the appellation of Belgic Gaul. Antiquarians and etymologists are not agreed upon the derivation of this name. What is known of the people justifies the character which Cæsar has drawn of them in his *Commentaries*, (lib. ii. c. 4.) where he describes them a fierce and warlike race. Some writers have supposed the name to have originated in this quality, as the word *Belga*, in the Teutonic language signifies "fierce." Others have considered the term *Belgæ* as synonymous with the Celtic *Belgichia*, which implies persons inhabiting the higher or northern part of the country; and this would indicate the inhabitants of the northern part of Gaul, in comparison with their more southern neighbours. As a third derivation, the term has been thought to spring from *Belgæ* or *Velgæ*, which denoted a stranger. Thus *Belgæ* would imply strangers, an appellation extremely applicable on their first settlement in the country. Their migratory and enterprising disposition does not appear to have quitted them on their firm establishment on the western confines of the European continent; for several centuries anterior to the Christian era, they pushed their way into Britain, where they displaced the Celtic inhabitants,

BELGÆ as they had previously done in their continental possessions of Europe. When Cæsar first explored Britain, he found the primitive Britons in the interior, while the southern and eastern regions were occupied by Belgic colonies. The situation of this people on the continent gave full scope to their warlike propensities; for their northern neighbours, the Germans, were frequently in a state of hostility with them. The Belgæ, however, became alarmed at the success of the Roman arms against the people of Germany, and united themselves with the Celts and Gauls in opposing the progress of these southern warriors; but Cæsar found means to sow dissensions among them, and several of these tribes then submitted in succession to his arms. Others, however, stood firm to their engagements, and resolved to meet him in the field, and there to prove that the price of freedom was not less than a torrent of Roman blood. Among these tribes he enumerates the Nervii, the Atrebatæ, and the Veromandri, who were ultimately defeated by the superior prowess of the Roman legions; it was however one of the dearest victories which Cæsar ever purchased. Nevertheless, after this signal defeat, the whole Belgic nation was compelled to submit to the Roman yoke.

Relative to the first migration of the Belgæ into Britain, there does not appear to be any record; but some of the latest colonies are supposed to have been established but a short time prior to the Roman invasion. At that time their main body seems to have inhabited that part of the country now occupied by Hampshire, Wiltshire, and Somersetshire. Those on the south coast, Cæsar says, (Com. l. v. c. 10.) had passed over from different parts, and still retained the names of the states from which they descended. The last of these colonies was ennobled to this country by Divitiacus, the King of the Suessiones, one of the most powerful Belgic nations of Gaul; and having obtained a firm settlement on the British coast, he continued to exercise his royal authority on both sides of the channel. Here, as well as on the continent, the Romans found in these tribes the most powerful opponents to their arms. Such, indeed, was the opposition they presented, that the honour of their subjugation was reserved for Vespasian, who landed an army in Britain, A. D. 43, and fought thirty-two battles, and took more than twenty towns, before he could regard their conquest as accomplished. After this had been effected, the Romans greatly improved the country of the Belgæ by the construction of military ways, and the erection or re-building of towns; among the most celebrated of which were *Fente Belgarum*, the present Winchester, so much famed for the imperial manufacture of cloth which was established there; and the *Aqua Solis*, the modern Bath, renowned even at that time for its warm and salutary waters.

BELGIUM, a name given by the French, subsequently to the Revolution, to that tract of country which was previously called the Austrian Netherlands. The term is derived from its being the country anciently inhabited by the Belgæ, described in the preceding article. It now constitutes the southern portion of the kingdom of this name, and comprises the following provinces: viz.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
North Brabant	Buis-le-Duc.
Limburg	Maastricht.
Antwerp	Antwerp.
East Flanders	Ghent.
West Flanders	Bruges.
Hainault	Mons.
South Brabant	Brussels.
Liege	Liege.
Namur	Namur.
Luxemburg	Luxemburg.

These were united to the French empire in 1795, and divided into nine departments: viz.

Departments.	Chief Towns.
Forêts	Luxemburg.
Sambre and Meuse ..	Namur.
Gemape	Mons.
Lys	Bruges.
Escaut	Ghent.
Two Nethe.	Antwerp.
Dyle	Brussels.
Lower Meuse	Maastricht
Ourthe	Liege.

For a further account of this fertile and populous region, see **NETHERLANDS**, and each of the above provinces.

BELGIOJOSO, an ancient town of Italy, in the duchy of Milan, about six miles east of Pavia. It stands in a beautiful and fertile district, on the north bank of the Po, and in the great road to Cremona. Galeazzo II. made many improvements in Belgiojoso, where he built a magnificent aqueduct. Its ancient fortress has been converted into a splendid mansion by the grandees of Spain, by whom the town has long been possessed. Here also is the palace in which Francis I. of France passed the night after the battle of Pavia, in 1525.

BELGRADE, a celebrated town in European Turkey, in Servia, near the junction of the Save and the Danube. This was the ancient *Alba Græcorum*; which was formerly a very strong place, and considered as the barrier and key of Hungary, to which it was first annexed by the Emperor Sigismund. As Belgrade stands on an eminence, it has a commanding aspect. The highest part is occupied by the fortress, which is defended by walls and towers, and encompassed with a ditch. Within this is also the principal mosque, and the residence of the Pacha, or governor, of Servia. Between these walls and the other portions of the town, there is a space of about 400 paces. The best part of the town lies on the north side of the fortress, and near the conflux of the two rivers. Here is a large market-place and several good buildings. As Belgrade has always been an important bulwark on the north-west side of Turkey, a strong garrison is maintained in it, and most of the inhabitants consist of the families of the Janissaries who are quartered there. The whole population is supposed to be twenty or twenty-five thousand; and when the town was taken by the Austrians, in 1799, about 7000 of them were soldiers. The mosques are the most conspicuous of the public buildings, and of these there are fourteen or fifteen. The situation of Belgrade is advantageous for trade; which is therefore carried on to a greater extent than in many other of the Turkish towns, and is principally

BELGIUM
—
BELGRADE

BEL-GRADE. managed by Armenians and Jews; the former of whom have a church, and the latter a synagogue. Belgrade has repeatedly witnessed conflicts between the Austrians and Turks. It was unsuccessfully attacked by Amurat II. in the fifteenth century, but was taken by Suleyman the Ottoman Emperor in 1521. It was retaken by the Imperial army, under the Elector of Bavaria, in 1688, but reverted to the Turks two years afterwards, with whom it remained till August 1717, when it surrendered to Prince Eugene, and was secured to the Emperor by the peace of Passarowitz. This town has also been rendered famous in military history by the battle fought in its vicinity which led to this peace, and which was the last grand victory obtained under the auspices of Prince Eugene. It then remained in possession of the Austrians for about twenty-two years, during which period they were engaged in repairing and strengthening the defensive works of the fortress. In 1739, however, it was given up to the Turks, on condition that all these should be demolished; but so important did the possession of this post always appear to the Austrians, that they again invested it in 1789, under the command of field-marshal Laudohn, who, in his approaches, availed himself of the old lines of circumvallation constructed by Prince Eugene, which the Turks had foolishly neglected to fill up. The suburbs were all carried sword in hand, and the garrison surrendered upon honourable terms. About 300 pieces of artillery, and vast military stores, were found in the fortress on this capture. It was again restored to the Turks by the peace of Sistova, concluded in 1791, and has since remained under their authority. Latitude 44° 43' N. longitude 20° 10' E.

BELIAL, a rebel, a worthless, disobedient person. In Scripture the sons of the high priest Eli are called sons of Belial, from their idolatrous and criminal behaviour. It is sometimes used to designate Satan, as in 2 Corinthians, vi. 15. "what concord hath Christ with Belial?" whence we may conclude, that in St. Paul's time the Jews, under the name of Belial, commonly understood the Devil to be meant in those places where the term occurs in the Old Testament. Aquila expands the word to mean an apostate; and in Chaldee it signifies malignant.

BELIDES, in Mythology, the granddaughters of Belus and daughters of Danaus; from which last they bear the name of DANAIDES. Danaus having migrated from Egypt, sent himself on the throne of Sthenelus, whom he had driven from Argos. Here fifty daughters were born to him from several wives, as Hyginus, (Fab. clxviii.) Apollodorus, (li.) and the Scholiast on Homer, (Il. A. 42.) agree; or from a single wife, by name Eurypus, the daughter of Nilus, as Phlegon Trallianus asserts, (Mith. 31.) By a singular coincidence Ægyptus, the brother of Danaus, had fifty sons; and, under a pretext of reconciling some feud which had occasioned the migration of Danaus, an intermarriage was proposed between these cousins. Danaus consented to the alliance, but maddened with the desire of revenge for his former wrongs, distrusting his brother's good faith, or warned by an oracle that his own death was fated by the hands of one of his nephews, (for each of these reasons has been assigned) he commissioned his daughters to poison their bridegrooms on the nuptial night. Since Horace

has determined that one only of these damsels was worthy of the bridal torch, we scarcely think it worth while to record all their names. If the reader feels any curiosity to inspect this barren catalogue, he may find it given in the second book of the *Bibliotheca* of Apollodorus, in the sixteenth book of Hyginus, or in Natalis Comes, ix. 17. The order of espousal is said by Pindar (*Pyth. ix.*) to have been determined among the suitors by a race in the circus; and if the brides were, according to the supposition of Trallianus, born from one mother, it is very probable that the eldest were the prizes of the distanced racers. The commands of the ruthless father were obeyed by all his daughters, excepting Hypermetra, who spared her husband Lyceus. She assisted his escape to the neighbouring town of Lyceus, while she herself soon afterwards avoided the vengeance of her father by concealment at Larisa. The lovers had concerted signals by means of torches, which were to be assurances of their mutual safety; and in commemoration of this event the Argives long afterwards celebrated an annual festival by torch-light.

It is just to the memory of one other of these wretched brides to add, on the authority of Eustathius, that Beryce also is said to have spared her mate. Unfortunately her name does not occur in the catalogue of Hyginus; but we may allow her the benefit of an alias. The murderesses were purified by Mercury and Minerva; and after their father's death obtained Argive husbands. Nevertheless retribution awaited them in the Shades, and they were there condemned to the hopeless labour of filling colanders with water.

Herodotus (ii. 171.) says that the daughters of Danaus introduced the Theophrastian, or mysteries of Isis, from Egypt into Greece; and he also assigns to them the building of a temple of Minerva, which was standing in his own time, in Lindus, a city of Rhodes, (ii. 182.)

Many allegorical explanations have been attempted of this legend. They are for the most part too frigid to need citation here. We will not however deny ourselves the pleasure of transcribing a passage from Lucretius, in which he has finely adapted the tale to his Philosophy.

Deinde animi ingratus natum pascere semper,
Atque explorare bonis rebus, satiarque nunquam,
Quod faciunt nobis amorum tempora, circum
Cum redeunt: festoque ferunt, varisque hypotes,
Nec tamen explorare vitali fructibus unquam
Huc, ut opinor, id est, ævo florente PELLAGAS
Quod memorant, latere pertemus conserpere in vas
Quod tamen expleri nulla ratione potestur.

iii. 1016.

BELIE, be and lie. A. S. *beagan, belegen*; Ger. *liegen, bellegen*; Dutch, *liegen, belieghen*; Swe. *lynga*. To lie or lye.

To give the lie to; to contradict; to calumniate; to represent falsely.

In which (whosoever readeth it) shall easily perceive, not the contrary only and that they *lie*: but also the very cause of such blasphemy, and what strength the so foolishly to rage and to *believe* the truth?

Tyndale's Works, fol. 105.

And if he had dyed therein, had he not died for the truth? For knowing it himself that all they *belied* him, he was not bound to *believe* himself with them, and *confess* against himself an untruth: but had been in great sin, if he so should have done.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 213.

BELIE
—
BELIEVE

And when thy glass shall int'rest
Without those smiles which once were there,
Showing, like some stale monument,
A sculp departed from its base;
At thyself frighted, wilt thou start, and swear
That I seduc'd thee when I call'd the fair?

A painted face, befit with vermeyl shorn
Which light Esculap every day did trim,
That in one hand a gilded anchor wore,
Not fixed on the rock, but on the brim
Of the wide air, she let it loosely swim.
G. Fletcher. Christ's Triumph on Earth.

In's body too no critique eye could find
The smallest blemish to *sober* his mind;
He was all pureness, and his outward part
But represents the picture of his heart.

Cowley. Elegy on John Littleton, Esq.

Th' increased powers beheld with scorn from high,
And heaven so far distant from the sky,
Which burst, with horses' hoofs that beat the ground,
And martial brass, *bo*dy the thunder's sound.
Dryden. Astruc Reduc.

While the fond soul,
Wrapt in gay visions of unreal bliss,
Still paints th' illusive form; the kindling grace;
Th' enticing smile; the modest-seeming eye,
Beneath whose benignant beams, *deceiving* heaven,
Lark searchless cunning, cruelly, and death.

I have little to recommend my opinions but long observation and much impartiality. They come from one who has been no tool of power, no flatterer of greatness; and who in his last acts does not wish to *betray* the tenor of his life.

Burke, *Reflections on the Revolution in France*.

BELIEVE, v. Skinner says A. S. *ge-leafan*,
 BELIEVE, n. from *ge*, and A. S. *lyfan*, *concede*,
 BELIEF, and Junius, the Gothic, *gotanþjan*,
 BELIEFUL, from *lyfan*, *concede*, *permittere*.
 BELIEFULNESS, The A. S. *lyfan*, *belufan*, is the
 BELIEVER, English to *live*, to *believe*. In R. of
 BELIEVING, Gloucester, *be-lire*, or *be-leue* is con-

stantly used to be *live*, to continue to *live*. In the example quoted below, "right by-*lew* him *tygte*," is, "taught him to *live* rightly; taught him a rule by which to *live*, to *belyve*;" and for that purpose, *gel* him Cristen-don, i.e. Christianity; made known to him the example of the life of Christ; how he *lived* or *belyved*; and taught him the gospels of Christ. R. of Gloucester also uses to *leue*, simply, without the prefix *be*, as we now use *believe*; when the story of the birth of Merlin is told to the king, the king is struck with wonder; and "he *ashed* at it is clerkes, weyt to *leue* were": i.e. whether it were to be *believed*. In Piers Plouman, to bring forth your *belyve*, is, to bring forth that by which you may *live*. In Piers Plouman also we find *leue*, as *believe*. In Ger. *lawen*, *credere*, *Leben*, *vivere*. In Dutch, *gelooven*, *credere*. *Leven*, *vivere*, *Geloof*, *victus*. *livid*.

Y zeue here þe to þi wiȝf, & geſ þou wilt by leue here,
þe þridde del of my kyndom y zeue þe to be my ſere.
R. Gloucester, p. 12

His 44-leude without the town, & in wel gret fere.

And bi leuede al þe wynter to godere in þis lond.

þo pope here of wæs glad, & twel holy men hym sende,
Fagon and Dimian, þys soule for to anende
þat ryȝt bi ðes hym tagie, and geif hym Cristendom.

Oure hi leue (quæ) jis oher) in þe hyc Goden sy y do,
 Saturnus and Jupiter, and si þe oher al so.
 Scilicet am (quæ) Vortiere) þo be herde þes.
 For goure hi leue, þat ge segget, for no diuise yt mys.
 R. Gloucetter, p. 112 & 113.

Custance answer'd; Sir, it is Crister night,
That helpeth folk out of the fendes snare:
And so forth she gan our lay declare,
That she the constable, or that it were we,
Converted, and on Crisat made him believe.

Chorus. *The Man of Lawes Tale.* v. 4920

Werfore he let þe clemens, to helpe þow alle tȳmes
And bryng forth þoure aȳlyve, boȳ þynnen and wollen.
Piers Plowman, Vision, p. 14

And gut were best to bee aboute, and hrynge hit to kere
That all londes *sgreuden*, as in on lawe *sglysted*.
Id. Id. p. 175.

All þat loven & blyven, up þykning of mede
 Leveþ hit heuðly, þys worth here luste mede
 That folwen falsnesse, &c. *Id.* B. s. 28

For it behooveth that a man comynge to God *desire* that he is,
and that he is rewardere to men that seeku hym.

Wiedt, *Chronik*, c. xi.

For he that commeth to God must believe that God is, and that he is a rewarder of them that seek him. *Heb. 11:6.*

And thoug that I, onworthy sone of Eve
Be sinful, yet accepteth my beleeve.
Chaucer. The Second Nunnes Tale. c. 203

And this *believe* is an certayne,
So full of grace and of vertue.

That what is an clepeth to *Jews*,
In cleane life, forth with good dede,
He maie not faulen of heuen mede,
So that it stont upon *beleur*,
That every man maie well arbeye,
Whiche taken hath the right feith.

It is for thee sufficient, to shewe a mynde *bellicfull* and ready to obeye. All the residue shall be accomplishe and bryng to effecte, who is of power to do whatsoeuer his will is.

L'adell. Luke, con.

They disdaine to have the godly *bridefulness* of the heathen to be praised, and yet do they not all the while emende their owne wicked rebellion.

Let no man despise thy youth, but be thou an example of the
deceivers in word, in conversation, in charity, in spirit, in faith,
in purity. *1 Tim. vi. 11.*

For if they do not believe these things, where is their faith? If they do believe them and sin on, and do as if there were no such thing to come to pass, where is their prudence, and what is their hope, and where their charity? *Taylor. Sermon 1.*

The first great instrument of changing our whole nature into the state of grace, flesh into the spirit, is a firm belief, and a perfect assent to, and hearty entertainment of the promises of the gospel. *Id.* Sermon xi.

Then shall they seek to avail themselves of names,
Places and titles, and with these to joys
Secular power, though feigning still to act
By spiritual, to themselves appropriating
The Spirit of God, promise'd alike and giv'n
To all believers. Milton, *Paradise Lost*, book vi

For the scripture-faith, is not a mere *believing* of historical things, and upon heartificial arguments, or testimonies only; but a certain higher and diviner power in the soul, that peculiarly correspondeth with the Deity.

Culworth, *Intellectual Systems*, 1990

If others in the same glass better see,
'Tis for themselves they look, but not for me :
For my salvation must its doom receive
Not from what others, but what I believe.

Dresden. Religio Latet.

BELIEVE

BELIEVE. But is there no way then whereby it is possible to perceive him? Yes surely; we may and ought to perceive him by that spiritual sense as I may call it, which he hath implanted in us, suitable to his own nature, even by a firm and steadfast belief in him, whereby we are so fully persuaded that he is, as that we are; and that he is wheresoever we are, as that we ourselves are there.

BELIVE.

Beauregard. Sermon cv.
By tales like these is the envy raised by superior abilities every day gratified: when they are attacked, every one hopes to see them humbled; what is hoped is readily believed, and what is believed is confidently told.

Johnson. Life of Prior.
That there is satisfactory evidence that many professing to be original witnesses of the Christian miracles, passed their lives in labours, dangers, and sufferings; voluntarily undergone in attestation of the accounts which they delivered; and solely in consequence of their belief of those accounts; and that they also submitted, from the same motives, to new trials of conduct.

Fallop. Evidences, p. 1.
The true believer, on the contrary, has the most perfect conviction that he is constantly under the protection of an almighty and merciful God, in whom he lives, and moves, and has his being.

BELIKE. } Be and like. Like, Dr. Thomas Hickes *BELIKELY.* } derives from the A. S. *lic, lice. Corpus*, q. d. *corporis similitudo*. In confirmation of this it may be observed, that the Gothic *leiks*, A. S. *lic*, Ger. *leich*, Dutch, *lick*, Swe. *lik*, are used both for *corpus* and *similis*. *Belike* in our older writers, and in vulgar speech at the present day, is used for

It is likely, it is probable; it may be; probably, perhaps.

In this season, the Bohemians (whence *belike* had espied the varied authority of the bishop of Rome) began to rebel against the laws, which were false into certain sects of heretics.

Hall. Henry II. fol. 110.
Moreover he received fourscore milch kine to the pail, and northlands to keep them, having need of cover milk kine, to heal a disease that fell upon him. *North. Flutarch, fol. 252.*

I have spoken before, and declared why I do use it rather than any other; I have laboured it, noted it, I am acquainted with it, and belike, I red it, before you knew whether there was any such book or no. *Whitgift. Defence, fol. 508.*

Ye complain openly that the imperial maiestic had not continued still at Constantinople. *Belike*, to the intent the Turke might more haue had it, who is known to suffer in his dominions all faiths, and religions: for whiche cause it maie seeme, ye sweer him. *M. Harbage in Jewel, fol. 673.*

That good carl (part of Hentington) was well esteemed my father's service, having belike heard some better words of me than I could deserve, made earnest offer after me, what were my courses, what his hopes. *Hall. Account of himself.*

Be that as it may, we find him, upon his return into England, employed in an expedition or two, by authority *belike* from the court; they being upon occasions of state.

Old's Life of Raleigh, fol. 19.
Being very poor, and belike wanting to buy fairer colours, [J. Boman] desired therefore for the most part in white and black. *Walpole. Anecdote of Painting, v. l. p. 203.*

BELIVE. } Be-lice or be-life. The imperative **BLIVE.** } be and the noun life. Be there life, or freeliness: with life or freeliness: with activity, with spirit, quickly, instantly.

Ye robbe ert with ye Britones ægyen ys fow wente blive, And fast, and slow faste. *R. Gloucester, 162.*

And to and fro eke ride and gone as blive, All day as thick as been fien from an blive, And every night leave liberty to blive. Where his kin lat, the bet withouten leue. *Chaucer. Troilus and Criseide book iv. fol. 183.*

They were ful glad to excusen hem ful blive Of thing, the which they never agilt hir live. *Id. The Wif of Bath, Prologue, v. 501.*

Now let us ride blive, Fer I wold holden compaigne with thee. *Chaucer. The Reece Tale, v. 7013.*

Hoe. God shield him, be should no ill have thrive, All for he did his devoute blive. *Spenser. Shepherd's Calendar, 46.*

Ferdy, air knight, saide then th' aneounter blive, That shall I shortly purchase to your bond; For now the best and noblest knight alive Prince Arthur is, that comes in tærie lond. *Id. Furie Quene, book ii. c. 31.*

My loede, when I came fyrst into this lande To be your wedded wyfe, The fyrst boone that I wold aske, Ye would graunt it me befyte. *Adam Bell in Percy, v. l.*

BELL, v. } A. S. *bellan*, to hellow; Ger. and **BELL, n.** } Dutch, *bellen*, to bellow, and to sound a bell. *Spelman* says, *pelvis*, unde *nostrum* *terraculacum* *bel*. **BELROPE,** } To bell, is also used in husbandry; **BEL-RINGER.** } to form the shape of a bell.

This Eclos anon ye stert, And with his blacke clarion He had to blasen out a noone As head as bellicke wind in bell. *Chaucer. The House of Fame, p. 281.*

Thise riotours three, of which I tell, Long erst or prime roog of any bell, Were set hem in a tavern for to drinke: And as they sat, they herd a belle clinke Before a corpe, was caried to his grave. *Id. The Pardoner's Tale, v. 12395.*

A belle to byggen of bray. ojer of byrt solver And kytte it on a coler, for our consume profit And hooge aboute be cattys kalue. *Piers Plouman. Vision, p. 9.*

There maie nothinge his toung daunt, That he ne clappeth as a belle, Whereof if thou wolt that I telle It is beloucy for to here. *Gower. Conf. Am. book i. fol. 21.*

Only said I than, with dust forbode and vane, With rude iagere, and barane cupple brate, With had harsh speech, and lewli barane troug, Presume to write quhen thy swit bell is roring? *Dungles. Preface to Eucandos, book 1.*

He [B. Johnson] was buried three days after in St. Peter's church within the city of Westminster, commonly called the Abbey church, not among the poets, but at the west end near to the *belly*, under the crucifixion of *Reck. de Ros. Wood. Athens Oxen. i. 609.*

But M. Harbage for vane and expedition, hath devised a shorter way, to teach the people by a *belope*. He tenneth his booke unto his brethren, and speaketh but two wordes alowde *Pater noster*: and causeth the sannes *bet* to play the parte of a deacon, to put the people in remembrance, that our they must pray. *Jewel. Reply to M. Harbage, fol. 178.*

For my own part, when I am in town, for want of these opportunities, I exercise myself an hour every morning upon a dumb-bell that is placed in the corner of my room, and plumes me the more because it does every thing I require of it in the most profound silence. *Spectator, No. 115.*

Lo! as the surple'd train draw near To this last insuasion of mankind, The slow and bell, the subtle bier, In holy missings wrap the mind! *Mallet. A Funeral Hymn.*

With pride of heart the churchwarden surveys High o'er the *belly*, girt with birds and flow'rs, His story wrote in capitals: "Twas I That bought the fount; and I received the priests." *Smart. The Hop Garden, book ii.*

The principal facts relative to the origin and usage of **BELLS**, have been collected by Hieronymus Magius

BELIVE.
BELL.

BELL.

or Maggi, an ingenious and unfortunate scholar and soldier, of the sixteenth century. Maggi was a native of Anghiari in Tuscany, and having been educated in the Italian Universities, he brought with him to active life all the learning of his time. Employed by the Venetians, as their Judge martial in the island of Cyprus, he distinguished himself during the siege of Famagusta by his extraordinary skill as an engineer. When the city, after a long and gallant defence, fell into the hands of the Turks in 1571, Maggi was among the prisoners, and his well known services exposed him to the bitterest persecution from the conquerors. The short remainder of his days was passed in slavery, the horrors of which he in some degree mitigated by drawing copiously upon the stores of learning, which the retentiveness of his memory furnished at command. The cruel tortures which he frequently was compelled to witness, and perhaps, himself, to undergo, led him to write a tract in Latin on the *Equuleus*, or wooden horse of the ancients; and his observation of the want of Bells among the Turks, produced another, *de Tintinnabulis*. Both of these treatises, though abounding in references to the works of others, and though comprising subjects of minute research, were composed in the short intervals of repose from servile labour which night allowed him, and wholly without access to books. If they assuaged for a time the misery of his captivity, they, unhappily, also contributed to accelerate his death. The first was dedicated to the French, the second to the Imperial ambassador at Constantinople, and the indiscriminate exertions of these envoys to secure his liberty, terminated in his destruction. The Turks had not generosity enough to forgive an enemy from whom they had suffered injury; and fearing that they might not be able to resist the joint solicitations of two powerful courts in his behalf, on a pretext that he had clandestinely visited the Imperial ambassador's palace, they strangled Maggi in prison. From his pages we shall deduce many of our following remarks.

The robe of the High Priest of the Jews was ordained by Moses (*Exod. xxviii. 33.*) to be hemmed beneath, with a border of pomegranates, of blue, purple, and scarlet, and Bells of gold between them round about; "a golden Bell and a pomegranate, a golden Bell and a pomegranate upon the hem of the robe round about." The lawgiver of the Jews in the same place assigns his reason for this command. "It shall be upon Aaron to minister, and his sound shall be heard when he goeth in unto the holy place before the Lord, and when he cometh out, that he die not." The sound of the numerous Bells gave notice to the assembled people that the most awful ceremony of their religion had commenced. It was a signal that they should prostrate themselves at the moment in which the High Priest entered the Sanctuary with a vessel of incense, in order that their prayers might ascend with the column of fragrant offering before the throne of heaven. Calmet, in his observation on this passage, remarks that the Bell was a sacred utensil of very ancient use in Asia; and that the Kings of Persia, who united in their own persons both the regal and the sacerdotal office, were accustomed to adorn the fringes of their robes with pomegranates and golden Bells.

The oracular responses of the Dodonæan forest were doubtless in part conveyed by Bells. The description which Strabo has left in his fifth book, admits no other interpretation; and the *lebetes* of Virgil, the *peltes* of

Juvenal, and the *tinia* of *Æneid* of Ansonius are all to the same purpose. Copper vessels, we are told, were suspended round the temple, so disposed that if one only was struck, all were successively put in motion. The priestess listened to the sound, and according to its several modifications as it died away, framed her revelations of futurity. In the account of Philostratus, (*Icones*, ii. 34.) we are forcibly reminded of our own Giants at St. Dunstan's in the west. Near the temple of Dodona were placed two columns. On one stood a huge brazen vessel, on the other the image of a child holding a whip with three flexible brazen thongs, each terminated by a knob of brass. The slightest breath of wind (and Dodona was as well entitled as Troy itself to the epithet *ἑρπυλον*.) drove these thongs against the vessel, and the calculation of the priestess depended upon the intensity and the duration of the sound thus produced. We must not omit the amusing etymology proposed by Palmerius (*Græciæ descriptio*, 327.) as resulting from this mode of divination. The moderns, says the learned writer, imitate the sound of a Bell by redoubling the monosyllable *dong*; as *dong-dong*. Why might not the ancients in like manner repeat the imitative monosyllable *do*? we then readily obtain the source of the oracular *Do-do-na*.

Bells, it has been thought, were used in the worship of the Syrian goddess, and the opinion has been founded on a passage in the tract of Lucian concerning her (*xxix.*) It is however more probable that the expression there used, as well as the *χολαίσι* in the second *Idyl* of Theocritus, should be understood rather of the cymbal than of the Bell; thus answering to the *matrix cymbala* of Virgil (*Georg. iv. 64.*) The *sistrum* doubtless produced a sound resembling that of the hand Bell, so frequently used in the performance of the Romish mass; and an instrument has been remarked by a recent traveller, (who has investigated with much keenness and sagacity of research, the connection between ancient and modern customs,) among some very early Christian relics deposited in the library of the Vatican, which may be considered as the intermediate link between the two. A piece of metal, forming a handle, is bent out at the extremities into broad laminae, and to each of these laminae are attached four small bells; a slight turn of the wrist puts them all in motion. (Hunt. *Fruges of Ancient Manners and Customs discoverable in Modern Italy*, 116.) The Hierophant of Proserpine is described by Apollodorus as ringing a Bell during the Athenian Mysteries. The patroles in the Grecian garrisons, are said by Suidas (*ad verb. αἰχμή*) to have carried Bells which were answered by the sentinels; and this usage is illustrated, among other places, in the mention of the unsuccessful attempt made by Brasidas on Potidea, in the ninth year of the Peloponnesian war. The storming party approached at first undiscovered, *τὴν γὰρ αἰχμὴν παρεχόμενος, ἔκταν ἐκ τῆς δόρυ, πρὶν εἰσέλθειν τὴν τοιαύτην ἑστῆν, ἢ πρὸς τοὺς ἐγγύς.* "He took the time to apply his ladders when the Bell passed by, and before he that carried it to the next returned." (Hobbes's *Thuc.* iv. 125.) That a Bell was used therefore is clear, and that it was transferred from hand to hand, like the Roman *tenere*, may also be believed; but the purpose for which so noisy an instrument was preferred to one more quiet, is not so evident.

The Bell in the Grecian fish-market is noted by Plutarch (*Symp. xiv.*) and a pleasant story connected

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BELL with it is recorded by Strabo (xiv.) It was in the town of Jassus, on the coast of Cnina, that a musician was deserted by his auditory at the sound of the fish Bell. One person alone remained, as if entranced by his melody. The grateful harper approached, thanked his bearer for the honour which he paid to the art, and congratulated him on the superior purity of taste which prevented him from accompanying the rabble, which had vanished at the first stroke of the bell. "Has the Bell rung?" answered the other, "alas! I am deaf; good morning to you!"

The Romans gave various names to Bells. Some were plainly borrowed from the Greek. *Pellus* (*πελλος*), *Codo* (*καὶ τὸ ἐν τῷ κωδὶ ἀκούει*), *Tintinnabulum*, which probably was only an imitative word. Pliny (vii. 43, xxxvi. 13.) has described the monument of Porcena as decorated with pinnacles, each of which was surmounted by Bells after the manner of a Chinese pagoda. The dream of Augustus, which transferred a similar ornament from the portals to the roof of the Capitoline Jove, has been preserved by Suetonius (Oct. 91.) and from Martial we learn, that the stated hours at which the *tepiderium* received its luxurious votaries, was announced by the sound of a Bell. The curse of cold water is denounced against such as were too much attached to the sports of the *gymnasium*, to relinquish the racket at this summons.

Redde pilam: sonat ut thermarum; Indere pergis?
Virgine viri tolli hinc alere domum?

Hark the loud Bell the bathing hour! tell!
Forbear your pastime ere the wave be cold.

Two passages are to be found in Plautus, (one in the *Truculentus*, the other in the *Pseudolus*), which support a belief that Bells were among the ensigns of an executioner; and Maggi has given a fearful print of a condemned wretch whose neck is weighed down by an enormous Bell, while his back is exposed to the lash of the hangman. Zonaras (*Annal. ii.*) places the Bell and the whip among the emblems which adorned a triumphal car, in order to admonish the conqueror, that even at the moment in which he attained the summit of human glory, the laws were his sovereigns; and it is plain from several authors, that the Romans fastened Bells to many animals, either as distinctive marks of property, or that they might trace them if they strayed from their pastures.

In the middle ages, Bells were used for military signals: a huge four-wheeled frame, from the centre of which was suspended a Bell, accompanied the march of an army, and the name, *Carrocinum*, (which afterwards came to signify a standard, from the car being surmounted with a flag,) was given indiscriminately to the Bell or its support. *Squilla* is a name introduced by Petrarch. *Nola* and *Compans* are derived from the city and the country of one of the supposed inventors, or adopters of the Bell to the religious solemnities of Christianity; an honour which has been claimed by some for Paulinus, a Bishop of Nola, about the year 409, by others for Sabinianus, who did not succeed to the Papacy till nearly two centuries afterwards. It is also said, that these terms are derived from the method of hanging Bells as on a balance; *compensare* being used for *ponderare*, and *compans statera* for a steelyard. Bingham (*Orig. Eccl. viii. 7.*) gives sufficient reasons for supposing, that Bells were of late introduction as invitatory to Christian worship; inas-

much as, during the times of persecution, any public signal would have betrayed the place and hour of religious meeting. The Egyptian church appears to have used the Jewish summons by the trumpet; for in the role of Pachomius, every monk is enjoined to leave his cell, *cum audierit vocem Tabæ ad collectam vocantem* (Bib. Pat. xv. 629.) and the same custom is mentioned by Chimasus, Abbot of Mount Sinai, in the sixth century. (*Id. v. 244.*) In other monasteries, the call was given by a wooden mallet, which each recluse in turn struck on the cell of his brethren. Palladius, by whom the custom is recorded, (*Hist. Luna, 104.*) calls this instrument of torment *εὐνοειστικὸν σφύριον*; and Mr. Brand, in his edition of the *Antiquitates Vulgares*, remarks, that "a vestige of the custom still remains in some of our colleges, in which the Bible clerk knocks at every student's door with a key, before he rings the chapel Bell." The summons in the monastery at Jerusalem founded by the Roman Lady Paula, was given by one chanting Hallelujah (Hieron. Ep. 37.) In the Greek church, an instrument of wood or iron, *σφύριον* and *εὐνοειστικόν*, was used for this purpose; and it was pretended, that Noah by the first called all living creatures to the ark. The custom is still retained by the Greeks; for although Bells were given as early as the year 863 by Ursus Patricianus, Duke of Venice, to Michael the Emperor, who built a tower for their reception in Santa Sophia, (*Baronius, x. 319.*) their usage has never prevailed in the east.

Bells were probably introduced into England very soon after their invention. They are first mentioned by Bede about the close of the seventh century. Ingulfus (*Hist. fol. 889.*) records that Turketulus, Abbot of Croylund, who died about 870, gave a great Bell to that Abbey, which he named Guthlax, and afterwards six others, viz. Bartholomew and Bettekin, Turketul and Tatwin, Pega and Bogo, so that *non erat tunc tanta consonantia campanarum in tota Anglia*. This statement disproves an assertion of Mr. Brand, that John XIII. a. d. 968, was the first who baptized Bells. The ritual for the ceremony may be found in the Roman Pontifical; and it is derived from a statute of the council of Cologne, in which Bells are termed *Tuba Ecclesiæ militantis*. Subsequently all Bells on their first suspension, were exorcised and blessed; receiving, as was imagined, power to chase away devils, to calm tempests, and to extinguish fires. Each for the most part had its baptismal name engraven round its verge, and from the many inscriptions which the diligence of our antiquaries have preserved, we select the following. Those of Winton in Bedfordshire are thus given by Weever (*Fun. Mon. 122.*)

- Nomen Campanæ hanc indicat sunt epoque nostræ.*
1. Hoc signum Petri pulsatæ nomen Christi.
2. Nomen Magdalene Campana sonat melode.
3. Sit nomen Domini benedictum semper in cruce.
4. Nomen Raphaelis sonat attribus Immanuelis.
5. San Rose pulsatæ muniti que Maria vacata.

At Little Dunmow in Essex, the Bells were recast and rebaptized, a. d. 1501. The first was named in honour of St. Michael the Archangel, the second of St. John the Evangelist, the third of St. John the Baptist, the fourth of the Assumption of the blessed Virgin, the fifth of the Holy Trinity and All Saints. (*Id. 633.*)

The two following mottoes are as frequently met with in Belfries, as the "Affliction sore" on tombstones.

BELL

BELL.

Fuere plango. Falsura frango. Scilicet pango.
Exalto lentos. Dualgo ventos. Poco crescentos.
Lauda Deum verum. Placem vobis. Congregio clerum.
Defunctos ploro. Postea fago. Festa dormo.

The conceit in the two next, be it what it may, for we do not pretend to unravel it, is to the same purpose in each. The first is on a Bell in the cathedral at Rouen.

Je suis nommé George d'Amboise,
qui plus que trent six mil pous;
Et si qui bien me poyera,
Quarante mil y trouvera.

The George, after whom this Bell was named, held this episcopal see in the year 1501. During one Lent season, a great dearth of oil occurred in his diocese, and the Bishop for a small payment, sold licences permitting his flock to eat butter. The money thus raised was dedicated to the erection of a belfry, which, in memory of the cause of its foundation, still retains the name of *La Tour de Beurre*.

The second is an English inscription, and is thus noticed by Weever (*Funeral Monuments*, 492.) "In the little Sanctuary at Westminster, King Edward III. erected a clocher, and placed therein three Bells for the use of St. Stephen's chapel. About the biggest of them were cast in the metal these words:

¹ King Edward made mee thirte thousand weight and three,
Take mee down and wey mee, and more ye shall fynd mee."

But these Bells being to be taken down in the reign of King Henry VIII. one writes underneath with a coale:

² But Henry the eight
Will bait me of my weight.

The enigmas of Joannes Lauterbachius, one of the innumerable *Poete nobiles et Lauro coronati*, who wrote Latin verse in the seventeenth century, although too long to be written round the margin of a Bell, perhaps deserves a place here, as a specimen of many similar frigid witlissims.

Est intra celos est intra manio terras,
Non celum tango, nec quoque tango solem.
Constringo vincula, corradior robore duro,
Ut nulla mutem emulacione locum.
O mihi semper hist, preloster hic exero linguas,
Nec, nisi cum cogunt verbera multa, loquor.
Cum loquor amideis repleo clamoribus auras,
Verbera cum cessant tunc quoque cesao loqui.
Non ulli necro cluniorum, horreo iniquos
Construo quareat corde salubri her.

The ceremony of baptizing Bells had not ceased to excite great attention in the court of France, even a short time previous to the Revolution. It may have been revived since the Restoration. The following extract is taken from a London newspaper (the *St. James's Chronicle*) of the 29d Sept. 1782. "Paris, August 29. This day the lovers of ecclesiastical solemnities are running to crowds to the church of St. Solpition, to see the ceremony of christening the new Bells of that parish. The godfathers and godmothers of the first, are the King and Queen, who have sent their proxies; of the second, Monsieur and Madame in person; of the third, the Prince of Condé and Mademoiselle his daughter; of the fourth, the Duc de Penthièvre and Princess de Lamballe his daughter; of the fifth, Duc de Coise, Governor of Paris, and his Lady; of the sixth, Duc de Villequier and the Princess de Chimay. The Bells were cast by that celebrated artist M. Godiveau."

BELL.

"Our church," observes Wheatley, in his *Exposition of the Literary of the Church of England*, "to imitation of the Saints in former ages, calls on the minister and others who are at hand, to assist their brother in his last extremity. In order to this, he directs that when any one is passing out of this life a Bell should be tolled." The custom is sufficiently innocent, and may rest itself upon those "charitable inducements," which, in the eloquent language of Sir Thomas Brown, so pressingly urge us, that we "can scarce exclaim our prayers for a friend at the ringing of a Bell." The church of Rome, indeed, pushed this as it did all similar usages, within the verge of superstition; and Durand, in his *Rationale*, has given instructions and reasons for various performances on the passing Bell, all of which we do not fully understand, but at most of which we may be forgiven for smiling. For a dying woman two strokes are to be tolled, *pro eo quod ipsa invenit desperatam*. *Primo enim fecit hominem alium a Deo, quare secunda dies non habuit benedictionem*. For a man it is to be tolled thrice, because the Trinity was first revealed in him; for Adam was formed from the earth, Eve from Adam, and the future generations of mankind from both conjointly; so that herein is an emblem of the Trinity. For an Ecclesiastic it is to be tolled as many times as he has orders. In several parts of England, vestiges of this Poppish custom are said still to remain, though with different proportions to the numbers. Nine knells are tolled for a man, six for a woman, and three for a child. In other places also, especially in our Universities, a Bell is rung at six every morning, probably to call the artisans to labour, and at eight or nine in the evening. The last may be derived from the Norman curfew.

Durand has assigned the following names and places to the several Conventual Bells. The *Squilla* is properly rung in *Triclinio*, i. e. *Refectorio*; *Cymbalum*, in *Claustro*; *Nola*, in *Choro*; *Notula seu Dupla* in *Horologio*; *Campana* in *Campanili*, and *Signum* in *Turri*. The *Squilla* however, according to Matthew Paris, (in *vit. Ab. St. Albani*, in *Johan.* 23. 141.) was also called *Muta*, because it was a signal for silence. There was another Bell besides these, called the *Sance Bell* or *Campana Sancta*, rung when the priest pronounced the words *Sanctus, Sanctus*, in the *Te Deum*.

The legends concerning Bells, as might be expected, are almost endless. We hear of the Bells at Canterbury ringing of themselves on the murder of Thomas a Becket: of certain devils who carried away women till the noise of Bells compelled them to drop their prize. It is clear, however, if we trust to the following narrative, that the potency of Bells as exorcists occasionally failed. We transcribe it from *The History and Antiquities of Shrewsbury*, by Phillips, who states a MS. by Taylor (probably the Water Poet) as his authority. "This yere 1533 upon twelfe daye in Shrewsbury, the Dyrill appeared in Saint Alkmunds churche there when the priest was at high masse, with great tempeste and darkness, so that as he passed through the churche, he mounted on the steeple in the sayde churche, tying the wyers of the said clynke, and put the print of his clawes uppon the 4th Bell, and tooke one of the pyrochales away with hym, and for the tyme stayed all the Bells in the charches within the said towne, that they could neyther toll nor ringe." This reference of a thunder storm to diabolical agency, might furnish an appendix to Mr. D'Israeli's entertaining paper on the

BELL.

"*Dreams at the dawn of Philosophy.*" We are told also of the Bell of St. David, which cured the King of Dublin of a mortal disease by applying it to his cheek. This Bell was preserved in the church of Glasnevin in Radnorshire. It was portable, and was endowed with great virtue. Giraldus Cambrensis informs us, that "a certain woman secretly conveyed this Bell to her husband, who was confined in the castle of Raidergwy near Warthemia, which Rhys, son of Gruffydd, had lately built, for the purpose of his deliverance. The keeper of the castle not only refused to liberate him for this consideration, but seized and detained the Bell; and in the same night, by Divine vengeance, the whole town, except the wall on which the Bell hung, was consumed by fire." A similar Bell, called *Banga*, was kept in all Welsh churches during Popish times. On the day of a funeral, the sexton took it to the house of the deceased. When the procession began, a Psalm was sung, and the bellman sounded the *Banga* in a solemn manner, till the corpse arrived at the church. Within the memory of living persons this ancient custom is said to have prevailed in many parts of Wales. The author to whom we are indebted for the last story, informs us of one still more marvellous; it is of a Bell in Ireland, which, unless it were tied fast every night, used to wander far from home into another church. We read also of a comet, which, in the time of Pope Callistus III. cast upon the Turks all the mischief which it threatened, in consequence of the ringing of Bells, by order of the Pontiff, precisely at noon. (Plat. in vita.)

It cannot therefore be a matter of surprise that Arthur Bulkeley, Bishop of Bangor, (died 1541), who seragliously sold the five fair Bells belonging to his cathedral, was struck blind at the moment in which he went to see their embarkation. (Godwin in vita.) Nor can we wonder that Sir Miles Partridge, a courtier who staked £100, with Henry VIII. against four great Bells, called Jesus Bells, belonging to St. Paul's church; and who, having won the cast of the dice, pulled down and melted the Bells, should afterwards have been executed for high treason. Phelps the founder, who, in the last century, melted down the Bells of King's College Chapel Cambridge, may be thought to have deserved a similar fate. Tradition says they were taken from a French church by Henry V. after the Battle of Agincourt. (Stowe's Survey in *Faringdon Ward*, 357.) The populace perhaps in some degree attributed the fall of the Protector Somerset to like unholy propensities. He is described in the preface to the author last cited, as a great spoiler of churches and chapels, who attempted to pull down the Bells in all parish churches, and to leave hot one in a steeple, whereas the whole commonalty were offended and threatened to rebel. In Edward VI. reign, as in that of his father, the exportation of bell-metal was prohibited by statute and proclamation; more, however, from motives of policy than of superstition. It was feared that our enemies might cast it into great guns. (Strype, *Eccles. Mem.* ii. 45.) In the following reign, an event took place in the history of Bells which, if we may judge from a common misnomer, is but little known. At Oxford, Great Tom himself may claim no *oïse*. Dr. Fresham, a cousin of Christ Church, in his zeal for the re-establishment of popery, recast the great Bell of the College, and baptized it by the name of *Mary*; "much comforting

himself with the melodious sound thereof, when it tolled to mass." (Heylyn's *Hist. of Ref.* 194.)

One other superstitious use of Bells may be mentioned before we come to the Art of Ringing. We extract an account of it from Staveley, on *Churches*.

"We may observe that anciently, and sometimes besides the before specified offices, an extraordinary and dreadful use was also made of Bells here, and that was the cursing by *Bell, Book, and Candle*; the manner whereof, I hope, will not be altogether impertinent here to relate; and this out of an ancient Festival, and the Articles of the General great Curse, found at Canterbury, A. D. 1562, as it is set down by Thomas Becon, in the *Reliques of Runne*. This was solemnly thundered out once to every Quarter that is, as the old Book saith,"

"The Fyrst Sunday of Advent, at comyng of our Lord Jhesu Cryst : The fyrst Sunday of Lenten : The Sunday in the Feste of the Trynyte : and Sunday within the Octaves of the Blessed Virgyn our Lady St. Mary." At which Action the Prelate stands in the Pulpit in his *Aulse*, the Cross being lifted up before him, and the Candles lighted on both sides of it, and begins thus, "By Authority God, Fader, Son, and Holy-Ghost, and the glorious Moder and Mayden, our Lady St. Mary, and the Blessed Apostles Peter, and Paul, and all Apostles, Martyrs, Confessors, Virgynes, and the hallows of God; All thos hyn accorded that purchaseth Writts, or Letters of any Leud Court, or to let the Processe of the Law of Holy Chirch of Causes that longeo skillfully to Christen Court, the which should not be demed by none other Law: And all that unlicensably hereaven Holy Chirch of her right, or maken Holy Chirch lay fe, that is hallowyd and Blessed. And also all thos that for malycie or wrathe of Parnson, Vicare, or Priest, or of any other, or for wrongfull covetise of himself with-holden rightfull Tythes, and Offerings, Rents, or Mortuaries from her own Parish Church, and by wyng of covetise fals lyche taking to God the worse, and to hemself the better, or else torn him into another use, then hem oweth. For all Chrysten Man and Women been hard bound on pain of deadly Sin, not only by ordinance of Man, but both in the old Law, and also in the new Law, for to pay trulyche to God and holy Chirch the Tyth part of all manner of encrease that they winneth trulyche by the Grace of God, both with her travell, and alsoe with her craftes whatsoe they truly gotten." "And then concludes all with the Curse it self, thus, "Aod now by Authoritie aforesaid we Denounce all thos accursed that are so founden guiltye, and all thos that maintaine hem in her Sins or gyven hem hereto either helpe or counsell, soe they be departed free God, and all holi Chirch : and that they have noe part of the Passyoo of our Lord Jhesu Cryst, ne of noe Sacraments, ne no part of the Prayers among Christen Folk : But that they be accursed of God, and of the Chirch, free the sole of her Foot to the crowne of her hede, sleeping and waking, sitting and standing, and in all her Words, and in all her Werks; but if they have noe Grace of God to amend hem here in this Lyfe, for to dwell in the pain of Hell for ever withouten End : Fiat. Fiat. Doe to the Boke : Quench the Candles : Ring the Bell : Amen, Amen." "And then the Book is clapp'd together, the Candles blowen out, and the Bells rung, with a most dreadful noise made by the

BELL.

BELL. Congregation present, bawling the accursed persons concerned in that Black Doom denounced against them." 236.

Durnod has remarked, in *feitis quæ ad gratiam pertinent Campanæ tumultuosius diutius et prolisius conserpent*, (*Rationale*, &c.) and Ducange mentions the ringing of Bells on the arrival of Bishops and Abbots within their own jurisdiction, as a customary salutation. Thus the Emperor Charles IV. in his progress through France, in the year 1378, was not welcomed with a single note from a belfry, *quod sit signum domini* (Ducange *ad verb. Campanæ*.) In England the ancient peals do not appear to have exceeded five in number. Holden, in his *Treatise on the natural grounds of Harmony*, remarks, that "the completest and most perfect ring is a peal of six, in which, whether ascending or descending, the hemitone holds the middle position, as it does in both the natural and the *durum* hexachord; in the *molle* hexachord the *tritonus* intervenes." (cap. vi.) Stowe, in his *Survey of Cornhill Ward*, mentions, that in 1430, a sixth Bell was added to the peal of five in the church of St. Michael; after which it was accented the best ring of Bells, for harmony and sweetness of sound, in all England.

England is distinguished as the country of Bell ringing, and the practice of ringing changes has been considered as peculiar to it. The theory of this art may be studied in the *Harmonia Universalis* (the Latin and the French work) of Merseus, in which he has enumerated and reduced to musical notation, the changes of the hexachord. In the *Tintinnologia, or Art of Ringing*, (1668,) every possible change of diatonic sound, from two Bells to twelve is laid down; and innumerable passages are presented, wholly new to musical composition. This may readily be imagined, when it is recollected, that in the places and simple arrangements of natural sounds, without the intertention of a single flat or sharp, twelve Bells produce forty-seven thousand nine hundred millions sixteen hundred changes. Not all the changes, however, if reduced into an air, would be equally agreeable or equally practicable; and it is somewhat remarkable, that in the Art of Ringing, melody has never been studied. Mechanical order and succession has been all in all; and Dr. Burney, from whom we borrow the observation, states, that even in the clams or collision of two Bells together in counterpoint, no knowledge of harmony has ever been displayed.

The number of changes upon a given number of Bells is readily calculated: $S=1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times \dots n$. So that the changes upon

2 Bells are	2
3	6
4	24
5	120
6	720
7	5040
8	40320
9	362880
10	3628800
11	39916800
12	479001600

No peal, we believe, beyond twelve, has ever been erected. It is calculated that ten changes may be rung in one minute, that is 720 in an hour. On this computation, all the possible changes on twelve Bells

could not be rung in less than seventy-five years, ten months, and ten days.

It is obvious that the art of ringing (which must be worth studying, since we are assured by the authors of the *Campanologia*, the treatise at present in highest repute among the most expert *Youths*, that it is "of a noble nature, employing many faculties, both mental and corporeal,") can be learned no where so well as in a belfry; and we must not contend with a very brief notice of its mysteries.

A *Peal* is the whole number of changes which can be rung on any given number of Bells: and as the stile of each peal differs according to the variation in the succession of these changes, so each peal is distinguished by a peculiar name, as *times* are in palmistry.

The peal of regular permutations on five Bells, is called a *Grandire*. These permutations are represented in the diagram below.

12345	13542	31254	25143
—	31524	32145	52413
21354	35142	23415	54231
23145	53412	24351	45321
32415	54321	42531	43512
34251	45231	43213	34125
43521	42513	54123	B 31425
45312	24153	51432	13452
54132	21435	15342	14325
51423	12453	13524	41253
52413	14235	31542	43125
12534	41253	35124	34215
21543	42135	53214	32513
25134	24315	52341	25541
25214	23451	25431	25314
53241	25541	24313	52134
35421	52514	42133	51243
34512	53124	B 41235	15423
43152	51342	14253	14352
B 41325	15432	12435	41233
14352	14523	21453	45132
13425	41532	24135	54312
31452	45123	42315	53421
34125	54213	43251	35421
43215	52431	34521	32514
42351	25341	35412	32154
24531	23514	53142	S 21345
25413	32154	51324	12354
52143	S 31245	15234	12345
51234	13254	12543	
15324	13245	21534	

The letter B, in the above example, signifies a *Bob*, or an alteration in the direction of the changes.

S denotes *Single*; a term used when half the peal is rung, and also when one change only remains.

A *Plain Bob*, *Grandire Bob*, or *Single Bob Minor*, is the peal of regular permutation on six Bells.

A *Grandire Treble* is the same on seven.

A *Bob Major* the same on eight.

Caters, the same on nine.

Ten In, or *Bob Royal*, the same on ten.

Cinquies, the same on eleven.

Twelve In, or *Bob Marston*, the same on twelve.

In the *Grandire Treble* complete, there are 5040 changes: to ring through which, admitting 720 changes in an hour, (a number which cannot be kept up,) seven hours would be required. It is plain that this

BELL. is the most extensive complete peal which can be rung. The next in order, the *Bob Major*, contains 40320 changes, and could not be rung even on a light peal in less than twenty-four hours, a length of time during which no eight men could stand in the labour.

These regular changes, in which the place of two Bells only is altered in each round, are called *plain changes*. When the place of more than two Bells is altered, and the changes do not succeed each other progressively, but by intervals, they are called *cross changes*.

The Bell, the regular motion of which guides the rest, is called the *Hunt*, and it is generally the treble Bell. In the above example, the figure 1 represents the Hunt; it moves from its own place into the second's place, and so on till it reaches fifth's place, which is called *hunting up behind*. Here it strikes two blows, called *laying behind a whole peal*; and it then hunts back again in the reverse order, and so on to the end of the peal.

If the reader seeks for more information, he must endeavour to unravel the labyrinth of the work which we have already quoted, the *Companions*. In the edition of 1733, which forms the ground-work of those printed subsequently, we meet with the following passage, connecting the Art of Ringing with the Games. As it has been altered in the later reprints, we think it right to transcribe it ungarbled.

"The first step he (the learner) makes in this art, is to learn perfectly to set in Bell, both back stroke and fore; and to have it so much in his command, as that he may be able to set it down at either hand, (being the *ally* or back stroke) and set it again the next pull; without which he cannot attain in any perfection or knowledge in this art. And to make this the more easy to him, he must observe to keep the rope tite or stiff, to stand upright to his Bell, not stirring, or using any ungenteel posture; which in ringing (as well as dancing) is very ridiculous. When he is master of this, he may then try to ring one round in 3, 4, 5, or 6 Bells, and afterwards in 8 or 10, wherein (as in all ringing) the principal thing to be observed is a true and exact compass, (which in music is called time) otherwise the ringing becomes very unpleasant and disturbing to the hearers, and may be compared to the incoherent music of a country fiddle-player before a company of Boors and peasants going to the celebration of a humely country wedding." (p. 11.)

The great name of Sir Matthew Hale has long been associated by the amateurs of this art with Bell ringing. We do not dispute the veracity of this accredited tradition; but the passages in his life by Bishop Burnet, which are said to confirm it, only tend to prove, that in his youth the Judge was fond of athletic exercises in general. The art of late years has somewhat fallen into disrepute; and the clubs, by which it is supported, are composed from an inferior class of people to that which supplied them half a century ago.

The peals in London of twelve Bells, are St. Bride's, St. Martin's in the Fields, St. Michael's Cornhill, St. Leonard's Shoreditch, St. Saviour's Southwark, St. Giles Cripplegate and Christ Church Spital Fields. York Minster, Cirencester. Great St. Mary's Cambridge, St. Martin's Birmingham, St. Peter's Mancroft, Norwich, St. Chad's Shrewsbury, and Pyncheonchurch Gloucestershire, each have the same number.

The Chinese are particularly fond of Bells, which they strike by force of hand with a huge wooden mallet. They increase the sound of the Bell by an artifice which our founders would consider as a defect; namely, by leaving a hole under the common ear.

The great Bell at St. Peter's in Rome weighs 18,607 lbs. In the Palazzo Vecchio at Florence is one weighing 17,000 lbs. and it is raised 275 feet from the ground. Great Tum, of Christ Church, Oxford, weighs 17,000 lbs.; of Lincoln, 1684 lbs. The Bell of St. Paul's, London, 8400 lbs. The Bell first given to this cathedral originally hung in a tower opposite the gate of Westminster Hall. It was cast in the reign of Henry III. and bore the following legend:

*Tertius operavit me Rex Edwardus vocavit,
Edwardi decore Sancti signatur ut born.*

On the demolition of the tower in 1715, the Bell was granted to the clock of the new Cathedral of St. Paul; it was soon cracked, and after having been recast, again met with the same accident. The present Bell was cast by Phelps.

Kircher, in the book of his *Musurgia Universalis*, describes a Bell at Erfurt, which was cast in the year 1497, by Gerard Wou de Campis, at the expense of the citizens, the neighbouring princes and noblemen. In thickness it is a quarter and half quarter of an ell; its height is four ells and three quarters; its exterior periphery fourteen ells and a half; and its weight two hundred and fifty-two hundred. Four-and-twenty men are required to ring it, besides two men who on each side push forward the clapper. Its sound is plainly heard at the distance of three German leagues. Its fundamental note is D sol re, but it gives also F first, making a consonance of a minor third.

From the above account, Sir John Hawkins (*Hist. of Music*, iv. 211.) has very naturally doubted whether the Bell is ever rung at all; that is, whether it is elevated by a rope, and wheel. The action of the twenty-four men is inaccurately described; but the two are plainly employed, not in ringing, but in *toling*. So we read in the *Obituarium Cantuariensis*, of a Bell, given by Prior Wibertus in the twelfth century, which required thirty-two men to ring it. And such is the custom with the huge Bells in Russia, where the piety of the donor is estimated by the magnitude of the Bell which he presents. They are fixed immovably to a beam, where they are struck by a rope tied to the clapper, and pulled sideways.

The Bell in the Church of St. Ivan, at Moscow, weighs 127,536 lbs. But the wonder of travellers has always been the unsuspended Bell in the Kremlin. It was cast in 1653, in the reign of the Empress Anne; a fire took place in the building erected over it, the metal thus became hot, and the water which fell upon it while in this state occasioned a fracture, by which it was rendered useless. Dr. Clarke, in his *Travels*, has given the following account of it.

"It reaches from the bottom of the cave to the roof. The entrance is by a trap-door, placed even with the surface of the earth. We found the steps very dangerous; some of them were wanting, and others broken, which occasioned me in severe fall down the whole extent of the first flight, and a narrow escape for my life, in not being dashed upon the Bell. In consequence of this accident, a sentinel was stationed afterwards at the trap-door, to prevent people

BELL

BELL becoming victims to their curiosity. He might have been as well employed in mending the steps, as in waiting all day to say they were broken. The Bell is truly a mountain of metal. They relate, that it contains a very large proportion of gold and silver; for that, while it was in fusion, the nobles and the people cast in, as votive offerings, their plate and money. It is permitted to doubt the truth of traditional tales, particularly in Russia, where people are much disposed to relate what they have heard, without reflecting on its probability. I have endeavoured, in vain, to assay a small part. The natives regard it with superstitious veneration, and they would not allow even a grain to be filed off. At the same time it may be said, the compound has a white shining appearance, unlike bell-metal in general; and perhaps its silvery aspect has strengthened, if not given rise to, a conjecture respecting the richness of its materials. On festival days, the peasants visit the Bell as they would a church, considering it an act of devotion; and they cross themselves as they descend and ascend the steps. The bottom of the pit is covered by water, mud, and large pieces of timber, which, added to the darkness, render it always an unpleasant and unwholesome place, in addition to the danger arising from the steps which lead to the bottom. I went frequently there, in order to ascertain the dimensions of the Bell with exactness. * * * We applied a strong cord close to the metal in all parts of its periphery, and round the lower part where it touched the ground; taking care at the same time not to stretch the cord. From the piece of the Bell broken off, it was ascertained that we had thus measured within two feet of its lower extremity. The circumference obtained was sixty-seven feet and four inches; which allows a diameter of twenty-two feet, five inches, and one-third of an inch. We then took the perpendicular height from the top of the Bell, and found it correspond exactly with the statement made by Hanway, namely, twenty-one feet, four inches and a half. In the stoutest part, that in which it should have received the blow of the hammer, its thickness equalled twenty-three inches. We were able to ascertain this, by placing our hands under water where the fracture had taken place, which is above seven feet high from the lip of the Bell. The weight of this enormous mass of metal has been computed to be 443,773 lbs.; which, if valued at three shillings a pound, amounts to £66,565. 16s. lying unemployed, and of no use to any one."

The use of Bells in Carillons will be explained under that head. It may, however, be mentioned here, that in the Low Countries, particularly at Ghent and Antwerp, is a species of Chimes termed *Carillons*, played with great labour by a performer (the *Carillonneur*) upon a number of Bells, disposed in a scale of tones and semitones like a harpsichord. The bells are played by pedals; the treble by violent strokes of the hands edgeways upon a series of projecting sticks, which act as keys. From this barbarous and unwieldy music, the term *Carillon* has been applied to a small keyed instrument, imitating a peal of handbells, in which box hammers are made to strike iron bars of different lengths. Handel employed this instrument as an accompaniment to his air, "O let the merry Bells ring round," in *L'Allegro*; and to the chorus, "Welcome, welcome, mighty King," in *Saul*.

The method of casting Bells will be explained under

the head *FOUNDRY*. The metal is composed of tin and copper, to which sometimes brass is added. The proportions of tin varies inversely according to the size of the Bell; and in those of the smallest size, (such as for repeating watches) zinc is used. Sir John Hawkins, (*Hist. of Music*, iv. 134.) mentions, that the art of Bell foundry was brought to great perfection in the year 1684, by Abraham Ridhall, an artisan of Gloucester. This business, at the time in which Sir John Hawkins published, (1766,) was still continued by the same family, and from a list published at Lady-Day 1774, it appears that they had then cast no less than 3594 several Bells. In the *Companologia*, the honour of the invention of changes, or regular peals, is ascribed to Mr. Benjamin Anable, who produced 5040 *Bob Trebles*, with two *Singles*. Mr. Holt followed on the same peal without a *Single*; and "Caters and Cinques, which he found in a rude and jumbled state, he threw into the harmonious titulus, where they still continue, and most likely ever will remain." Mr. Patrick, a maker of barometers in the beginning of the last century, is also to be noticed among celebrated *tiastinnologists*.

The most sonorous Bell, according to a paper by M. Reaumur, (*Mém. Acad. Par.* 1736) may be formed of the segment of a sphere. The theory of the sound of Bells belongs properly to *Acoustics*, but it may be partly elucidated by the following observations, taken from the *Companologia*, and which are to be found in almost every other paper which has been compiled on the same subject.

"The parts of a Bell are the body or barrel, the clapper withinside, and the ear or cannon, whereby it is hung to a large beam of wood. Its usual matter is a kind of compound metal, called *bell-metal*. The thickness of its edges is usually $\frac{1}{4}$ of the diameter, and its height twelve times its thickness. The Bell-founders have a diapason, or bell-scale, with which they measure the size, thickness, weight, and tone of their Bells. The clapper, or tongue, is not properly a part of the Bell, but is furnished from other hands. In Europe, it is usually of iron, with a large knob at the extreme; and is suspended in the middle of the Bell.

"The sound of a Bell arises from a vibratory motion of the parts thereof, much like that of a musical chord. The stroke of the clapper, it is evident, must change the figure of the Bell, and of round make it oval; but the metal having a great degree of elasticity, that part which the stroke drove farthest from the centre will fly back again, and this even somewhat nearer to the centre than before; so that the two points, which before were the extremes of the longer diameter, now become those of the shorter. Thus, the circumference of the Bell undergoes alternate changes of figure, and by means thereof gives that tremulous motion to the air, in which sound consists.

"M. Perrault maintains, that the sound of the same Bell or chord, is a compound of the sound of the several parts thereof; so that where the parts are homogeneous, and the dimensions of the figure uniform, there is such a perfect mixture of all these sounds, as constitutes one uniform, smooth, even sound: and the contrary circumstances produce harshness. This he proves from the Bell's differing in time according to the part you strike; and yet strike it any where, there

BELL
—
BELL
ROCK.

is a motion of all the parts. He therefore considers Bells as composed of an infinite number of rings; which, according to their different dimensions, have different tones, as chords of different lengths have; and when struck, the vibrations of the parts immediately struck determine the tone; being supported by a sufficient number of consonant tones in the other parts. Mr. Hawkebee, and others, have found by experiment, that the sound of a Bell struck under water is a fourth deeper than in the air: though Mercennius says, it is of the same pitch in both elements. This writer has treated largely of the different metals of which Bells are formed, of their figure, crassitude, and degrees of ponderosity, as they respect each other in a given series.

"Bells are observed to be heard farther, placed on plains, than on hills; and still farther, in valleys, than on plains; the reason of which it will not be difficult to assign; if it be considered, that the higher the sonorous body is, the rarer is its medium; consequently the less impulse it receives, and the less proper vehicle it has to convey it to a distance."

BELL-METAL ORE, in *Mineralogy*, is a sulphuret of copper and tin, found hitherto only at St. Anne's, in Cornwall.

BELL PEPPER, a name given to the *Capsicum Grossum*, or heart-shaped capsicum.

BELL ROCK, sometimes called INCH CAPE, a dangerous rock off the east coast of Scotland, about twelve miles from Arbroath, and nearly opposite the mouth of the river Tay. It is also about thirty miles north-east from St. Abb's Head, and lies nearly in the direct track of most of the shipping that enter the Firths of Forth and Tay, which embrace the trade of most of the eastern part of Scotland. The former of these estuaries is likewise one of the principal openings on the east coast of Britain, in which the shipping of the North Sea and German Ocean take shelter when surprised by easterly storms. During neap tides, at the quadratures of the moon, the Bell Rock is scarcely uncovered at low water; but when the ebb is greatest, the Rock is exposed to view for about 430 feet in length, and 230 in breadth; and at these times its perpendicular height above the surface of the sea is nearly four feet. From this a reef extends for about 1000 feet towards the south-west, which is but a few feet under water at the time of the lowest tides. At spring tides the sea covers the highest part of the rock for nearly two fathoms in depth. The whole rock is composed of a red sandstone, intermixed with a few spots of a whitish colour, resembling that which forms some of the promontories of the adjacent coast. From the traditions respecting this rock, it appears to have long been considered as extremely dangerous to the navigation of these seas; for it has been asserted, that in the fourteenth century, the monks of Aberbrothock caused a large bell to be suspended upon it, which was rung by the motion of the waves, and thus by its tolling warned the mariner of his danger as he approached the spot. From this circumstance the name is supposed to have been derived; but we believe no document has yet been found to support the supposition. Others have thought, that no more ancient times, before the waters had worn down the rock to its present form, its shape might have resembled that of a bell, and its name have been thence derived.

After the loss of numerous lives off this coast, and the exercise of much discussion and ingenuity, a lighthouse has recently been erected upon this dangerous spot, a building which is equally beneficial to commerce, and creditable to the age which produced it.

BELLADONNA LILY, the English name of the

Amoralla Belladonna.

BELLE, } Belle, Fr. from the Lat. *bellus*, a light-
Be'LLYCH, } applied to the female as *beau* to the
Be'LLAM, } male. (See HEAD.)
Be'LLINE, } *Bellum*. Mr. Nares observes, is
Be'LLIBONK. } used in Spencer as *belle dame*, fair lady. It seems, then, to have been used as good dame, goody, gaudium: then applied to any old woman; to an old witch or hag.

Bellibone, i. e. bonny belle; bonny lass.

Ripe as mead's precursors, precursors and predators
Jai ben embellished with *belle parolles*, and which *belle clojens*
And as lamben jai taken, and byren as wolves.
Piers Plouman. Vision, fol. 270.

Than I mune me forth, the mynster to knowen,
And awaytode a woun, wonderly well ybaid,
With arches on currier half, and beltyrke yooroun
With crocheries on corners, with knottis of gold.
Id. Credo, book iv.

SAW. — Why then on me,
Or any less old *olden*? Reverence cause
Had wout to wait on age.
Ford. The Witch of Edmonton, act iv. sc. i.

— The turning earth
Is with a kinde of collick pinckit and veat,
By the imprisonment of vurnly winde
Within her wombe: which for enlargement striving,
Shakes the old *olden* earth, and tumbles downe
Steeple, and moose-growne towers.
Shakespeare. Henry IV. First Part, fol. 60.

— Who this land in such estate maintain'd,
As his great *olden* Brute from Albion's biers it won.
Dryden. Poly-Olson, Song viii.

PER. I saw the bounding *Bellibone*;
WILL. Hey ho Bunickel,
PER. Tripping over the dale alone,
WILL. She ran trip it very well.
Spenser. Shepherd's Calendar. August.

Say what strange motive, goddess! could compel
A well bred lord to assault a gentle *belle*?
O say what stranger cause, yet unexpress'd,
Could make a gentle *belle* reject a lord?

Pope. *The Rape of the Lock*
Skill'd in no other arts was she,
But dressing, patching, repartee;
And, just as blunder rose or fell,
By turns a slattern or a belle.
Goldsmith. The Double Transformation.

But when to borrow his amazement rose,
A gentler strain the *olden* would release,
A tale of rural life, a tale of woes,
The orphan-babe, and guardian uncle fierce.
Bentley. The Minstrel, book i.

BELLE GARDE, a barrier fortress of France, on the side of Spain, and in the department of the Eastern Pyrenees. It stands on one of those mountains, beyond the pass of La Cluse, and near a Spanish fort, on the Col de Pertuis. In 1674, the Spaniards wrested this strong hold from the French, but were expelled by the latter during the following year, under Marshal Schomberg. It was then simply a tower; but after the peace of Nimeguen, they laid the foundation of the present fortress, which is regularly constructed, and rendered a strong place. It was, however,

BELL
ROCK.
BELLE
GARDE.

BELLE-
GARDE.
BELLE-
ROPHON.

again taken by the Spaniards in 1793, and retaken by the French revolutionary troops in 1794, who gave it the name of *Sud-Libre*. The population of the place now amounts to 600 or 700. It is about fifteen miles south of Perpignan, in latitude $43^{\circ} 30' N.$, and longitude $2^{\circ} 50' E.$

BELLE-ISLE, sometimes called BELLEISLE EN MER, a small island of France, situated in the Bay of Biscay, and included in the department of Morbihan. It lies about five leagues from the shore, and is fifteen miles long, and five broad. The soil is fertile, the climate salubrious, and the population between five and six thousand individuals. It is chiefly encompassed with rocks, defended by a good citadel, and can only be approached by vessels in a few places, which are strongly fortified. The capital is Ploëze; besides which there are three other small towns, and three ports. Its commerce principally consists of corn, salt, and fish, the latter chiefly pilchards, and which are caught nearer its shores. Belleisle formerly belonged to the family of that name, which was a branch of the house of Fouquet, but was given up to the crown in 1718, in exchange for the Duchy of Gisors. The French fleet was defeated in its vicinity in 1759, by Admiral Hawke, and the island was taken two years afterwards by the English, but it was restored by the peace of Fontenoy. Latitude $47^{\circ} 17' N.$, longitude $3^{\circ} 5' W.$

BELLEROPHON, in *Mythology*, a Corinthian, the son of Glaucus, King of Ephyrus, and grandson of Sisyphus, or, as Hyginus states, a son of Neptune, elvif. His mother's name was Eurymedea, or Eury-nome. Having murdered his brother, to whom the various names of Bellesus, Deliaides, Pirenes, and Alcimenus, are all assigned; he changed his own original name of Hippocoon to that which he afterwards bore, (Βελλήροφον φωνή.) In consequence of this crime also, he fled to the court of Prætorius, King of Argos. Here he excited an illicit passion in the bosom of the King's wife, who is variously called Antea or Sthenobea. Failing in her meretricious allurements, she accused the obdurate youth of an attempt upon her chastity. Prætorius, unwilling to put to death openly, one with whom he had connected himself by hospitality, dispatched him on a pretended mission to his father-in-law, Jobates, King of Lycia. The sealed letters which he conveyed, instructed this Prince to put the bearer to death: and hence flowed the proverbial expression of Βελλήροφοντες τὴν γυναικα. A solemn feast of nine days duration, prevented the examination of these letters during that time. At its close, Jobates demanded his credentials from Bellerophon; and actuated by the same motive which before had influenced Prætorius, he endeavoured to find some oblique mode of putting his guest to death. The adventures of the Chimæra, of the Solymi, and of the Amazons, were severally proposed, and in all of them Bellerophon was triumphant. In the first he is said to have been assisted by Minerva Chalcidiki, (the Bitted,) who having broken in the winged steed Pegasus, mounted her votary upon his back. Jobates having failed in these attempts, planned an ambush for the conqueror; but this stratagem was equally unsuccessful with the others. The valour of Bellerophon slew or dispersed his enemies; and the King of Lycia, struck by his courage, and convinced that he was under the protection of the gods, betrothed him to his

daughter Philonoe, according to Apollodorus; Achæmon, according to Homer. From this union sprang Isander, Laodamia, and Hippolochus; and it is to Glaucus, the son of the last, that we are indebted for a narration of the aforementioned particulars, (ll. 2.) Sthenobea, unable to bear the tortures of shame and disappointed love, drank hemlock, and died. On the demise of his father-in-law, Bellerophon succeeded to the throne of Lycia. Pegasus, unfortunately, was still at his command; and one day, in hazarding too high a flight on this aeronautic courser, Jupiter, irritated at his presumption, and apprehensive that he might reach heaven itself, sent a gad fly to check his rise. Bellerophon fell headlong on the Alieian plain, in Cilicia; and wandered about the neighboring countries for the remainder of his days, in hopeless poverty and blindness. The legend of Bellerophon, is to be found, (besides in those authors to whom we have already referred) with some variation, in the customary storerooms of ancient mythology: in Hyginus, *Poet. Astron.* xviii.; in Apollodorus, *Bibl.* ii. 3.; iii. 1.; and in Natalia Comes, ix. 4.

BELL'ICAL, } Lat. *bellum*, bellicum, warlike.
BELL'ICUS, } Of *bellum*, Vossius says, *Ut a dvis*,
BELL'ICUS, } (Gr. *κρί*) venit *bis*; sic a *duellum* est
BELL'ICANT, } *bellum*. *Duellum vero dictum o duo-*
lus.

Belligerent; *bellum*; *gerens*; carrying on, waging war.

Venisset longi tyme, et venisset tute,
Now kins into fury bellid.
Sum grathis them on fate to go in field
Sum kic mostin on hors bak under scerid.

Douglas. *Enraged*, book vii.

Riot had the beginning, because that our men being much accustomed either in foreign wars in France, Scotland, or Ireland, or being overmuch exercised with civil wars within the realm, (which is the fault that fourth ordinarily among bellicious nations,) whereby men of warre, captaines and soldiers become plentiful.

S. T. Smith. *Commonwealth of England*.

The *bellicus* Censor, as Suetonius tells us, was noted for singularity in his apparel, and did not content himself without adding something to his senators purple robe.

Fetham. *Resolves*, li. lii.

Never mind, brother Toby, he would say, by God's blessing, we shall have another war break out again some of these days; and when it does, the *bellicent* powers, if they would hang themselves, cannot keep us out of play.

Sterne. *Tristram Shandy*, ch. 31.

It was, therefore, an essential preliminary to the whole proceeding, to fix whether the balance of power, the liberties and laws of the empire, and the treaties of different *bellicent* powers in past times, when they put an end to hostilities, were to be considered as the basis of our present negotiation.

Burke. *Letter on Regicide Peace*.

BELLIE, a parish of Scotland, on the left bank of the Spey, opposite the town of Fochaber, where the church now stands. This parish is partly in Banffshire, and partly in the county of Elgin, and the whole population in 1821, was 2235. A handsome bridge has been here built over the Spey, by the Duke of Gordon. On a rising ground in this parish stands Gordon Castle, the distinguished seat of that nobleman, which is considered as one of the most magnificent in this kingdom; its front is 563 feet in length.

BELLINGHAM BAY, a bay on the west coast of North America, in the gulf of Georgia, behind a group of islands, which divide the entrance into a number of separate channels. Its extent from north to south is about twelve miles, and it every where affords

BELLE-
ROPHON.
BELLING-
HAM
BAY.

BELLINGHAM RAY. secure anchorage. Near the northern point of its entrance, there is a brook of excellent water. It is situated in the 49th degree of north latitude, and the 123d of west longitude.

BELLINZONA. a district in the south of Switzerland, on the east bank of the Ticino, or Tesino, bounded by the country of the Grisons, the lake of Como, and the districts of Riviéra, Locarno, and Lugano. The whole extent is about 830 square miles, and the population near 50,000. On the reorganization of the Swiss republic in 1798, Bellinzona was formed into a separate canton; but in 1801, it was included, with what are called the other Italian districts of Switzerland, in the canton of Tesino.

BELLINZONA, the capital of the preceding canton, stands at the extremity of a valley of the same name, and is built upon two projecting rocks, which close up the valley, except a passage for the Tesino, and the road to Milan. This road, too, forms the main pass to Mount St. Gothard, on the side of Italy. This town is romantically situated among the Pennine Alps, near the southern confines of the country, and is considered a delightful residence by invalids, and others whose circumstances require a partial seclusion from the world. The inhabitants do not exceed 1800 or 2000, many of whom are either engaged in mercantile transactions, or in the transit of goods between Switzerland and Italy, as this is the chief passage by which that commerce is carried on. It contains an old citadel, a collegiate church, and three convents, and suffered greatly in the campaign of the Russians and French in 1799. It stands about forty miles south of Zurich, in latitude 46° 4' N. and longitude 5° 44' E.

BELLIS, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Syngenesia*, order *Polygamia Superflua*. Generic character: receptacle naked, conical; pappus obovate; calyx hemispherical: scales equal; seeds obovate.

The common Daisy, *B. perennis*, is the best known species of this genus.

Scape naked, one-flowered, leaves obovate, cre-nate, veined.

There are three cultivated varieties of the Daisy; viz. the *Hortensis*, or Double Daisy; (*Botanical Magazine*, 228); the *Fistulosa*, or Quilled Daisy; and the *Prolifera*, or Hea and Chickens Daisy.

The other species of *Bellis*, are the *B. Sylvatica*, or large Portugal Daisy, and the *B. Annua*, a native of Spain, and the South of France; this latter is readily distinguished from the others by its leafy stem.

BELLUM, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Syngenesia*, order *Polygamia Superflua*. Generic character: receptacle naked; seeds conical; crown paleaceous, of eight leaves; awned, and furnished with a pappus; leaflets of the calyx equal.

English name, Bastard Daisy. A genus allied to *Bellis*, containing two species, one of which is a native of Italy, and the other of the Levant.

BELLONA, in the confused Mythology of the ancients, was the wife or sister, or the sister wife of Mars, and officiated as his charioteer. It has been said that Hyginus, (Fab. 275) ascribes to her the invention of the needle. We doubt whether this goddess was sufficiently given to housewifery for such discovery; and the quantity of the Greek word *bellōnē*, to which the name is traced, confirms our belief that the Fabulist meant some other person. The temple of Bellona, in Rome, stood in the Circus Flaminius,

near the *Porta Carmentalis*. Here foreign ambassadors, and generals returning from their campaigns, were received by the Senate. It was built by Appius Claudius Cæcus, at whose remonstrance, when his infirmities were so great that he was obliged to be carried in a litter to the Curia, the Romans were persuaded to reject the dishonourable terms proposed by Pyrrhus. Before its gates was raised a pillar called *Columna Bellica*, against which, as one of the previous forms in a declaration of war, a javelin used to be hurled.

Hæc sacra die Tusco Bellona duello
Dilectæ, et Latio prospera semper adest.
Appius est actor: Pyrrhus qui pace negavit
Mellum minimo vidit; hæc inde capto erant.
Prospicit a Templo summum brevis arces Circus;
Est ibi non parva parva Columna nota;
Hinc solet hasta manu, belli prætextata, mitti;
In regem et gentes cum placet arma capi.

De Æst. vi. 201.

The Priests of this goddess derived their name, *Bellonarii*, from her own. Lactantius (l. 21) describes them as cutting their flesh most ferociously in her worship; and Tertullian (4 and 9 de *Pallio*) adds, that having collected the blood which flowed from these gashes in the palms of their hands, they pledged the Neophytes, who were initiated into their mysteries, and then broke out into the ravings of vaticination. At Comana, in Cappadocia, Strabo relates, that more than 6000 persons, male and female, were dedicated to the Priesthood of Bellona, (Lib. xii.) These were under the rule of a High Priest, whose office was for life, and whose dignity was next to that of the King. A city of the same name in Pontus had a similar institution. The Priesthood in Cappadocia was secularized by the Romans after the Mithridatic war; and much civil power was added to it, without a diminution of its sacred privileges. Pompey bestowed it upon Archelaus, Jullus Cæsar upon Nicomedes, and Augustus upon Dyteutus. The history of this last deserves a brief notice. He was the eldest son of Adriatorix, Tetrarch of Galilee. The baseness and treachery of the father brought down a deserved sentence of death upon himself and his eldest son. As they were conducted to execution, the youngest declared that he was first born, and contested the place of punishment with his brother. Dyteutus did not give way in the generous contest, till the persuasion of his father and mother induced him to permit the self-sacrifice of the younger, on the plea that his own ripe age would afford greater protection to the survivors of his family. The younger was then executed; and Augustus, regretting his fate, atoned for it as far as he could, by the elevation of Dyteutus. (Appian, in *Mith. sub. fix.*)

BELLONIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: corolla rotate; capsule of one cell, inferior, many-seeded, covered by the rostrate calyx.

An American genus, containing two species.

BELLOVAR, a small, well-built, and fortified town of the Austrian empire, in Croatia, the inhabitants of which derive their chief subsistence from the culture of corn, wine, and silk. The church and convent of the Friars, the church of the Greek Christians, and some of the government offices, are good buildings, but it otherwise contains nothing remarkable.

BELLO-NA.
BELLO-VAL.

BELLOW.

BELLOW.
B'LOWES,
B'LOWNO,
B'LOWES.A. S. Almon. To low, to be-low.
To low, to make a lowed, low'd,
or loud noise.The bull of brass, which gapeth wide,
It shalde seme, as though it were
A bellowing in a mans ere,
And not the crieage of a man.

Geuerr. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 162.

And after that cometh suggestion of the diuel, this is to say, the
diuels bellow, with which he bloweth in man the fire of concu-
piscence.

About the pile of faggots, sticks and hay,

The bellowers ruid'd the newly kindled flame.

Fitzg. Godfrey of Bullgoose, book li.

They made such a noise, that the walls of Foyers sounded
with the recho thereof like a wood, in such sort that a man would
have thought that the hills had bellowed out to the valleys, and that
the clowdes had giuen forth a most terrible thonder.

Stowe. Ann. 1537. ed. 6.

The Ambroses that had fled and escaped from the overthrow,
did howl out all night with loud cries, which were nothing like
mens lamentations and sighs, but rather like wild beasts bellowing
and roaring. So that the bellowing of such a great multitude of
brandy pipe, mingled together with threats and wallings, made
the mountains throughout and the running river to rebound again
of the sound, and echo of their cries marvellously.

North. Pheterech, fol. 358.

Seuering from all the rest; and setting gone

Full fable of the violent bellowers,

Which drining through the sands; he did reuerse

(His birds-craft train remembering) all their houses.

Chapman. Myan to Hercules, fol. 56.

Within the fetters they put a cole or sparke of fire, and then
with a paire of smithies bellows (the one whereof went into the
pipe aforesaid) they blowed the cole and set it on a smouldring
fire within the fetters.

Holland. Livet, fol. 987.

This gentleman, you must know, is always very exact and
zealous in his devotion, which I believe nobody blames; but then
he is accustomed to roar and bellow so terribly loud in the
responses, that he frightens even us of the congregation, who are
duly us'd to him.

Tatler, No. 54.

This ingenious gentleman, out of compassion to those of a had
utterance, has plac'd his whole study in the new modelling the
organs of voice; which art he has so far advanc'd, as to be able
even to make a good orator of a pair of bellows.

Id. No. 70.

To feign a red hot need for freedom's cause,

To mouth aloud for liberties and laws,

For public good to bellow all abroad,

Serves well the purposes of private fraud.

Churchill. The Conference.

It [the bittern heron] has two kinds of notes; the one croaking,
when it is disturbed; the other bellowing, which it commences in
the spring and ends in autumn.

Frasant. Brit. Zoology.

BELLOWs, a machioe so formed as to expire
and inspire air by turns, by the enlargement and con-
traction of the capacity. The common form of this
machine, as used for common household purposes, is
too well known to require any description; it is only
where great blasts, and considerable currents of air,
are required that the construction of Bellows, or as
they are the commonly called, blowing machines,
become interesting; as in the larger founderies,
smelting-houses, smitheries, &c. where their operation
is of the greatest importance.For the sake of connection it may just be observed,
that the common form of Bellows is that of two flat
boards, sometimes of an oval, and sometimes of a
triangular figure, connected together by leather and
hoops bent according to their shape. The leather
which is broad in the middle, and made narrow at thecode, is nailed round the two boards, so that the latter
may be opened and shut about the narrow part as a
hinge. A tube of iron, brass, or copper, is fastened
to the undermost board, to which there is a hole
covered by a valve, so that when the boards are
separated the air may be admitted, but which being
shut by the pressure of the air, when they are closing,
the latter is forced out of the tube.Bellows in this form were known to the ancients, German
and are said to be the invention of Anacharsis, the Bellowg.
Scythian. The first deviation from this form took 1, 2, 3, 4.
place in Germany about a century back. The con-
struction was as follows: ABCPEF (plate xii. fig. 1.) Plate xii.
is a wooden box, which has its top and two sides flat
or straight, and the end DAE formed into an arched
or cylindrical surface, of which the line FP at the
other end is the axis. This box is open below, and
receives within it the shallow box KHGM, &c. fig. 2,
which exactly fills it. The line FP of the one co-
incides with FP of the other, and along these lines is
a set of joints, on which the upper box turns as it
rises and sinks; the lower box is made fast to a frame
sunk in the ground. A pipe or tube QQ proceeds
from the end of it and terminates at the furnace, where
it ends in a small pipe called a tyger. This lower
box is open above, and has in its bottom two large
valves, VV, opening inwards. The conducting pipe
is also sometimes furnished with a valve opening
outwards, to prevent burning coals from being sucked
into the bellows when the upper box is drawn up.The joint along FF is made tight by this leather
nailed along it. The sides and ends of the fixed box
are made to fit the sides and curved end of the upper
box, so that this last can be raised and lowered round
the joint FP without sensible friction; and yet without
suffering much air to escape; but as this would not
be sufficiently air tight by reason of the shrinking and
warping of the wood, a farther contrivance is had
recourse to. A slender lath of wood divided into
several joints, and covered on the outer edge by soft
leather, is laid along the upper edges of the sides and
ends of the lower box. This lath is so broad that
when its inner edge is even with the inside of the
box, its outer edge projects about an inch. It is kept
in this position by a number of steel wires, which are
driven into the bottom of the box and stand up
touching the sides. By these means the laths are
pressed close to the sides and curved end of the
movable box, and the spring wires yield to all their
inequalities. A bar of wood RS is fixed to the upper
board, by which it is either raised by machinery, to
sink again by its own weight, (having an additional
load laid on it) or it is forced down by a crank or
wiper of the machinery, and afterwards raised by the
same. The operation here is precisely the same as in
the common household Bellow. When the board is
lifted up, the air enters by the valves VV, (fig. 3.) and
is afterwards expelled at the pipe QQ.These Bellows, which were a few years back (and
we believe are at present) very common on the con-
tinent, are sometimes of enormous size, expelling at
each stroke as much as sixty cubic feet of air, which
they are made to repeat about eight times per minute.
They are however inconsistent with the present im-
proved state of the arts in this country, where more
substantial, more elegant, and more powerful machines
for this purpose are constructed, but so varied in their

B'LOWES.

BEL-
L O W S.

form and mode of operation, as to render it impossible to give any thing like a general account of them in this article: if, however, we cannot enter upon the subject at so great a length as we should be disposed to do, we propose notwithstanding to explain some of the best engines of this kind, and to refer to such others as appear to possess peculiar advantages.

It may be stated as one of the fundamental principles of the greater number of English blowing machines, that they are furnished by means of a piston and cylinder, the latter commonly of iron, but sometimes composed of wood on the plan of coopers' work. The piston is surrounded with a broad strap of thick soft leather, having a deep groove around its edge, in which is lodged a quantity of wool. This is called the packing, or stuffing, and serves to keep the leather very closely applied to the inner surface of the cylinder; in fact, the same precautions are necessary to render the piston air tight, as is usually adopted in the steam engine. In these machines the cylinder has a large valve, or two, in the bottom, or side, by which the atmospheric air enters when the piston is drawn up; but which of course is shut when the piston is forced down, and the air is expelled along a pipe of considerable diameter, which terminates in the furnace with a small orifice, or when applied to a smithery where there are many forges, it is thrown into a general reservoir or wind cellar, and is then turned on by cocks at each forge when necessary. Under this form a safety valve, or some other means of regulating the pressure of the air, becomes necessary.

The piston in these cases is moved by machinery; in some it is simply raised to a given height, and then allowed to descend by its own weight and that with which it is charged, compressing the air beneath it to such a degree, that the velocity of efflux may become constant, and the piston made to descend uniformly. This produces a very uniform blast during the descent; but that it may be continuous, a second piston must be ascending while the first is descending, and descending while the other is ascending. In many instances there are several pistons and cylinders, each discharging itself into a wind cellar, as above described, where the air is drawn off in a brisk and uniform stream.

We are here however speaking of the largest and most powerful blowing machines, but before we proceed to describe them more particularly, it will be proper to notice some very ingenious engines which set upon a smaller scale, of which the following are perhaps most deserving of notice.

The great object in all these constructions is to obtain a uniform blast, and various contrivances have been had recourse to for this purpose. One of them is shown in our fig. 4. It consists of two cylinders connected with each other, and with the discharging pipe as shown in the plate, where P is the working piston, and by means of which, during its descent, the air is compressed and forced through the valve F, and the loaded piston L is raised to its highest situation. The piston P now ascends, and its cylinder is supplied with air through the valve E, during which the loaded piston L is gradually descending; the valve F is closed by the pressure, and the air forced out of the discharging pipe towards the furnace; before all the air in the cylinder L has been discharged it receives a new supply by the descent of P, and thus while the

engine is kept in motion the blast is rendered continuous and uniform.

Bellows of Châtillon in France. This machine consists of two cylinders A H, fig. 5, loaded with weights which are suspended from the two extremities of a lever, or beam, moving about a central fulcrum E. From the top of each there is a large flexible pipe, which are both united in H, whence a pipe H T leads to the tuyere. There are valves at G and H opening upwards, into the flexible pipes; and other valves L, M adjoining to them in the top of each cylinder opening inwards, but kept shut by a slight spring. Motion is given to the lever by a machine, which may of course have water, wind, or steam, for its impelling agent.

The operation of this engine is evident: when the cylinder A is descending, the water entering at its bottom compresses the air, and forces it along the pipe F H K T. In the mean time the cylinder B is rising, the air finding an entrance through the valve M: having reached the top, it begins to descend, and the other to ascend, and thus the blast is rendered nearly continuous, but certainly not so equal as is desirable in most cases.

We have seen a considerable improvement in the construction of this machine at the Patent Iron Cable Manufactory of Messrs. Brunton and Co. Commercial-road; where instead of the flexible pipe, shown in the drawing, a pipe is standing up a little above the surface of the water under each cylinder, and through which the air is made to pass by the compression caused by the descent of each cylinder; the air also passing into a general reservoir or wind chest, is kept constantly under a given pressure and led to any required point. The lever to which the cylinders are suspended, is attached immediately to the beam of a small steam engine applied wholly to this purpose, and the utmost uniformity of action is thus obtained.

The above machines, and some other kind of hydraulic Bellows, to which we shall refer, may be considered as forming the minor engines of this description. We shall now proceed to describe those of the larger class.

Blowing machines of this kind are worked generally by steam, but sometimes by water, and in others by horses; the steam engine, however, is mostly the agent employed on such occasions. A large blowing machine was projected some years back by Smeaton, for the Carron works, to be worked by water, the drawings of which were in the possession of the late Sir Joseph Banks, and from them the perspective view of the engine was made as given in our plate xii. Fig. 6.

A is a large wooden shaft, on which is fixed a water wheel not shown in the figure; at the other end the spur wheel B is fixed, with sixty-four cogs on its circumference; it has four pair of clay arms embracing the square part of the shaft, and its rim is made in three thicknesses. D is a large trundle of thirty-one rounds; it is turned by the cogs of the wheel B. The axis of this trundle is of cast iron and formed into a crank at each end, one of which is marked D. They are these cranks which communicate a reciprocating motion to the pistons of the pumps or cylinders E F G H, by means of two connecting rods, I, K, jointed at the upper ends to two levers

BEL-
L O W S.Hydraulic
Bellows.
fig. 5.Means of
obtaining
a uniform
blast, fig. 4.

Fig. 6.

Carron
blowing
machine.

BEL-
L O W S .

LM, commonly termed regulators. The pistoa rods of the cylinders, EFGH, are jointed to the ends of the levers LM: while the pistoa of one cylinder, E, (for instance) rises, its opposite, G, will be depressed, the same of the other two; the cranks on the ends of the axis of the trundle, D, are placed on the axis at right angles to each other; by this means, when the piston of the cylinder, E, is at the top of its stroke, the other, F, will be at the middle, so that the quantity of air thrown by all the cylinders together shall be nearly constant: though it may easily be seen it cannot be perfectly so with any finite number of cylinders. The cylinders are of cast iron, four feet diameter, very truly bored, and the pistons fitted to them, so as to go easily but not to leak. Each has a flanch at bottom to screw on a plate closing up the cylinder. A large square hole is in this plate, and is covered by a valve opening upwards; a crooked pipe proceeds from the bottom of the cylinder, and turns up under a cubical cast iron chest, which it enters, and is covered by a valve shutting downwards. This air chest is placed between two cylinders, EF and GH, and is large enough to receive the crooked pipes, and contain the valve of both cylinders. An iron pipe conveys the air from the air chest; the one, R, from the cylinders, GH, passes under the wheels, and joins the other at S, from whence it proceeds to the furnace. The action of the cylinders is that of the common forcing pump. On the rise of the piston it rarefies the small quantity of air contained in the cylinder; the pressure of the atmosphere then lifts the valve in the bottom of the cylinder and enters it; on the piston's descent the valve is shut, and the air contained in the cylinder is forced through the crooked pipe into the air chest, opening the valves contained in that vessel. This valve falls on the return of the piston, and prevents the escape of the air from the air chest. The cylinders are supported on one side by beams lying on walls, PP, and on the other by beams, QQ; these beams are framed together by horizontal beams, N, of which there are four parallel to each other; two opposite the cylinders, E, G, and two others opposite the cylinders F, H. In the space between these two sets of beams the great wheel, A, and trundle are placed; and the bearings for the trundle's axis are upon the two inner beams of each set, and the cranks playing in the space between the beams of each pair. The bearings for the levers or regulators are supported by truss frames, consisting of two beams, OO, mortised into the horizontal beams, N: of these there are four, two for each beam. They are all connected and steadied at the top at A by a long bolt going through them.

Blowing
machine at
Woolwich.

The blowing machine recently erected at the smithery in his Majesty's dock yard, Woolwich, if not the most powerful, is perhaps one of the most perfect in the kingdom, and is deserving of particular attention; it is adequate to the supply of air for forty forge fires, amongst which are several for the forging anchors, iron knees, and many other heavy pieces of smithery.

This machine is represented in our Miscellanées plate xiii. fig. 1, being a perspective view of the engine, and fig. 2, 3, and 4, elevations and sections of the blowing cylinders. The part seen in fig. 1, is only that which appears above the level of the floor. The other part is below and may be seen in fig. 2, 3, and 4.

The length of the cylinders is five feet five inches,

of which two feet four inches appear above the floor; the interior diameter of each cylinder is four feet eight inches, and the length of the stroke is also four feet eight inches; which is repeated in each of the three cylinders A, B, C, twenty times per minute, which corresponds to an expulsion of nearly 5000 cubic feet of air per minute. The fourth cylinder D is used only to regulate the pressure, as will be explained below.

The manner of communicating motion to the piston rods will be seen in the plate, this motion being so contrived that while one piston rod is at its highest point, another is half way down, or up, and the other quite down. A large iron wind chest, twenty-two feet five inches in length, is placed on proper stone supports or pillars in the cellar below, and upon this are fixed the four cylinders A, B, C, D, the latter being open to the chest at its bottom, but the others are closed. From this chest, under the cylinder, C, proceeds the main eduction pipe, shown in the elevations fig. 3, and 4, and from this, branch pipes proceed to the several forges, each pipe near the forge being furnished with a cock, so that the blast may be turned off or on at pleasure.

In fig. 3, above referred to, will be seen a short cylinder behind the eduction pipe, in which is a valve shown more particularly in fig. 2, where the section is made to pass through the axis both of the valve cylinder and blowing cylinder; the former elevation being at right angles to the principal axis of the machine, and that in fig. 4, parallel to the same, neither of which therefore embrace the valve cylinder, which is placed somewhat on one side.

On the principal axis fig. 1, are seen three eccentric wheels, furnished with iron straps, fig. 3, which are connected with the lever under the wind chest, seen in fig. 3, at E: and these wheels are so arranged, in respect to the corresponding crank, that when the piston of any cylinder is either above or below, the lever, fig. 3, is horizontal, and the valve o then exactly closes the hole A, fig. 2. When the piston in this figure begins to ascend; the end, E, of the lever, fig. 3, continues to ascend also, and the other end, F, descends, and being connected with the valve rod at G, fig. 2, this also descends and thereby opens a communication between the interior of the cylinder and the atmosphere, which former thus receives a fresh supply of air. This valve continues to descend till the piston is half way up; it then begins to ascend till the piston is at its highest point, when the valve has again exactly the position shown in the figure. The piston now descends, but the valve rod still continues to ascend, and thereby opens a communication between the cylinder and wind chest, into which latter the air is forced by the action of the piston. When this latter is half way down, the valve rod has reached its highest point, and then continues to descend with the piston till the latter is down, when the hole A is again covered with the valve, and the whole is situated as at first to have the process again repeated as above described. By these means the cylinders are successively opened to the atmosphere, and then to the wind chest, and a constant influx of air is produced. To preserve a steady action in the valve rods, they are made to pass through guards level with the floor, as shown in fig. 1, and 2. The cylinder, D, has no bottom, being open to the wind

BEL-
L O W S .

BEL-
LOWS.
—
BELLV.

chest, and its piston, which weighs 700lbs. serves only to regulate the pressure, which amounts to about 4lb. per square inch. When the pressure exceeds this the piston rises and opens a safety valve connected with this cylinder at the back, not seen in our drawing, but the operation of which will be easily conceived.

The form of the bottom of the cylinder, shown in fig. 2, is peculiar only to that particular section, the other part of the bottom is perfectly flat, its purpose is obviously to furnish a communication with the valve cylinder.

The theory of these machines has been already explained in our treatise of *Pneumatics*; and for the description of several other forms of Bellows and blowing engines, the reader may consult Dr. Gregory's *Mechanics*, and vol. xxxviii. of *The Transactions of the Society of Arts*.

BELLUCE, in Zoology, the name of Linnaeus's sixth order of animals.

BELLUNE. Lat. *Bellua*, a beast; *bellinus*, bestial. *Bellus* perhaps from *bellum*; because they carry on war among themselves as well as against mankind.

We make it plainly to appear, that the *Atheists* artificial and factitious justice, is nothing but will and words: and that they give to civil sovereigns no right nor authority at all, but only *belline* liberty, and brutish force. *Cutworth, Irish System, Pref. xx.*

BELLUNESE, a mountainous district in Lombardy, about twenty-eight or thirty miles long, and twenty broad, bordering upon the Tyrol, Friuli, Feltre, and Carnegiano. It produces some wine, and all kinds of fruit, and is rich in pasture and cattle. It also contains many excellent forests, from which the inhabitants obtain large quantities of timber, which is principally floated down the Piave to the Lagoon of Venice. The mountains also yield iron, lead, copper, and vitriol. The *Bellunese* contains a number of towns and villages, with nearly 50,000 inhabitants. It formerly belonged to the republic of Venice, but was transferred to Austria by the treaty of Campo Formio, and is now included in the dominions of that empire. Its name appears to have been derived from the principal town.

BELLUNO, the capital of the preceding district, stands on a hill between the Ardo and the Piave, including the suburbs, the population is estimated at between seven and eight thousand individuals. The city contains a number of churches and cloisters, some of which are good buildings; and there is also a large aqueduct, by which water is conveyed across a wide valley to the town. Belluno is governed by a council, all the members of which have the rank of Noblesse. When the influence of the French was predominant in Italy, Buonaparte conferred the title of Duke of Belluno on his Marshal Victor, with an annual revenue of about £2500. Belluno is forty miles north of Venice, and nearly fifty east of Treviso. Latitude 46° 10' N. and longitude 12° 7' E.

BELLY, *v.*

BE'LLY, *n.*

BE'LLYACHE,

BE'LLYCHER,

BE'LLYFUL,

BE'LLYFAR,

BE'LLYBLAVE,

BE'LLYOOD,

BE'LLYFINCHER,

BE'LLY-TIMBER.

Gotb. *belge*; A. S. *belg*, *belig*; Ger. and Dutch, *belg*; Lat. *belga*. Vide *belgicus* in *Junius Gloss*. Gotb. and *belgus* in *Vossius*. To belly out, is to swell out, to be or make tumid; to puff out, to inflate, to stretch, to distend.

Biddens & beggers, faste aboute goden

Tyl hare lugge & hare helg, were niet ful ghemeynt.
Floris Plinckman, Fictio, p. 3.

A grete belged monke with a searlet face, whose panche is well padded and stuffed up to the throte with all manner of delicacies.
Bala. Apology.

What was excessive riotous banqueting, potte-companynng, and *belghe-voyage* more contrariety used, and the pore satagrichous leuse refreshed, than now?

Udall. Prologue to Epa.

When thou comest into thy neighbours vineyard, y^e must eate grapes thy *belgal* at thine owne pleasure: but thou shalt put nose in thy bagge.
Bible, 1551. Deut. c. xxi.

Yet take they fahely upon them the honor of an apostles name, and make as though they were hyed into the vineyard of the lowde, and that they are hys workmen, when they hynder hys businesse, and under the pretence of the Gospel weeke theyr *belg*.
Udall. 2 Corin. c. xi.

This night, wherein the childrend hour would coach,

The lion and the *belg* punched with self,

Keep their far day, unlooked he rear,

And bids what will take all.
Shakespeare. Lear, act. iii. sc. 1.

Rise *belly-gods*, whose food is Sathan's hate,

The lord in wrath shall cut away your meate,

And for your looney, furnish you with gall.
Sitting. Dismal-day, 2nd hour.

O race of Casperians, senseless of divine doctrine, and capable only of leaven and *belly-cheer*!

Milton. Animadversions upon the Rev. Defence.

What will be due to these beastly *belly-slaves*, which, void of all godliness or virtuous behaviour, not once, but continually day and night, give themselves wholly to drinking, and banqueting?

Heming against Glutinous and Drunkenness.

————— A friendly wind.

Circs the fair, of human race direct,

Propitious sent y^e to ply the struggling ear

Small need remain'd, the fresh'ning gale suffic'd

Each *bellying* canvas.
Festus. Hec. Ody. book ii.

And though knights-errant, as some think,

Of old did neither eat nor drink,

Because when through deserts vast,

And regions desolate, they past,

Where *belly-timber* shore ground,

The maker, was not to be found,

Unless they gr'd, there's no one word

Of their provision on record.
Builer. His library, part l. c. 1.

With pride like this the emulating mob

Strive for the mastery—who first may fill

The *bellying* bin, and clearest call the hops.
Swair. The Hops Garden, book ii.

Such, who like true churchwardens eat,

Because the parish pays the treat,

And of their *bellyful* boast,

O'ersee, or over-look the treat.
Lloyd. Charity. A Fragment.

BELOCK, be and lock. A. S. *be-lucan*; Dutch, *be-lucken*. To shut, to close, to shut up, to block up.

V. BLOCK.

And under that that maiden lowe

A tombe rises for the bones

Of marble and eke of Jasper stones,

Wherin that *belg* was beloken.
Gower. Conf. dan. book iv. fol. 83.

And after of his owne choyse

He took his death upon the crosse,

And hysse in grasse he was beloken,

And howe that he hath belle broke,

And took him out, that were byn loken.
Id. B. book ii. fol. 46.

BELLY.
—
BELOCK.

BELOCK. *Mar.* My husband bids me, now I will ramake.
 This is that face, then cruel Angelo
 Which once thou sweetest, was with the looking on;
 This is the hand, which with a row'd contract
 Was fast belock'd in thine.
Shakespeare. Measure for Measure, fol. 81.

BELONG.

BELOMANCY. *Gr. βολοι* an arrow or dart; and *μαντις*, divination.

Belomancy, or divination by arrows hath been in request with Scythians, Arabs, Germans, with the Africans and Turks of Algier.
Brown. Vulgar Errors, book v. p. 336.

The practice of **BELOMANCY** existed among the Greeks, and was used by the Arabians. St. Jerome, in his *Commentary on Ezekiel*, says they wrote the names of several cities they intended to assault, on several arrows, and putting them all into a quiver promiscuously, drew them out as lots are drawn, and that city the name of which was written on the arrow first drawn, was the city upon which war was first made. This method of divination was practised by the Arabs although forbidden by the Koran. Seven divining arrows were kept at the temple of Mecca, three of which only were commonly used. On one was written, "my lord hath commended me," on the other, "my lord hath forbidden me," and the third was blank. If the first was drawn they looked upon it as an approbation of the enterprise in question; if the second, it was a dissuasive; and if the third was taken, they again mingled the arrows, and drew till a decisive answer was obtained. A third mode was to cast a certain number of arrows into the air, and the inquirer was to steer his course in that direction to which the arrow inclined in its descent.

BELONG, } *Be and long*—To lengthen, to
Belongings, } stretch out, to extend, to reach, to
 attain to. *A. S. længian; Ger. langen, be-langen, pro-*
longare, pervenire, attingere; Dutch, *langhen*.
 To reach, to attain, to pertain, to appertain; to be
 in, or become within, the reach, the grasp; into the
 power, or possession; to be or become the property
 of.

Muse not to miche per on qm Faith, til low more knowe
 Ar looke you leve hit lovelly. at þy liff tyme
 That þre by lang; to on lord.

Piers Plowman. Vision, p. 315.

Thus hath this robber, and this homicide,
 That many a man made to wepe and pleyne,
 Swiche gwarden, as belongeth unto pride.
Chaucer. The Monk's Tale, p. 14346.

Vertuous, vne, gentil and liberal,
 In feates of war, excelling vnder all,
 With every beaute belongeth one gentil knight.
G. Douglas. Preface to Eneidos, book I.

As yf a lodge would were me generally in a courte to make
 three answers to shee thynges as shoulde be asked of me, and
 after mine othe given, he would ask me certayne questions of
 matters nothing belongeth to him.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 218.

The meeter for his purpose seemed Tymotheus, a man bothe
 of more experience and acutly then the other, and also better
 furnished with the souldiers that belongeth sometime to king
 Cyrus.

Geoffrey, Justice, fol. 34.

There is a kinde of character in thy life,
 That to th' observer, doth thy history
 Fully unfold: thy selfe, and thy belongings
 Are not thine owne as proper, as to waste
 Thy selfe upon thy vertues; they on thee.
Shakespeare. Measure for Measure, fol. 61.

These I cannot like better than to the Borders between two
 countries, who live in the marches and confines of two powerful
 kingdoms, both which have a great influence upon them, so that
 it is hard to say whose subjects they are, and in which Prince they
 belong.
Tillotson. Sermon xv.

The Roman law allowed, that if one man wrote any thing, on
 the paper or parchment of another, the writing should belong to
 the owner of the blank material.

Blackstone. Commentaries, book iv. 406.

BELOSTOMA, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects of the
 order *Hemiptera*, family *Hydrocorae*. Generic character:
 fore feet terminated by a single hook; antennae scin-
 ticipinnate.

There is no European species of this genus; it is
 nearly allied to *Nepes*.

BELÓVED, *be and loved. A. S. lofan; Ger. lieben; Dutch, lieven; Italian, amare, favore, favore.* To love, to
 favour, to cherish, to make much of.

Thus in delit he liveth, and hath den yore,
 Belov'd and drad, through favour of fortune.

Both of his lordes, and of his countesse.

Chaucer. The Clerk's Tale, v. 7244.

And neither by daies olde,
 Whan that the hokkes were leger,
 Wrying was belov'd ever
 Of them, that, were verities.

Gower. Conf. Am. Prologue, fol. 1.

We are more sottish than the Trojans, if we retain our Helena,
 any one belov'd best, a painted devil, any great temptation, with
 (not his hazard, but) the certainty of having such horrid miseries,
 such invaluable losses.

Taylor. Sermon xii. li. 108.

Dare then, thou much belov'd by smiling fate,
 For Anna's sake, and to his best name be great;
 Go forth, and be to distant nations known
 My future favourite, and my darling son.

Prior. A Letter to M. B. Despreux.

Were kinship as true treasure as it seems,
 Sterling, and worthy of a wise man's wish,
 I would not be a king to be belov'd
 Causeless, and doubt'd with undeciphering pride.

Coopers. The Task, book v.

BELOW, } *Be and low. Low* (in Dutch, *laag*), is
Below, } the past participle of the *A. S. verb*
lægan, jacere, cubare. Tooke, ii. 344. Low is loved,
low'd, low't. To belov'd; to treat as a low't.

For who can brook, to see a painted crew
 Singing aloft, when turtles mourn below.

Geoffrey. A Romance, book iv.

Again there is not that so ill
 As to see the lauge of Phobus light,
 But one may better if he will
 Apply his wit to make it right.

Turberville. All things as they are used.

For as he is not moderate nor tolerable, who calleth the upper
 superficies only and cope of the heavens, *low*, that is to say, aloft, or
 superior; and all the rest, *adna*, that is to say, beneath; so be
 who termeth the earth, or rather the centre of it only *adna*, that is
 to say, below or inferior, is not to be excused.

Holland. Pintard, § 50.

Sieur Guillard, who when he heard a gentleman report that he
 was at a supper, where they had not only good company and good
 cheer, but also many epigrammes, and fine anagrammes; he
 returning home, raised and belov'd his cocke as an ignorant scul-
 lion that never dream'd or serv'd up to him, either epigrammes or
 anagrammes.

Caendr. Remise, 176.

All expressions, did I say I yes, and conceptions too: for his
 nature is so pure, his goodness so great, his knowledge so trans-
 cendent, his power so boundless, his wisdom, justice, and mercy
 so mysterious, his glory incomprehensible, and all his perfections
 so high, so infinitely high, that our highest conceptions of him are
 still infinitely below him.

Beveridge. Sermon xiii.

BELOW.
—
BELU-
JISTAN.

All truth is from the scriptural source
Of light divine. But Egypt, Greece, and Rome,
Drew from the stream below. More favour'd, we
Drink, when we choose it, at the fountain head.
Cowper. *The Task*, book ii.

BELPAIR or **BELPER**, anciently *Bell poire*, a village in Derbyshire, on the banks of the Derwent, remarkable for its extensive cotton manufactories. Of two water wheels which work the machinery in the largest manufactory, one is forty feet long and eighteen in diameter, the other forty-eight feet long and twelve in diameter. Population, in 1821, 7435. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 8s. 10d. £1685. Or. 75d. eight miles N.E. from Derby.

BELSWAGGER, perhaps, no more than a fine, a brave, swaggerer, a braggart, a bully.

Let Minn be angry at their *S. bel swagger*, and we pass in the heat on't and be beaten, beaten abominably.

Brannum and Fletcher. *Wit and Manners*, act iii. sc. i.

Gow. Indeed you are a charitable *bel-swagger*: my wife cry'd out fire, fire; and you brought out your church-buckets, and called for engines to play against it.

Dryden. *The Spanish Fryer*, act v.

BELT, *v.* } A. S. *belt*; Ger. and Sw. *belt*; It. and
BELT, *n.* } Sp. *balteo*; Lat. *balteus*. *Balteus*, quod
cingulum e corio habebant latissimum, balteum dictum.
Varro.

To gird; to surround, to enclose.

By his belt he bore a long parade,
And of a sword his treachery was the blade.

Chaucer. *The Reece Tale*, v. 3927.

That goodly belt was Cestus light by name,
And so her life by her extended desire.
No wonder then, if that to winne the same
So many ladies sought, as shall appere;
For, percellence she was thought, that did it beare.

Spenser. *Fairy Queen*, book iv. c. v.

These rumpers seem intended to have had some effect even on the eye. Being dug out of a bed of chalk, and selling the belts far and wide with white, more especially if we suppose some assistance from an artificial facing, they must have been visible at a vast distance.

Warren. *History of Kidlington*, p. 67.

On an enormous shield, which is belted to his body, is a rude figure of a lion passant guardant, and crowned. He is supposed to be one of the Gilbert de Gants, the earliest owners.

Pennant. *Journey from Chester*.

What need of these

For paces, jockeys, horseholders inspire,
Spendthrifts, and booted sportsmen, off'st seen,
With belted waist and pointers at their heels
Thus in the bounds of duty?

Cowper. *The Task*, book ii.

BELT, GREAT and LITTLE, the names of two straits which form the Baltic and the Cattegat. The

former separates the islands of Zealand and Funen, and is about fifteen miles in width, where it is crossed from Nyborg in Funen to Corsør in Zealand. The greatest breadth of the strait is twenty miles. Its shores are mostly low, but they afford some convenient harbours and good anchorage; but the navigation is rendered dangerous by the number of small islands and sand banks by which the channel is impeded. The small island of Sprogø lies nearly in the middle of the general passage from Funen to Zealand. Vessels sailing through this strait, pay a tribute at Nyborg, where a guard ship is stationed to enforce a compliance with this regulation. The Little Belt is situated between the island of Funen and the coast of Jutland, and the narrowest part of the strait is not more than a mile in width. At this place stands the fortress of Fredericia, where the tolls are levied on the vessels that pass through this channel. The breadth of the strait expands both ways from this point, till it reaches the width of seven or eight miles. The principal route from Jutland to Copenhagen, passes through Fredericia, and, though circuitous, is generally preferred to any of the others. Ships seldom pass the Little Belt, unless compelled by peculiar circumstances; and the Sound which opens between Zealand and the Swedish coast, is preferred for all large vessels.

BELTEIN or **BAL-TEIN**, which in Gaelic signifies *Bael* or *Bel's fire*, a custom still existing in the Highlands of Scotland, and probably at its first institution meant to celebrate a festival, in honour of the sun's return, at Mayday. The herdsmen and young people assemble in every village, cut a square trench in the ground, leaving a turf in the middle, and on this they dress a large cauld of eggs, butter, oatmeal and milk; every person present contributes something, and after dedicating a certain portion to the supposed preservers of their flocks, or to some animal whom they seek to propitiate, as the destroyer, they dine on the remainder. A full account of the custom will be found in Pennant's *Tour in Scotland*, and Sir John Sinclair's *Statistical Account*, Ed. 1794.

BELTUBBET, a town of Ireland, in the county of Cavan, about eight miles from that provincial capital, and sixty from Dublin. This town sent two members to the Irish Parliament before the Union. It has a weekly market, in which all articles offered for sale, pay toll in kind. These consist principally of oatmeal, potatoes, and yarn. Brewing and distilling are carried on in the town. Belturbet stands on the river Erne, and appears to have once been a military station, as some ancient fortifications are still visible in the church-yard.

BELT.
—
BELU-
JISTAN.

BELUJISTAN.

Divisions

BELUJISTAN or **BELEUCHISTAN**, a country of considerable extent within the confines of India and Persia, and formerly subject to the latter. It lies between 24° and 30° of N. lat. and 58° and 67° E. long. is extremely mountainous, peopled by warlike, semi-barbarous tribes, and was scarcely known by report to Europeans, till explored by Mr. Pottinger, and some other enterprising officers in the East India Company's service, in 1809 and 1810. Nādir Shāh granted the whole of

this territory to Nāfir Khān, one of his favourites, in 1739, but since that period, internal commotions have produced changes in the government. When Lieutenant Pottinger visited it, this country was divided into

1. The Provinces of Jhālāwān and Sārāwān, and districts of Kelat.
2. Macraia and Les.
3. Kohistan, i. e. the mountainous region west of the Desert.

BELUJISTAN.

Mountains.

4. The Desert.

5. Cach Gandáhvah and the district of Herrend Dájel.

6. The Province of Sind h.

The whole country is uninterruptedly mountainous. The principal range, called Bráhúic by Lieut. Pottinger, from its inhabitants, the Bráhúis, rises abruptly to a considerable height out of the sea at Cape Mowári, (the Monse of the maps) in N. lat. 25° and E. long. 66° 35'. It runs first in a north-easterly, then in a northerly direction, and finally, after having resumed its original course, sinks into underric hills and unites with the lowest ridges of the chain traversing Afghanistan. It anciently formed the boundary between Persia and India. Near the Indian Ocean this chain is not more than thirty miles in breadth; but at a distance of about thirty miles from the coast, the mountains break into a variety of branches, and stretch over the whole country to the west and north, finally uniting with the Persian ranges, and either ending abruptly in the sea, or gradually subsiding into the sandy belt which, through a considerable part of the coast, separates the cultivable region from the ocean. The general inclination of the loftiest ridges is from north-east to south-west; and it is probable that the Bráhúic range is only a prolongation of the Hindh Cush, the Emodus of the ancients, whence the Hezaráh range, or Paropamisus, extending as far as the Caspian, has its origin. With this latter chain, the western extremity of the Bráhúic mountains, which extends northward far beyond the main body of these highlands, is probably united. This branch is the boundary between Seistán and Kirmán, and at present is the eastern boundary of the Persian empire. Another considerable branch of this range extends from their south-western angle, and running nearly parallel with the main body in that direction, forms at last a junction with the mountains of Lárístán in Persia, and sends out many collateral ramifications terminating in headlands on the coast of Mácrán. To the west of that province, the mountains reced as it were on the principal body, and form a very intricate mass, called by the natives Kohistán or the highlands. The breadth of the loftiest ridge, at its greatest expansion in N. lat. 28° is nearly 300 miles; and measured diagonally, its greatest length is more than 290 miles. The town of Kelát is placed, according to the natives, on the highest level of this chain; and all Mr. Pottinger's observations tended to confirm that opinion. The great height of the defiles leading down to the northern desert, and the severity of the winter at this place, which is very little beyond 45° north lat. prove its extraordinary elevation, which has been conjectured to exceed, by one eighth, the highest peaks in the Pyrenees.

Rivers.

It is remarkable that this, though so mountainous a region, is peculiarly desitute of water. It has not one navigable river; nothing but mere brooks and mountain torrents on the northern side of the hills, and only one stream which is not, at times, dried up. That river is known by different names in different parts of its course; being called Budúr, Muldání, B'hagwár and Dest or Desli in the interval between the parallel of 29° and the ocean, through which its course has been partially traced. Even this stream, the largest in the country, and anciently, in all probability, much more considerable than at present, has not a depth of above twenty inches within a hundred yards of the beach. But, at a greater distance from the shore, its

depth and magnitude increase. Its source is said to be in the district of Garmául, near the banks of the Hel-mind (or Hindmend.) In the district of Fenj-gúr, it has a copious and perpetual stream.

BELUJISTAN.

The seasons are very different in different parts of this country. In the mountainous provinces they resemble those of the southern and middle parts of Europe. The desert and maritime provinces, on the contrary, have a climate closely approaching to that of the tropics, and properly speaking, have only three changes of seasons; i. e. the hot, the cold, and the rainy period. In J'hídáwán and Séráwán, the spring commences towards the end of February; the summer at the beginning of May, the autumn continues through August and September, and is generally followed by a severe winter. But in the barren and level sands of Mácrán, though there are four changes, there are in reality only three different seasons, rains, heat, and cold. The first occurs in February and March, and again in June or July; the latter, being occasioned by the south-west monsoon; the second, or hot season, lasts from March till October, including therefore the second rains; and the third, or cold season, lasts from November till February, but is extremely mild, when compared with the winter of the upper provinces. In Mácrán, the heat and drought are such as to render the country scarcely habitable at any distance from the coast; while the mountainous province of Kohistán has a climate between the two extremes already described, and Cach Gandáhvah, which is oppressed with excessive heat in summer, can scarcely be said to have any winter at all.

In this mountainous country, filled probably with Soil and primitive rocks, and encircled by a vast belt of sand, the soil in general is barren; but in the upper provinces, rich crops of wheat and barley are gathered from fields where scarcely any thing but pebbles are to be seen. The lowlands of Cach Gandáhvah, formed by the alluvions of the Indus, are proverbially fertile; and, ill cultivated as they are, produce large quantities of grain, cotton, indigo and oil for exportation. Minerals abound in a country thus rocky; and besides the precious metals, lead, iron, copper, tin, and antimony have been discovered in the mountainous districts, as well as sulphur, alum, sal-ammoniac and salt-petre. Rock-salt, nitre in its native state, and many medicinal minerals are also found in great quantities.

Nasir Khán, while sovereign of this country, had Fruit. the good sense to encourage in his subjects a love of agriculture and gardening. Various fruits were introduced from Cálul by his orders, and almost all the productions of temperate, with some of tropical climates, are now to be procured, at moderate prices, in the markets of Kelát. Besides our common grain and rice, they have Bájlri (*Holcus spicatus*), Jowári (*Holcus Sorghum*), Múng (*Phaseolus Mung*), Mays, Dál, Úrad and Matar (leguminous vegetables), Chamá (*Cicer Aritinum*), and Tí (*Sesamum*). Esculent vegetables are produced in abundance. Mulder, cotton and indigo, the latter of a quality superior to that of Bengal, are much cultivated to the north and east of Kelát. The wheat is sown in August, and is reaped in the following June: barley comes to its full growth in about eight months, from September to May. Mulder requires three years to bring it to perfection. Unshupri or camel-grass, a large species of clover, (perhaps lucern,) produces two crops in a month, and lasts for six or

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seven years. In the more productive parts of the southern provinces, Macrán and Les, each of the two rainy seasons produces a separate crop of grain; and the palms give a large quantity of dates. The impregnation of the female blossoms is carefully attended to. The varieties, as must necessarily be the case in a tree so much cultivated, are almost innumerable; yet they are accurately observed and noted by those who are careful in the management of their palm plantations. Among the timber-trees of Belúchistán, we may reckon the *Apúr*, a species of *Záxyphus*, somewhat resembling the jujube and the tamarind. The wood of the former has much the appearance of teak, and both are remarkably hard and durable. The *Bábul* (*Mimosa Farnesiana*), *Laí* (*Tamarix*) Mulberry, Nim (*Melia Azad dirachta*), *I'pál* (*Ficus Religiosa*), *Sisá* (*Dalbergia Sissoo*), *Chínár* (*Oriental Plane*) Mango, Walnut, and Sycamore are also found in different provinces of this country; but the common European forest trees are wanting.

Animals.

Almost all the animals found in hot and temperate climates, are to be met with in different parts of this country; but of our domestic fowls, it has neither ducks, geese, nor turkeys; and the magpie, a bird unknown in India and perhaps Persia, is not uncommon about Kelát. Flamingoes and Floricans (*Otis Houbara*) are among the rarer birds met with in the lower districts. Poisonous reptiles and insects are not so common as in India; but fresh water fish must be exceedingly scarce in a country so destitute of rivers. Of domestic animals, their horses are large and strong, but exceedingly vicious; their sheep are chiefly of the broad-tailed race, called *dashak* in Persia. Camels and dromedaries are the beasts of burthen most highly prized by the Belúches. The latter, which has only one hump on its back, is remarkable for its strength, swiftness, and power of abstinence. The best are those bred in the highland districts, which are heavy, very black and rough. The natives are extremely attentive to the breed of their dogs, and shepherd's dogs and greyhounds are the species they value most. Wild, and very fierce dogs are found in the unfrequented parts of the woods.

Inhabitants.

The upper and inhospitable regions of J'hálwán and Séráwán were first peopled, as Mr. Pottinger conjectures with much probability, by the unhappy Hindús, who retired into those fastnesses before the victorious armies of Mahmúd Subutgaia, and his son Mashúd, in the early part of the eighth century. The present occupiers of this territory may be divided into four distinct classes; 1. the Belúches; 2. the Belúhís; 3. the Delwáns, and 4. the Hindús. The two first form the majority of the inhabitants, and are evidently distinct races, speaking different languages. The Belúchí, or Belúch, is evidently a corrupt dialect of Persian, approaching perhaps to that of the Kurds on the western side of Persia, while the Bráshúki or Bráshí bears the same relation to the Hindúwí spoken in the Penj-áb. This alone is sufficient to point out the origin of these two races. Mr. Pottinger thinks it probable, that the Belúches are the descendants of the Turcomán soldiers who served in the armies of the Seljúk dynasties, and were dispersed when those dynasties were overturned. But the Lord's Prayer, in their language, published by the Anabaptist Missionaries at Serampore, does not give any indication of its having been derived from a Tatarian dialect. On this supposition, the first establishment of the Belúches in

1. Belúches or Balújas.

the mountainous regions on the eastern side of Persia, must be referred to the fifth century of the Hijrah, i. e. the eleventh of our era, a period at which they begin to be named by the Asiatic historians. They are found in the greatest numbers in the northern and western provinces; arived into three leading tribes, the Nharús, Rinds, and Maghásá; the former on the western side of Belúchistán, the latter on the lowlands of Cash Gandávah, at the eastern foot of the mountains. These tribes are again subdivided. They are a tall, handsome, but not athletic people, patient of hardships, and fearless of death; delighting in predatory excursions, which are called *chapáds*, and which strongly resemble the forays of our northern borderers in the sixteenth century, but are attended by much greater atrocities. In these excursions they are usually mounted on dromedaries; and are provided with a few dates, some bread and sour cheese, and water, if necessary. They march, without halting, to the neighbourhood of the place they mean to attack, conceal themselves in a wood or unfrequented place, till night, and, as soon as they suppose the inhabitants to be in a sound sleep, hasten forwards, burning, destroying, and carrying off whatever comes in their way. Such habits are not favourable to peace, and this tribe is in fact in a constant state of warfare. Hospitality, the favourite virtue of savages, is universal in Belúchistán; and the natives are as free from any disposition to pilfer, as they are ready to boast of their feats in predatory expeditions. Their obedience to their chiefs seems entirely voluntary; and their domestic habits are almost all pastoral. They usually reside in ghedáns or tents made of black felt, or coarse blanket, stretched over a frame of wicker-work, formed of twigs of the *gez* or *tamarisk*. An assemblage of these tents forms a *túman* or village, and its inhabitants, a *kbeil* or family. The men, when not engaged in war, have all the idleness of savages; but, except in the use of opium, they are not addicted to intoxication. They do not commonly indulge in the plurality of wives which their religion allows; and they are respectful to their women, and less jealous of their being seen than is usual among Mussulmans. Their slaves, one of the fruits of their plundering excursions, are remarkably well treated. A long shirt and trousers of blue or white calico, and a quilted cap, round which a shawl is twisted when they are in full dress, constitute all their clothing. In winter, thick warm saris are requisite for all classes. The women, when young, tress their hair and twist it round their head, forming all the ends into a knot on the crown, so as to give it the appearance of a cap. When out of doors they are completely veiled. Their dress, in other respects, nearly resembles that of the men, but exposes the bosom as much as the tunic of the Persian women. Their soldiers have most clumsy ponderous accoutrements, but are excellent marksmen: to kill a lark or sparrow with a single ball, at a distance of fifty or sixty yards, is not esteemed by them as any proof of dexterity; and the *názah-bári*, or spear-play, their most favourite diversion, demands no small muscular strength and skill, even in its ancient form. It consists in the rider's piercing with the point of his spear, while his horse is at full speed, a wooden stake driven into the ground, and requires the most critical management of both the horse and spear at the same instant.

Their regard for the sanctity of marriage is exemplary, and it is remarkable that many of their customs

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seem borrowed from the law of Moses. Thus the widow must be married by her husband's next brother; adultery is punished by the death of both parties; proof of incontinence before marriage will authorize a divorce; and a betrothed virgin is considered as possessing openly the same rights as a married woman; the suag, or promise of marriage, once made is inviolable. The striking similarity between the manners of this people and those of the Kurds and wandering Turcomans, or Yarak, as the Turks call them, who are found in every part of Anatolia, give an air of great probability to the conjecture as to their origin mentioned above.

2. Bra-
hucias.

2. The Brâhûis, or second distinct tribe inhabiting this country, differ from the Belûches principally in the following particulars: they are more unsettled, always changing their abode at the change of seasons, or in quest of pasturage for their cattle. They excel the others in strength and hardiness, and differ from them exceedingly in make and features, being short and thick set, with round, flat, faces; while the Belûches are tall and raw-boned, with long visages, with high cheek-bones, and many of them have brown hair, a remarkable peculiarity in a country so near the tropic. They are laborious, and till large tracts of land in the plains, but have little inclination for commerce; they have extremely voracious appetites; prefer animal to vegetable food, and devour it almost raw. They cure meat by drying it in the sun, and afterwards smoking it. Thus prepared it will keep for several months, and tastes much like rein-deer's tongue. They are as faithful, but less ferocious than their neighbours; and, perhaps for that reason, are ruled by their chiefs with a more despotic sway. They are unenough in their manners from want of civilisation; but disinterested, humane, and placable, and in that respect the very reverse of the Belûches, who are avaricious, revengeful, and cruel. They are better marksmen than the latter; and, what is very singular, never increase the quantity of their clothing in the severest weather; except that the shepherds occasionally wear a covering of white felt. Their women sometimes, though rarely, assist in out-door work, and are not secluded from the society of the men. They wear a kind of stays which lace behind, and give them something like the appearance of the peasants in Switzerland. Both these tribes are strict observers of the Sunnah, or traditional law of the Mussulmans, and in that point approach nearer to the Turks than the Persians.

3. Deh-
wâra.

3. The Dehwârs or Dehkâns, i. e. villagers, are exclusively employed in agriculture, and hold their lands by a sort of feudal tenure; being bound to provide the Khân's guests with water, fuel, and provender; to supply him with couriers who required, and to attend him on his hunting excursions; but they are not liable to any military service. They are quiet and harmless; and tacitly acknowledge the superiority of the other tribes. They never migrate, and differ much in appearance from the other natives, being low in stature, without any pretensions to comeliness, and having coarse features with high cheek-bones; but an artless, honest, good-humoured expression of countenance makes up for their want of beauty. It is remarkable that their common language is pure Persian; this, together with some other considerations, led Mr. Pottinger to conjecture that they have sprung from the Gêhrs, or followers of Zoroaster, who fled before the

victorious arms of the Mussulmans; but their zealous observance of the Sunnah, as well as their dispersion through other parts of Asia, (for the Tâjiks of Afghanistan are evidently the same race), militates against that supposition.

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4. The Hindûs, who were probably the first settlers in these mountains, are still tolerated by their Mussulman conquerors, who, according to the tradition of the country, were first admitted into their impregnable retreats as traders and husbandmen; and at length subverted the government by which they had been indulged with too much lenience. The Hindûs, however, at present residing in Belûchistan, are not indigenous, but are merchants from Multân, who only resided among the mountaineers for a few years, though they are respected by the government, and not disturbed in the profession of their religion, having a temple where idolatrous worship is publicly performed by several Brâhmins. This is a singular instance of tolerance in a Mussulman country; and these Hindûs themselves, as if forgetting the laws of the Shîster, when removed beyond their Holy land, make no scruple to eat animal food, use leathern bags, and do a variety of other acts in direct contradiction to their acknowledged tenets.

1. Of the provinces before enumerated, J'hidîwân and Sârawân, with the intermediate district called Kelât, are the furthest to the north and north-east. They are bounded by that part of the Brâhûic mountains, which is beyond the 35th degree of north latitude. The most southerly is J'hidîwân, which contains six chacs or districts, each governed by a different chief. Its largest town Zehri, contains more than 9000 houses, surrounded by a mud wall. In the whole province there is not a single stream which has more than ten inches depth of water in the dry season; but by digging in the beds of the torrents, water is easily found. The district of Kelât properly belongs to Kelât. Sârawân; but, in consequence of some usurpations on the part of the Khân, it has become nearly a distinct province. To the north of it, bounded by the Afghân hills, and the desert on the eastern side of Kandahâr, lies Sârawân, divided into several districts, but entirely occupied by migratory tribes of the Brâhûis. Rugged as the surface of the whole is, the latter is the most uneven of the three, possessing not a single level space more than a few miles in circumference, except a remarkable gap in the northern front of the great chain, forming a naked plain of about thirty miles in extent, which is called the Deshti-bé-daulat or Pennyless Desert. The southern province is the most fertile of the two, having frequent rains, but it is the least populous. Kelât is the capital of both, and may be considered on the whole as the metropolis of Belûchistan.

1. J'hidî-
wân and
Sârawân.

Sârawân.

2. Les and Macrân, which form the second division of this country, are comprehended between the higher ridges of the Brâhûic chain and the Indian Ocean, and are more or less intersected by such branches of those hills as diverge towards the sea. On the north, besides the first division of Belûchistan already described, they have the Desert and Kohistan; on the west the Persian province of Lâristân. The whole of this country, indeed, once formed a part of the Persian empire. Les, Les or Lesh, which signifies in the Jêdjalî language a *Lush* valley or plain, is deserving of its name, having a surface perfectly level for about ninety miles by fifty,

2. Les and
Macrân.

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enclosed on three sides by lofty mountains, passable by only five lekhs or defiles; two in the eastern and western, and one in the northern branch of the great chain. Two small rivers, Purálí and Hább, water this province; the former is the Arábis of the ancients, and is navigable for about twenty miles; the other is less considerable. The soils are fertile; the revenue estimated at 50,000 rupees per annum (£6,500); and the sovereignty held on a feudal tenure under the Khán of Kelát. The capital of Les is Belá, placed on a considerable eminence and a rocky site, on the northern bank of the Purálí, partly surrounded by a mud wall, and containing about 300 houses. Many of the inhabitants are merchants from Muttán and Shicár-púr, on the western bank of the Indus, who enjoy great immunities, and complete toleration of their idolatrous worship. The population of Les may probably amount to 25,000 souls, nearly one-third of whom are migratory families, and all of one tribe, though known by four different names; Numrí, Jedgál, Jék'hyk, and Jék'h; they are indolent and excessively curious. The men are middle-sized and athletic; the women plain and peculiarly dirty. Rice and fish form the principal part of their diet, and they are fond of intoxicating drugs. Their manners and appearance, as well as their language, called Jedgál or Jék'hgál, which has a close affinity with that of Sind'h, prove that they must have come originally from Hindústán.

Belá.

Makran.

Many of the districts of Makrá, of which there are fourteen, are nearly if not entirely uninhabited. Its extraordinary dearth of water has been already mentioned. Some of the many streams, now merely trifling brooks, were formerly navigable by boats. The Ag'hár Nudí is the first stream after passing Les; in its bed is a celebrated well called Aníkh cund or fathomless abyss, the depth of which is not known. It is supposed by the Hindus to have been dug by Kálí, the goddess whose shrine at Hinglatz (Hing-lá) just above it, is a favourite place of pilgrimage. The river Desat, mentioned before, waters the district of Kej, which receives its name from the capital of this province. That town covers three sides of the base of the hill, on the summit of which its castle, deemed impregnable, is placed. It carried on a considerable trade with Kandahár, and the north of India, but has gone to decay since its governors have thrown off their allegiance to the Khán of Kelát. The remainder of Makrá is a sandy desert, or a mass of barren mountains, with here and there a fertile valley, or an island of palms in the midst of the waste, such as are often found in the vast deserts of Africa.

3. Kohistan.

3. Kohistán, the third division of the Belúch territory, is surrounded on the east, north and west by sandy deserts, with the single exception of a very narrow range of hills which connect it, on the north-west, with the Paropamisus of the ancients. On the south it is bounded by the Brahúch chain, of which it forms one of the extremities. It abounds in mineral productions, chalybeate and salt springs, and its hills occasionally betray a volcanic origin. It is as ill provided with water as the neighbouring country, and is divided into two districts, the Múddání, or plain, and Chákí, or hilly country. Its scanty population consists entirely of Belúches. They are in a state of entire independence, obeying their chiefs more from habit and a sense of the necessity of something like order, than from any other principle, for they

do not acknowledge any fixed law or regular government. Commerce they can hardly be said to carry on at all, and their principal occupation consists in making predatory incursions on the neighbouring states.

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4. The Desert is about 300 miles long and 200 ⁴ The broad. It is traversed by the Helmand, or Hermand, Desert, which may be here considered as the boundary of Belúchistán, and is separated, on the west, only by a narrow range of hills from the deserts of Kirmán. Its utmost extent, including the latter, is nearly 600 miles, reckoning diagonally from east to west, and 500 from north to south. It is bounded on the north and east by the mountains of Afghánistán. This vast ocean of sand, for such it may well be called, is composed of particles so light, that when taken up in the hand, they are scarcely more than palpable: the whole is thrown by the winds into an irregular mass of waves, running east and west, and varying in height from ten to twenty feet; most of these banks rise perpendicularly on the leeward side, and from the redness of their component particles might easily be taken, at a distance, for brick walls. The windward side slopes off with a gradual declivity to the base of the next bank, or wave, which in its turn ascends again in a straight line in the same manner as described above. The difficulty of attempting to drive the camels up the leeward or perpendicular sides of these hills may be easily conceived. In this attempt the traveller often fails, and is obliged to take a more circuitous route: but on the shelving side, those persevering animals succeed better; and when once they reach the summit of the wave, they drop most expertly on their knees, and slide down with the sand to the bottom of the next hollow. The sand is so fine that particles of it are raised to a considerable height by the wind, and getting into the eyes, mouth, and nostrils of the traveller, cause a most painful irritation and excessive thirst. Hard black gravel, without a vestige of vegetation, succeeds these undulating sands, and bare stony hills, at the base of the mountains, are the first ascent towards higher and less barren regions.

5. Cach Gandávah, and 6. the Regency of Sind'h, though they form at present a part of Belúchistán, belong more properly to Hindústán, as they lie to the east of the Brahúch chain of mountains, the natural barrier between India and Persia. A brief account of them will therefore be included in our article on HINDUSTAN.

Nasír Khán to whom Nidír Sháh gave the Government of Belúchistán, had in effect an uncontrolled authority; but he allowed his chiefs to hold their lands on feudal tenure, and, probably without intention, laid the foundation of the present system, which is rather that of a military republic, than an absolute monarchy. Each tribe has the right of choosing its own Serdár or chief; but, when once filled, the office becomes hereditary. The power of making war or peace, determining the boundaries of property, deciding disputes between different tribes or individuals, and in short the general administration of justice is however still vested in the Khán of Kelát, son and successor of Nasír. In time of war each Serdár is required to attend with his quota of troops, and is bound to obey the orders of the Khán, even to his own detriment, but, in the latter case, he has a claim for compensation. At the laws previously in use were

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found insufficient, Nadir established a new code, which is still in force. The Korán was, as might be supposed, the standard by which he was guided: it will therefore be sufficient if we mention the improvements he made upon the law of Mohammed. In cases of murder, when the deceased is a foreigner, every one concerned in the crime is immediately executed, and no commutation is allowed. Burglaries, and robberies by night, when clearly proved, are punished with death. Adultery may be avenged by the injured husband, but he is required to produce un doubted proofs of the guilt of the parties, and he is liable to very severe punishment if he fails in that point. Minor offences are cognizable by the Serdár of the Khell or family, from whom there lies an appeal to the Serdár of the whole tribe, and ultimately to the Khán himself. No execution can take place without an order from the Khán of Kelát, except in case of the murder of a traveller on his road, when the nearest chief is authorized to enforce the penalty of the law, and to make a report subsequently. In some cases the Khán consults the heads of his own family before he decides on a momentous cause.

The army may possibly amount to 60,000 men; and the revenue is estimated at 350,000 rupees, (£43,750). In the time of Nadir Khán it was perhaps ten times as much. The duties and taxes are extremely moderate; but foreign commerce is reduced to almost nothing.

History. The mountainous tract, which forms the central and most important part of this territory, appears to have been early unknown to the ancients, and was perhaps uninhabited up to the period of the Mohammedan conquests, in the seventh and eighth centuries of our era. Alexander himself marched from Pattálá (Thattah or Tutah) on the Indus, through the territory of the Arábites, still indicated by the cape called *Arábá* by the natives, (the Arabah of the maps); from thence he advanced into the country of the Oréites in his way to Gedrosia, or Macrán, where his troops suffered from thirst, fatigue, and famine, all the accumulated miseries attending a march through such a parched and desolate region. Another part of his army passed under the command of Craterus, by a more circuitous route through Arachosia and Drangiana, the Kandahár and Selaín of modern geography; countries placed in a higher latitude, to the north of the extensive deserts which separate the Belúches

from Persia and Afghanistan. The first Mohammedan invaders followed the track of Alexander, and kept close to the coast; and the Sultáns of Ghaznah, who made themselves masters of the level country to the mouth of the Indus, and the coast as far as the borders of Persia, never ascended the hills. The Persian historians say, that the idolatrous Hindús were driven into these retreats; but the present inhabitants do not betray any affinity in feature, language, or customs, with the natives of India. The origin, assigned to them above, appears to be more probable. They themselves suppose, that they are the original natives of the hills, asserting that their name, *Bráshú*, is derived from *Barshí*, or mountains; while they call the inhabitants of the plains *N'hárús* or *Naróshis*, i. e. Lowlanders. The traditions, current on the spot, do not carry the origin of the Musulman government further than seven generations back. The *Rájah*, who appears to have borne the hereditary title of *Schwa*, resided at Kelát; and, about two centuries ago, the reigning sovereign was obliged to call in the assistance of Camber, a mountaineer, supposed to be the descendant of a celebrated pir, or saint. This leader and his followers, who came from *Pen-gúr* in *Macrán*, soon dispersed the Afghan marauders, who had invaded Belúchistán from the east; and, either dissatisfied with their scanty pay, stimulated by religious zeal, or urged on by both, they proceeded, after a few years had elapsed, to depose the *Rájah*, and convert his subjects to the true faith. *Abdu'llah Khán*, the fourth in descent from Camber, conquered a considerable part of *Cach Gandárah*, till then subject to the *Nuwráhs* of *Sind'h*. At that period *Nádir Sháh*, otherwise called *Tahmás Kuli Khán*, carried his victorious arms into India, and, while at *Kandahár*, despatched some detachments of his army into the mountains of the Belúches. *Abdu'llah* sent his two sons, as hostages, to the conqueror's camp. Their father was allowed to retain possession of his territory as a feudatory of Persia; and, after the death of *Abdu'llah*, his younger son, *Nasir Khán*, by the advice of *Nádir Sháh*, deposed and put to death his elder brother, who had succeeded their father on the gadál, or throne, but had shamefully abused his trust by the most execrable cruelty and oppression. *Nasir* showed himself worthy of the esteem in which he was held by his sovereign, and died in 1795 after a very long reign, beloved and respected by all his subjects.

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BELUR
TAGH.

BELVEDERE, a town of European Turkey, near the west coast of the Morea, occupying the site of the ancient Elis. Its name is derived from the beauty of the situation and prospect, though the town itself is but meanly built. It is the capital of the province which comprises the Messenia and Elis of antiquity, and is about sixty-five miles west of ancient Corinth, in north latitude $37^{\circ} 50'$, and east longitude $21^{\circ} 30'$.

BELUGA, in Zoology, the name of the *Delphinus Albicatus*. Within this fish is occasionally found a morbid concretion called the *BELUGA STONE*. Its usual figure is globular or oval. It is of a yellowish white colour, of a smooth polished surface, between the size of a pigeon's and a goose's egg. It is ponderous, and requires a strong blow to break it. When scraped and sprinkled on hot iron it emits a

faint urinous smell, and calcines into a light insipid greyish earth. The Asiatics of the Volga give it in doses of from ten grains to a dram, in calculous disorders; and they believe also that it facilitates the delivery of women in childbirth.

BELUR, the general appellation given to the Alpine region which divides the southern part of ancient Scythia, or Great Bucharia, from Little Bucharia. It lies in about the 37^{th} degree of north latitude, and the 71^{st} of east longitude.

BELUR TAGH, a range of mountains in central Asia, which runs nearly north and south, about the 71^{st} degree of east longitude. This term, in the Mongol language, implies "the dark or cloudy mountains." They belong to a part of the ancient *Imaus*, are perpetually covered with snow, and form a noble

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TAGH.
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BEMAR-
TYR.

barrier between Independent Tartary and the Chinese Empire, constituting the great western rampart of the immense table land of Central Asia. On the north they join the great range of Bogdo, and on the south they are connected with the Hindoo Coosh, and ridges of Little Tibet. Gold is one of the products of these mountains, for the people who live near their base, collect considerable quantities which the torrents, occasioned by the rains and the melting of the snows, wash from the upper regions.

BELWEATHER, *l. e. belled weather*. A weather with a bell to his neck. See **WARRAS**.

Much like a well grown *bel-weather*, or foiled ram he shows,
That walks before a wealthy flock of fair white-fleeced ewes.
Chapman. Hen. 8. book iii. fol. 42.

He was bogot when the sign was in Taurus, for a' rears like a bull, but is indeed a *bel-weather*.

Ford. The Sun's Darling, act v. sc. 1.

So that he [Lenthall] that had been so long the *bel-weather* in the House of Commons, was thought fit for his complaisance and money to be one of the other House.

Ward. Athene Oxon. ii. 367.

BELETA, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects in the order *Hymenoptera*, family *Proctotrupi*. Generic character: antennae of the males with fourteen articulations, those of the females with fifteen—the former filiform, the inferior joints elongated—the latter very thick and moniliform; upper wings having complete cellule.

BEMAD, *be* and *mad*. *Mad* is merely *metit*, *mad*, (d for t) the past tense and past participle of the A. S. verb *metan*, *commiserate*, to *dread*. *Tooke*, ii. 341.

To make mad, to madden.

If on my credit you dare build so far
To ask you speed to Dover, you shall find
Some that will thank you, making just report,
Of how unnatural and branding sorrow
The king had come to plain.

Shakespeare. King Lear, act iii. sc. 1.

BEMANGLE. Ger. and Dutch, *mangel*; Dutch, *mangelen*, *deffere*. Skinner approves of the derivation by Minshew, from the Latin *manus*, maimed. See **MANOLE**.

To hack or maim; to hew, to mutilate, to tear, to lacerate.

For those *bemangled* limbs which *scutted* be
About the picture's *rears*, the *ruins* are
Of *sear's* unmoved lovely babes, which she
Fears'd not with her remorseless claws to tear,
And lock into her bowels force; if yet
She any *bowels* had, who thus could eat.

Dramond. Purple, c. ii. st. 71.

But when they had opened Cesar's testament, and found a liberal legacy of money bequeathed unto every citizen of Rome, and that they saw his body (which was brought into the market-place) all *bemangled* with gashes of swords, then there was no order to keep the multitude, and common people quiet, but they plucked up furies, talers, and stools, and laid them all about the body, and setting them afire, burnt the corpse.

North. Plutarch, 615.

BEMARTYR, *be* and *martyr*. A. S. *martyr*; Fr. *martyr*; It. *martire*; Sp. *martyr*. A martyr. Ger. *martern*; Dutch, *marteren*. To martyr. From the Gr. *μάρτυρ*, *testificari*. *Martyr*, *propter testem significat*. To slay, to murder, as *martyrs*, as witnesses of the truth;—of their own faith or belief.

See here how *be bemartyred* such who as yet did survive; but in so servile a condition (condemned to the mines) that they were almost hopeless, without miracle, to be released.

Puller's Worthies, vol. i. p. 5.

BEMASK, *be* and *mask*. To wear a mask. Fr. *masquer*; It. *maschera*; Sp. *maquera*; Dutch, *masche*; Ger. *maske*. Of unsettled etymology.

To *bemask*, is to put on, to wear a mask, something to disguise, cover or conceal.

To all those compliments, the doleful lady answered nothing; and although Dorinda made her again larger offers of her service, yet stood she ever silent until the *bemasked* gentleman (whom the lady said, the rest did *they*) came over.

Shelton. Don Quixote, book i. c. 9.

BEMAUL, *be* and *moul*. Goth. *mulan*, *molere*, to mill, to grind, to hruise.

Others, who knew nothing of masked expression, and merely lent their ears to the plain import of the word, imagined that Plutarchus, who was somewhat of a chivalric spirit, was just going to watch the culchit out of Diogenes's hands, in order to *bemaul* York to some purpose.

Stearns. Tristram Shandy, c. 37.

BEMAZE, *be* and *maze*. From *maze*, a labyrinth; and this from the Dutch, *misen*; *errare*, (A. S. *missian*) to err, to wander.

To be or put out of the right way; to confuse, to perplex, to stupefy. See **AMAZE**.

— Thy lamp, mysterious world!
Which whose seen, no longer wanders lost,
With intellect *bemaze'd* in endless dole,
But runs the road of wisdom.

Cooper. Tass, book v.

BEMBA, **BEMNE**, or **BEMNI**, a Negro state at the back of Benguela, in lat. 12° S. lon. 17° E. It is traversed by the river San Francisco, or *Lutano*, which swarms with crocodiles and hippopotami. The inhabitants speak a language peculiar to themselves.

BEMBEK, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects of the order *Hymenoptera*, family *Bembecidae*. Generic character: labium forming an elongated triangle; mandibles simply unidentate internally; maxillary palpi very short, having four articulations. The marginal and last submarginal cells nearly united at their extremity, being separated only by a very short angle.

BEMBIDION, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects of the order *Coleoptera*, family *Cerabidae*. Generic character: labium transverse; thorax narrower than the abdomen, and as broad as the head; eyes more or less prominent; wings generally perfect; external maxillary palpi.

BEMETE, *be* and *mete*. A. S. *metan*. To *mete*, to measure.

Away then rage, then quantile, then remnant,
Or I shall so *be-mete* thee with thy yard;
As thou shalt think on prating whilst thou lie'st:
I tell thee, I, that thou hast *be-met*'d her gown.

Shakespeare. Twelfth Night, act iii. sc. 2.

BEMINGLE, *be* and *mingle*. A. S. *menegan*, *gemengan*; Ger. and Dutch, *mengen*, *mengelen*. To mingle, to mix.

This blade is blood's hand, which I do bear,
And all his gore *bemingled* with this glow,
In witness I the dreadful monster slew.

Milner for Magistrate, p. 106.

BEMINSTER FORUM, or **BEAMINSTER**, a town of considerable antiquity on the banks of the river Birt, in the county of Dorset. In the year 1644 it was burned to the ground while in the occupation of the Royalists under Prince Maurice. A falling out between the French and the Cornish under his command afforded the enemy an opportunity of firing the

BEMASK.
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BEMOAN

town. The loss was estimated at nearly £22,000. It was again burned in 1684, when the damage was computed at half that sum. A third time in 1781, fifty dwelling houses, besides other buildings, were consumed. Benminster is the birth-place of Thomas Sprat, Bishop of Rochester, the friend of Cowley, and the historian of the Royal Society. He died in 1713. Population in 1831, 2806.

BEMIRE, *be* and *mirr*. Dutch, *moer*, *moor*; English, *mud*. To cover with mire, mud, or dirt.

Those few which remained, laid his body [poorly God wot, but as necessarily suffered] into a celliers cart, which drawne with one silly leaner beast, through a very foule and filthy way, the cart broke, and there lay the spectacle of worldly glory, both pitifully gauled, and filthy bearded.

Speed. Ann. 1696. W. Rufus.

Fair maidens all, attend the muse,
Who now the wandering pair pursues:
Away they rode in homely sort,
Their journey long, their money short;
The loving couple well known'd:
The horse and both the riders t'ird.

Shelf. The Progress of Love.

His active will-o'-the-wisp may be gone nobody can guess where, whilst he leaves us a-mir'd and brighten'd in the lag.

Burke. On Regicide Peace.

BEMIST, *be* and *mist*. A. S. *mistian*; *coligare*; Dutch, *misten*, *nebulam exhalare*. To overcloud, to darken.

Admitting Christianity had not by our Saviour and his apostles been confirmed by miracles; yet, it would in time have been taken up, and entertained and rooted in men's hearts for the very locusts and integrity of it; yet, by the but nearly wise and common docters of benighted nature, it would have been no very powerful oratory, to persuade the taking up of our cross to follow him.

Fletcher. Sermon, fol. 323.

BEMO'AN, } *Be* and *moan*. A. S. *manan*, *be-*
BEMO'ANING, } *moan*. To bewail, to lament, to deplore.

Vern'd the castle of Nottingham ype is brother he come,
& substitute in other loaden, describe him all cleane,
& alle that with him bulder, [all were next to be merr.]

R. Gloucester, p. 490.

Then shalt thou stonpe, and lay to ere
If they within asleepe be
I mean all same thy lady fre
Whom waking if thou maist aspie
Go put thy selfe in leoparde
To save grace, and the lewde
That she may weare without weare
That thou sight no rest hast had
No care for hir thou were beatal.

Chaucer. The Remant of the Rose, fol. 129.

And he his horn blew aside
To turned, and to hir he rode,
And there he bound, and shode,
To wit what she wold mene
And she began him to bewene.

Gower. Conf. Am. book 1.

So it fortuned that in this merr season one of the duke of Lancaster's great barons died, a right valiant man, called the lord Fitzwater; he was greatly bewennd, but against dette none may stree.

Fremer. Cronicle, v. li. C. 165.

Whereby I dare with humble beseechers,
By thy goodness, this thyng of thee requyre;
Chastyce me not for my deservyng
According to thy hute conceayned ye.

Wyatt. Pastore vi.

When a poor-spirited creature that dyed at the same time for his crimes bewennd himself unmanfully, he rebuked him with this question, Is't so consoletion to such a man as thou art to dye with Phocion?

Speutator No. 133.

BEMOCK, *be* and *mock*. Fr. *mocquer*. The Greeks peculiarly apply the verb *Muraibetha*, to those who deride any one by distorting their features and lips. V. Junius on the verb *Mock*.

Yon foolen, I and my fellows
Are ministers of fate, the elements
Of whom your swords are temper'd, may as well
Wound the lead winds, or with benard-st-stals
Kill the still chiding waters, as dashish
One dowle that's in my plume.

Shakespeare. Tempest, fol. 13.

BAU. Mark'd you his lip and eyes.

SICEN. Nay, but his tongue.

BAU. Being mon'd, he will not spare to gird the gods.

SICEN. Bewenche the modest mouse

Id. Coriolanus, fol. 3.

BEMOIL, *be* and *moil*. Fr. "*Mouiller*. To wet, moisten, soak or steep in moisture." Colgrave.

Thou shouldst have heard in how many a place, how she was bewen'd, how bee left her with the horse upon her.

Shakespeare. Twelfth of the Storm, fol. 221.

BEMONSTER, *be* and *monster*. *Monster*, from the Lat. *monstrum*, which Vossius derives, a *monstrum*; teal *monstrum*; then *monster*. See **MONSTR**.

ALB. Thou changed and self-cover'd thing, for shame,
Bemonster not thy features.

Shakespeare. King Lear, act iv. sc. 2.

BEMOURN, *be*, or *be*, and *mourn*. Goth. *murnan*, A. S. *murnan*. To mourn; to grieve for, to lament.

And there made him myche gyle: and wynneth that welliden and himreden him.

Wiclif. Luke, chap. xxii.

BEMUFFLED, *be* and *muffle*. *Muffle*, the diminutive of *buff*. See **MUFF**.

See, I beseech you, how he is cloaked up with acronyms, prayers, and sacraments; and so bewen'd with the externals of religion, that he has not a hand to spare for a worldly purpose.

Stevens. Sermon xvi.

BEMUSE, *be* and *muse*. Fr. *muser*: perhaps the Lat. *musa*. To bemuse, in wice, or beer; to indulge the musings; the thoughts or meditations, which wine or beer produces. See **ANUSE**.

Wine's generous spirit makes the coward brave,
Gives ease to kings, and freedom to the slave.
Bewen'd in wine the hard his done forgets,
And drinks serene oblivion to his debts.

Poacher. Imitation of Horace, Ep. v. book 1.

BEN (*Arab.*) the oily acorn, or **BEN-MUT**; a whitish oil, about the size of a small filbert, of a roundish triangular shape, including a kernel of the same figure, covered with a white skin. It is the fruit of the *Hyperanthera Moringa*, a native of the East Indies. On expression, these oils yield one-fourth of their weight of a yellow oil, almost insipid; it does not grow rancid by long keeping, as is common with expressed oils, so which account it is used as a basis for extracting the aromatic principle of such flowers as yield but a small quantity of essential oil. It is impregnated with the odour of roses, jessamine, and other flowers, by stratifying them with cotton dipped in the oil, and repeating the process with fresh flowers, until the oil becomes sufficiently odorous; after which, it is squeezed out from the cotton in a press. In this manner, the celebrated *Haile antique de la rose*, or otto of roses, is prepared in the East Indies.

BEN-AROUS, or **BENAROURO**, the table hill, a mountain of Scotland, between the shires of Aberdeen and Inverness. It is about three miles long, and

BEN-
ABOUD.
—
BENARES

nearly flat at the top, presenting a huge barren mass of rock, rising to the height of 3940 feet above the level of the sea. A few topazes and beryls are sometimes found there.

BEN LEO, a mountain in the county of Perth, in Scotland, rising 3000 feet above the level of the sea; on the summit is a small lake.

BEN-LOXOXO, a mountain in the county of Stirling, in Scotland. It rises cooically from Loehiomond, above the level of which it towers 3240 feet, and above that of the sea 3262. It is chiefly composed of granite, and masses of quartz. It is entirely the property of the Duke of Montrose.

BEN MAENTIE, a mountain on the western confines of the county of Aberdeen, in Scotland, the second highest in Britain: it is 4300 feet in height.

BEN NEVIS, a mountain in the county of Dumfries, in Scotland, rising 4370 feet above the level of the sea. It is the highest in Britain. It is chiefly composed of porphyry and red granite, and it contains a vein of lead ore, richly impregnated with silver.

BENA, or BANA, a town of Piedmont, situated in the district of Mondovì, and on the road from Finale to Turin, from which it is about twenty-eight miles distant. It is a fortified place, defended by a castle, and contains nearly 8000 inhabitants. It was taken by the French in April 1796.

BENADKY, or BENATKA, a small town in Bohemia, in the circle of Buntzlau, to which Tycho Brahe, the celebrated Danish astronomer, retired after the death of his patron, Frederick II. and where he died in 1601. It stands on a hill near the river Iser, and about twenty-two miles north-east of Prague. North latitude, 50° 15', east longitude, 14° 56'.

BENAMED, *ben* and *nama*. Goth. *nama*; A. S. *nama*. Ger. and Dutch, *name*; Gr. *ἄμα*; Lat. *nomen*; Fr. *nom*; It. *nome*. The Lat. *nomen*, quasi *noimem*: that by which any thing is known, spoken of, called.

And therefore he a countess was be-named,
And as a countess was with cheer received,
(For they have tongues to make a poor man blamed,
If he to them his duty misreceiveth).

Silvery. Arcadia, book iii.

BENARES, a town and district in the province of Allah-ābād, (see ALLAH-ARAD,) situated between the twenty-fourth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude. The zemindārī, or lordship of Beoāres, contains three districts; that which bears the same name, Jān-pūr (Juan-poor) and Mirzā-pūr. It has an area of 19,000 square miles, 10,000 of which are a rich cultivated flat on each side of the Ganges. The heat in summer is excessive, but in winter fires are requisite. Garden stuff, grains of different kinds, flax for oil, (no linen are manufactured here,) and sugar, are the principal objects of cultivation. The gross revenue in 1815 amounted to 4,563,707 rupees, (£570,838. 7s. 6d.) At Chunar-gar'h, Mirzā-pūr, and Ghāzi-pūr, there are large stone quarries, which any one may work on paying a moderate duty. The receipts for such licences amounted to 37,088 rupees, (£4635. 15s.) in 1816. Muslins, silks, and gauzes, salt, indigo, and opium, are made in this district. It is watered by the Ganges and Gāndī, bounded by the Carnamāh and Sām. Its principal towns are Benāres, Mirzā-pūr, Chunar-gar'h, and Ghāzi-pūr. The population exceeds three millions; and the Hindus are to

the Mussulmans as ten to one, in the towns, and as twenty to one, in the villages. The Brāhmins, in consideration of the respect in which they are held by the multitude, are here indulged with some peculiar privileges. The punishment of death in capital offences is commuted for transportation, and the process against them, on criminal charges, is somewhat different from that against Hindus of a lower caste. The Rājā Chēt Singh, as is well known, was so refractory, as to oblige Mr. Hastings to expel him from his zemindārī in 1751: but he lived at Gwāllyr till 1810; and his lands are still held by a collateral branch of the same family.

Benāres, in Sanscrit, Vārā Nāl, from the two streams Vārā and Nāl, is placed in lat. 25° 30' N., and long. 83° 1' E. on the high bank and northern side of the Ganges, which here takes a sweep of four miles. Its elevation above the edge of the water is evident from the Ghāts or landing-places, which are thirty feet high: they are built of large stones, and were erected by pious Hindus as acts of public charity. The whole town rises, like an amphitheatre, from this basis, and may be seen at once from the opposite shore, which is an extensive level. The height of the houses, and narrowness of the streets, give it all the usual inconveniences of an Asiatic town. Its inhabitants are more than 600,000, of whom 8000 are said to be Brāhmins; and at the great Hindū festivals the concourse is immense: for Cāśī or Cāśī, the *Splendid*, as the Indians commonly call it, is one of the most sacred places of pilgrimage in the whole of India. The country for ten miles round is holy land; and the famous lingam, supposed to be Siva or Mahā-Dēv himself in a state of petrification, attracts the veneration and the alms of myriads. The representatives of this invaluable relic, in different parts of the city, are said to be at least a million; and one pilgrim is reported to have travelled sixteen times from Cāśī to Ramēswar, (Ramissern) opposite to Ceylon. Just as pious Jews go to die at Jerusalem, so do devout Hindūs come to end their days at Benāres; and its sanctity is such, that the having died there would be sufficient to preserve even beef-eating Englishmen from Patālā,—the realms of the Indian Pluto. One Englishman indeed, the Brāhmins say, did gain admission into heaven by departing this life at Benāres; but he had, in addition to his other merits, left a legacy for the erection of a temple after his death. Several of the Hindū princes have vākils or agents, resident at this place, appointed to offer up sacrifices in their behalf. The number of pious foundations is so holy a place must of course be very great, and few Hindūs of consequence fail to maintain at least an oratory there. The principal temple is called Viśwēswar, or Bīswar, and is dedicated to Siva, whose sacred relic it contains. Aśrang-zeh, to mortify the Hindūs, whom he hated with all the cordiality of a fanatic, built a splendid mosque on the highest ground in the city, and, what was worse, on the ruins of a temple. The minarets of this edifice command an extensive view over the town, with all its various pagodas, and the rich surrounding country. Science has also found some patronage at Benāres: Jaya-Singh, Rājā of Auhār, towards the latter end of the seventeenth century, erected an observatory in this city. (See *Philosoph. Transactions*, vol. lxvii.; *As. Res.* vol. clxxxv.) which is still existing; and a college for the instruction

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BENARES of Hindhs in their own literature, was established by the British government, under the auspices of Mr. Duncan, the resident, in 1801: but the prejudices, and perhaps the pride of the Brāhmins, have hitherto prevented this last named institution from doing much towards the revival of learning among the natives. At the time of its foundation, there were said to be 300 Hindhs, and 50 Mohammedans, established in this place, eminent for their knowledge and abilities.

The trade of so large and populous a town must be very considerable; and this has long been the great mart for diamonds, and other gems, brought principally from the Bundel-khand. The merchants and bankers are numerous and wealthy. There are few English inhabitants, except the persons holding official stations, such as the judge, collector, registrar, and members of the court of circuit.

Cāśī does not appear to have existed in the time of the Greeks, and was probably subject to the Hindh sovereignty of Cānoī. It was plundered by Mahmūd of Ghaznef in the beginning of the eleventh century; but was not finally included within the Moghul Empire till the close of the twelfth. It was ceded to the East India Company by the Nabob of Aud'h, (Oude,) in 1775, and has enjoyed an uninterrupted tranquillity ever since 1781. Its inhabitants are, far the most part, better informed than the other natives of India, and are fully sensible of the advantages which they enjoy, with respect to the security of their persons and property, by living under the British government.

Ghāzi-pūr, a district lying to the east of Jaūn-pūr, is peculiarly fertile, and has long been celebrated for its *Atar*, or essence of roses. Its chief towns are Ghāzi-pūr, Azim-pūr, and Dūrl-g'hāt. Ghāzi-pūr, on the north side of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 35' N., long. 83° 33' E. is a large and populous town, and has 300 villages under the jurisdiction of its magistrates. The customs collected there amounted to 140,968 rupees (£12,561.) in 1814. Its inhabitants are noted for their turbulence, which renders it necessary to have three regiments of cavalry always stationed there. A palace, which belonged to Sa'ādet Ali, the Nabob of Aud'h, overhanging the banks of the Ganges, ornaments one extremity of the town.

Mirzā-pūr has no separate collector, and its revenue is paid into the treasury at Benāres. Its commerce is considerable, and its population is continually augmented by emigrants from the neighbouring states. Its population amounted to 900,000 souls in 1801; the proportion between Mohammedans and Hindhs being as one to twenty.

The town of Mirzā-pūr, on the south side of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 10' N., long. 83° 38' E. is large and flourishing. It is, and has long been, the great mart for cotton from Agra, and the Malabar countries. The industry of its inhabitants, which was always very great, has been much stimulated by the English indigo planters and merchants established there. Carpets and cottons are manufactured in the neighbourhood. The amount of the customs collected here in 1814 was 305,073 rupees, (£238,134. 2s. 6d.) The population had increased to such an extent, that it was found necessary, in 1801, to allot thirty-five acres between one of the gates and the Ganges, for new buildings: and the town, which sprang up in consequence, consisting of native habitations, Hindh

temples and handsome European houses, covering the banks of the river, adds greatly to the variety and animation of the scene. The population exceeds 60,000; and a direct trade in cotton is now carried on with Europe. The soil of this place is so strongly impregnated with saline particles, as to be injurious to brick buildings.

Chinnār-gar'h, or Chundāl-gar'h, is a town on the south side of the Ganges, in lat. 25° 9' N., long. 82° 54' E. formerly a fortress of importance, but its works have been allowed to fall into decay. Placed on a cliff rising abruptly from the plain to the height of several hundred feet, and projecting into the stream, the prospect from its summit carries the eye over a vast extent of country, richly clothed with wood, while, immediately beneath, the banks of the river are seen covered with plantations and country-houses; and innumerable vessels are continually passing and repassing along the stream. This fortress was the residence of the Shīr Khān, the Afghān, in the early part of the sixteenth century, and was delivered up to the English troops in 1763, ever since which time it has been in our possession. It is at times very unhealthy.

The district of Jaūn-pūr is on the north side of the Ganges, and contiguous to the territory of the Nabob of Oude; on the east it is bounded by the river G'hag'hra, (Goggra.) The soil, though sandy, is rendered very productive by good cultivation. Its surface is almost uniformly level, and the fields are much diversified by frequent clumps of Mangoes, (*Mangifera Indica*.) The inhabitants, noted for the dirtiness of their houses, are poor, few having more than 500 rupees per annum, (£62. 10s.) and famous for their turbulence. The population was reported, in 1801, to be upwards of three millions, but it was probably overrated. The principal towns are Jaūn-pūr, Azim-gar'h, and Mnā.

The town of Jaūn-pūr is situated on the banks of the Gūmti, in lat. 25° 45' N., and long. 83° 39' E. A stone fort, on a commanding elevation, filled with the ruin of mosques and tombs; a large serāī, built of stone, and a bridge, built in the reign of Acbar, 250 years ago, are the most remarkable objects in this place. It was founded by Sultān Firūz Shāh, and named after his cousin Fakkr'ud-din Jaūnā. In the beginning of the fifteenth century, Khwājāh Jehān, vezir of Mohammed Shāh, the Moghul Emperor, assumed the title of Sultān Sherki, or the Eastern Sultān, took possession of Bahār, and fixed upon this city as his place of residence. His dynasty became extinct at the close of the same century. Jaūn-pūr was not permanently possessed by the Moghuls till the reign of Acbar. The majority of the inhabitants are Mohammedans. (Hamilton's *Hindustan*, 1302-316; *Asiatic Researches*, vol. v.; *Ajāib Akbari*, ii; *Asiatic Miscellany*, i. 385.)

BENAVENTE, a town of Spain, situated on the river Exla, in the kingdom of Leon. Though its population does not exceed 3000, it has nine churches, several convents, hospitals, and other public buildings. The dual palace is a noble structure, of great antiquity; and there is also a celebrated monastery of Hieronymites in its vicinity. It is about thirty-six miles south of the city of Leon.

BENBECULA, an island of the Hebrides, situated between north and south Uist, and forming part of

BENARES
BENBECULA

BENRE-
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COOLEN.

the shire of Inverness. It is a low, sandy, and unproductive island, about eight or nine miles long, and nearly as many broad. The channel which separates it from South Uist is very shallow, and sometimes dry. The island contains several fresh water lakes which are well stocked with fish; but the soil and climate are so unfavourable to vegetation, that all the plants are stunted, and even common fruit trees will not thrive, though surrounded by high walls. There are a few vestiges of ancient buildings: but the chief benefit that is now derived from the island, is from the kelp made on its shores.

BENCH, s. } See BANK. Wachter says, *bank*, a
BENCH, s. } hill, mound, heap, and any eminent
BENCHER, s. } or rising place. It is transferred, he
adds, to all eminent or rising places for sitting or
lying: (for any purpose.)

So just he cry of Warlike aloft, alle verus toncher,
Bisore je Justus alle benchy, alle Aléin de la Souche.
R. Glouceter, p. 570.

For giftes sou justice late he lowe goe down,
and som to oþer wise did wrong to þe crown.
þe first justice in þe ad Sir Thomas of Weland,
For falschid & for wrek he forsooke þe land.

R. Brunne, p. 246.

Thomas, quod he, God yelde it you, ful oft
Have I upon this bench farne ful wite,
Here have I seen many a many wite,
And fro the bench he drove away the cat.

Chaucer. *The Sempsons Tale*, v. 7334.

I found a delectable place,
That was beset with trees young and olde,
Whose names here for use shall not be tolde,
Amonge of which stood an herber grene,
That lacked was with colours new and cleane.

Id. *Of the Blacke Knight*, fol. 271.

An helle for an byth kryge an townehold to holden,
With hede berdes shotten, shewen wyl cleven,
Þere Fleamman. *Credo*, c. j.

Upon the bench sittende on high
With Amarie Youre I sighe.
Gower. *Conf. Am.* book v.

If the pillars be of silver, and the benches of gold and thour
the benches be kings & continue a thousand yeres, and rule into
the entrails of the earth, yet they can bide no steadfast rocke nor
mountain, wherein to close goods of their predecessors, and their
estates perpetuall.
Golden Book, vol. 6.

Fast at her side clung naked Loue,
A lovely boy in dewe,
And Valence, beset with the gods,
His wife did thus proceede.

Warner. *Artion's England*, book vi.

He [Lucius Artianus] and sixteene more persons of his
company, used to dine and sup within the bellowspace of that tree:
where the very leaves yielded of their own sufficient bod and
beech-roume to rest and repose themselves.
Holland. *Plinio*, v. l. fol. 358.

He [Scold] seldom or never appeared publicly at the bar,
(tho' a bracker) but gave sometimes chamber-council, and was
good at conveyance.
Wood. *Athenæ Oxon.* b. 173.

BENCOOLEN, (BENCALU, or FORT MARLBOROUGH), the chief establishment of the East India Company in Sumatra, is in lat. 3° 50' N. lon. 102° 3' E. The intrigues of the Dutch long prevented the English from making any permanent settlement at this place, and it cost upwards of £200,000 within the first twenty years after the site was obtained from the neighbouring chiefs. The fort was not commenced till 1714, nineteen years after the cession of the lands

annexed to it; and in 1719 the natives expelled the settlers, but, soon afterwards, allowed them to return. They continued unmolested till the Comte d'Estaing destroyed all the English factories on that coast, in 1760. In 1763 Fort Marlborough was made independent of Madras, to which it had previously been subordinate. Pepper is the only valuable produce of the neighbouring country; and as that could be procured on more advantageous terms from Prince of Wales's Island and Malabar, the establishment at Bencoolen, which had become very expensive, was reduced, in 1801; and it was formed into a residency, under the direction of the government of Bengal. It now sends to England only one cargo of pepper, valued at about £15,000. annually, and receives woollen goods in return, to the amount of about £4000. Provisions of every kind are scarce and extremely dear. The imports are principally opium, piece-goods, and grain; the exports, pepper, spices, and bullion; but the trade has greatly declined. (Hamilton's *East India Gazetteer*.)

BEN-COWSE, a fortified village in Africa, in the southern part of the territory belonging to the Algerines. The walls are composed of mud, and it is defended by a small garrison, with three or four pieces of cannon. In its vicinity are to be seen the remains of a considerable city, consisting of broken pillars, walls, and cisterns; and here too, the inhabitants show the tombs of what they call the seven sleepers, whom they suppose to have been Mussulmen, and to have taken their final sleep there. It is situated about 63 miles south-west of Constantia.

BEND, s. } A. S. *bendas*; Fr. *bender* or *bender*. To
BEND, s. } move out of a right or straight line, to
BENDER, s. } BENDER, s. } bend, to curve; to turn, (as
BENT, s. } bent of a direct course, to a particular
end,) to incline. And thus applied to the inclination, the disposition of the mind; the course, direction, determination of the thoughts, studies, pursuits, passions.

For bent, as applied by Chaucer and Dryden, to the bending, curvature, declination, declivity of land, see ARMISTOTEL.

þe maister of þe messengers (þrebed was ys name)
þeod ys howe & sceticke a non to Curious to gronde.
R. Glouceter, p. 16.

Stonde he nevere so styffliche. þorgh sterynge of þe hote
He bendy and bowy. þe body is vntable
As yet he is and so fowde.
Þere Fleamman. *Flon*, p. 167.

The henn lyche upon a browe,
She bendy, and the sun downe lowe.
Gower. *Conf. Am.* book iv.

But much more prayse to Gaucigen's penne is due,
Whose learned hande doth here to these present,
A posie full of heartes, and flowers newe,
To please all heyrens, in wit or learning bent.
T. B. *In Progn. of Gaucigen's Poetrie*.

With that the rose, the nimble roe,
The tender grass scarce bending,
And left me three peoples' d with fear
At this her soueraine railing.
Dante's *Divine Comedy* in Ellis, v. 3.

Ye noble prisoners, that protect and save,
The pilgrims' Masses, and their ships defend
From rocke of ignorance, and errors waste,
Your grateful ruse upon this labour bend.
To you those tales of love and conquests house
I dedicate. *Paraphrase*. *Godfrey of Boulogne*, fol. 2.

BEN-
COOLEN.
—
BEND.

BEND.

Under the bow of her brows lastly light,
As diamonds or sapphires at the least
Her glancing lights the darkness of the night.
Uncertain Authors. Excerptum, &c. of his Line.

With Flanoke I and other of her best,
As traymours at Tibouru our indignant did obey.
Mirror for Magistrates, p. 457.

There with thy gun both furious and fell,
To thunder blows, and fiercely to assault;
Each other bent his enemy to quell,
That with their force they peer'd both plate and mail.
Spenser. Ferrie Queene, book i. c. 7.

His spear a bent both stiff and strong,
And well near two inches long;
The pile was of a horsely's tongue,
Whose sharpness naught revers'd.
Drayton. The Court of Fairy.

O thou, who sweetly bendest my stubborn will,
Who scoldst thy stripes to teach, and not to kill;
Thy cheerful face from use no longer hide,
Withdraw these clouds, the scourges of my pride.
Beaumont. On Deception.

He knoweth, that wee come to God, not by travell of bodie, or
by shiftings of places, but by iackling, and bending our hartes
unto God. *Jewell. Repie to M. Harding, fol. 487.*

Round stones driven otherwise from out of the bulwerkes,
breaks the joynts of their turret, and overthrow both the balists
and their bowlers so heading, that some without wound-hurts;
others, crushed with huge and heave weights, perished.
Holland. Annals, fol. 132.

Barclay affirms that he was an eye-witness, how one of those
bows with a little arrow did pierce through a piece of steel three
fingers thick. And yet these bows being somewhat like the long
bows in use amongst us, were bent only by a man's immediate
strength, without the help of any bowler or rack that are used to
others.
Widdow. On Mechanical Powers.

Her herid front deep-trenching wrinkles trace,
Less sharpening looks deform her livid face,
Bent lie the brows, and at the bend below,
With fire and blood two wandering eye-balls glow.
Parrell. The Gift of Poetry. Jonah.

She had also contrived another puppet, which by the help of
several little springs to be wound up within it, could move all its
limbs, and that she had sent over to her correspondent in Paris,
to be taught the various leanings and bendings of the head, the
risings of the bosom.
Spectator, No. 217.

But these plain characters we rarely find
Though strong the head, yet quick the turns of mind.
Pope. Moral Essays, Epist. 1.

The duty takes the father and mere hold of us, by the means
of our will, and that strong bent towards gratitude which the
author of our nature hath implanted in it.
Atterbury. Sermon l. v. l.

With fourscore years grey Nallo leads;
A burden to himself and friends;
And with impatience seems to wait
The friendly hand of lying fate.
Colton. Fictions on Death.

Where'er a flat vacuity is seen,
There let some shadowing length intervene,
Above, below, to lead its varied line,
As best may teach the distant folds to join.
Manna. Tr. Du Fresnoy's Art of Painting.

Where'er it [the lawn] winds, and freely meet it wind,
She bids, at every bend, thick-blossom'd tufts
Crowd their interwoven tendrils.
Id. The English Garden, book ii.

It is his [the legislator's] best policy to comply with the common
bent of mankind, and give it all the improvements of which it is
susceptible.
Hume. Essays of Commerce.

BEND.

BE-

NEATH.

BENNE, in *Heraldry*, an honourable ordinary. Taken
absolutely it always means the *Bend dexter*, and con-
sists of two parallel lines drawn diagonally from the
dexter chief to the sinister base of the shield. When
charged, it occupies a third part of the field, when
plain, a sixth. Its diminutive are the *bandlet*, *garter*,
cofalse, and *ribbon*; none of which can be charged.

The *Bend sinister* consists of similar lines drawn in
an opposite direction from the *sinister chief* to the
dexter base of the shield. Its diminutive is the *scarf*
occupying one half of its breadth.

BENDES, also called *TUCKING* and *TIZING*, a strong
fortress in Russian Bessarabia, in lat. 46° 50' N. and
long. 29° 6' E., on the river Danestr. It is in the
shape of a crescent, and the works of its citadel were
greatly improved in 1792, by M. Hauser, an engineer
employed by the Turks. It was burnt by the Russians
in 1774, and was finally ceded to them, at the peace of
Bucharest, in 1812. It was formerly the residence
of a Pacha, and is said to contain 10,000 inhabitants,
a number probably much overrated. There are in it
seven gates, and eleven mosques, of which the tapering
minarets give the town an airy, picturesque appearance
at a distance.

BENDE. See BAND.

One day on a playne there met with hym Sir William Stanley
Sir Thomas of Borrough, and dyvers other of his frendes, with such
a great band of men, that neither his keepers would, nor once durst
move him to retorne to pryson agyn.
Hall. Edward IV. fol. 263.

BENEATH. A. S. *beneath*, *benoethan*; Dnteb, be-
ne-den. The same as *below*. It is the imperative be
compounded with the noun *neath*, V. Tooke. *Nether*
and *nethermost* still continue in common use. See
NETHERS.

Deft out jis water, quoth Meriwe, & wen it is a weye,
ye shall sit sefely get y fyled before stones torrey,
Add in eyer a dyngus jee inne slope faste.
R. Gloucester, p. 131.

Van an betajale at Elendone hill smyte myd her ost,
je-kyng Bernauld was jere gnyre; & bynome al ys host.
Id. p. 238.

Aleia answered; John, and wolt thou say?
Than wol I be *beneathe* by my crown,
And see how that the mole fallen adown
In til the trogh that shall be my disport.
Chaucer. The Reeve Tale, v. 6038.

This aler in periferie three
Decided is of such degree:
Beneath is one, and one a middle,
To whence above is the thirde.
Geogr. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 162. a.

And be side to hem, ye ben of *beneath*, I am from above: ye ben
of this worlde, I am not of this worlde. *Wiclif. Jen. cap. viii.*

And he sayde unto them: ye are from *beneath*, I am from above:
Ye are of this worlde, I am not of this worlde. *Bible, 1351.*

Whi groweth this frut in jee degrees, for a good skylle be side,
Her by seche ich may jyne. *Piers Planchin. Vision, p. 398.*

Beneath his feete pale Emie bites her chaine,
And smally discord whete her steyn in vaine.
Sir J. Beaumont. Banerith Field.

Thy reliques, Rowe, to this fair urn we trust,
And accord, place by Dryden's useful dust:
Beneath a rude and nameless stone he lies,
To which thy tomb shall guide enquiring eyes.
Pope. Epitaph on Mr. Rowe.

BE-
NEATH.
BENE-
FACTION.

Beneath no high, *beneath* strong,
The nobly born, in Owen laid,
Struck'd on the green wood's lap alone,
He sleeps *beneath* the waving shade.

Langhorne. Ode on Curlew.

BENEDICT, } Lat. *benedicere, benedictum.* To
BENEDICTIO, } speak well of. Fr. *benédiction*;
BENEDICTORY. } It. *benedizioni*; Sp. *benedición*;
As now applied,
Benediction is "a blessing, a wishing of all good
luck to." Cotgrave.

There shall they for good skill be called right *benefits*, when
with the light of faith they shall begin to see that Christ is both
God and the sinner of God, and through their strength in faith,
more then upon confidence in works, wrest out with strong hands
the *benefiction* of God.

Udall. St. Paul to the Romanes, cap. xi.

The xliii. day of January began the procession on the Sundays
about the church, with the *curlew* and the aldermen in their clothes,
and the preacher taking his *benediction* in the middle of the
church, according to old custom.

Falgun. Merit, Ann. 1554.

And it is not a small thing won in *physick*, if you can make
rubbers, and other medicines that are *beneficial*, as strong purges
as those that are not, without some malignity.

Bacon. Natural History, c. l. s. 19.

How value are all outward helps without the influence of God's
spirit? and that spirit breathes where he listeth: good education
misch great hopes, but the proofs of them is in the divine
benefiction.

Hall. Cont. Menasch.

Dr. Ridley observes, there is not the least mention of any saint
whose name corresponds with this, either in the Roman Calendar,
the service in Ussem Barum, or in the *benefictionary* of Bishop
Athebold.

Gummer Gurton's Nerdle, act iv. sc. 1. Note.

I have heard say, the present Pope never passes through the
people, who always kneel in crowds and ask his *benefiction*, but
the tears are seen to flow from his eyes.

Falgun. No. 62.

When Lord and Lady Valentin came to see his Lordship, he
gave them this solemn *benefiction*, and said, "Be good, be
virtuous my Lord; you must come to this."

Johnson. Life of Littleton.

BENEFACCTION, } Lat. *beneficere, benefactum.*
BANEFACCTOR, } To do well, to do good, to do
BENEFACTESS. } a service.

Doing a service, a favour, a good office; bestowing
a charitable donation. Also applied, to the service,
favour, good office done; the charitable donation
bestowed.

May it is not enough for thee to leave thy *benefactors* only, as
monks and friars do. But lift up thine eyes unto thy heavenly
father, and as thy father doth, so doe thou love all thy father's
children.

Tyndal's Works, fol. 216.

Pollidore sayth, that when he had quitted the realm, and
suspended his sciences, he became a great *benefactor* unto
religious houses, but specially unto the Abbey of Abbecon.

Grafton. Eldred, Act. 1.

We are taught by the law of nature that he which receiveth a
benefit oweth to his *benefactor*, honour, faith, and service according
to the proportion of the benefit received.

Spelman on Tythes, Introduction.

After the proclamation made, all the common people straight
threw down their weapons and targets at their feet, to clap their
hands with great shouts of joy; praying him [Demetrius] to
lead; and calling him aloud their saviour and *benefactor*.

North. Plutarch, fol. 735.

Here idle and useless, (and therefore necessitous) persons are
taught the best lessons, labour; toiled to it, and made acquainted
with it; and there sent out with such a stock of industry, as will
do them more real service than any other kind of *benefaction*, if
they will but make use of it, and improve it.

Atterbury. Sermon ii. v. 1.

A *benefactor* is not bound to comply with the demands of such
as ask unwarranted favours; though conscious, that he himself
might be apt to make an extravagant request, were it his turn to
be the object of another man's *benefaction*.

Atterbury. Sermon ix. v. 1.

A man of true generosity will study in what manner to render
his *benefaction* most advantageous, rather than how he may
bestow it with least expense.

Melmoth. Flisy, book vii. letter 18.

In the parable of the good Samaritan, the very point of the
story is, that the person relieved by him, was the national and
religious enemy of his *benefactor*.

Falgun. Evidences, chap. ii. p. 2.

But if thy sorrows are thy own, unaid'd
With my misfortune, let kindness zeal,
Let tenderest service of my grateful hand,
Strive to relieve the burthen which oppres
My *benefaction*.

Glover. The Alchemist, book viii.

BENEFICE, } *Beneficium*; Lat. *benefacio, be-*
BA'NIFICEN, } *neficiens, beneficentia, benef-*
BENEFICENCE, } *centia, benefice, beneficium*; Fr.
BENEFICENT, } *benefice*; as in Wicliif, (vide BA-
BENEFICELESS, } *neficiens*) any benefit or service. *Be-*
BANEFICIAL, n. } *neficius*, in feudal times was applied
BENEFICIAL, adj. } to the gratuitous donations of
BENEFICIALITY, } estates (in *beneficium*, *id est*, *num-*
BENEFICIALNESS, } *fructum*); to things given for
BENEFICIARY, } the benefit of the church (in *be-*
BENEFICIENCY, } *neficium ecclesie*). The appli-
cations of *beneficence, beneficence, and benefit*, are not
badly distinguished by Sir Thomas Eliot.

Beneficence is *benevolence* (i. e. good will, kind
wishes) "in operation or endeavour." It is the doing
or the endeavour to do an act of goodness, of kind-
ness; to do a favour, an advantage, a service.

And perchance grow provender, while you're pants late)
And bigger grow *benefice*.

Piers Plouman. Pisten, p. 39.

Ful thurthwe was his current courtage,
For he bodde getra him yet no *benefice*.
Ne was nought worldly to have an office.
Chaucer. The Prologue to the Knights Tale, v. 293.

The strong Coffer hath all desired
Under the keie of avarice
The treasure of the *benefice*,
Whereof the pious shoulde claime.

Gower. Conf. am. The Prologue.

All manner persons of holy church be subject to us and *beneficed*
to the realm of France and places subject to our father that
shall swear to keep this prelate accord, shall enjoy peaceably
their *benefice* of holy church in places next abovementioned.

Hall. King Henry V. Ann. 8.

For like as the lodestone draweth unto it yron, so dothe *benefi-*
ficence & well doing allure all men unto her.

Udall. Mark, cap. v.

And of the priest ethowen gas to enquire,
How to a *benefice* he might aspire.
Marie there (said the Friar) is set indeede.
Much good deeme learning out therout may reed,
For, that the ground-werke is, and end of all,
How to obtaine a *beneficiall*.

Spenser. Mother Hubbard's Tale.

The mayre called y^e citizens to the Gresham-halle, and shewed to
them the *beneficence* of the lordes, and wylled them y^e every
officer for his office, to devise such thynges as might be
beneficiall for the cytie.

Falgun. King Henry III. Ann. 1262.

Deliver it with such a myrtle, that to ease he repayre is not,
then must hee contentee he knowe it of thy free gyfte, and of
love. Let as well your love as your *beneficence* be both
franke & free.

Udall. Luke, chap. vi.

BENE-
FACTION.
—
BENE-
FICE.

BENE-
FICE.

In 1534 he [Richard Croke] commenced D. of D. at Cambridge, being then, or about that time, tutor to the King's natural son the Duke of Richmond then with him at King's College, and beneficed, if not dignified in the church.

Wind. Athens Omen. Church, v. l. fol. 105.

And that virtue [benevolence] if it be in operation, or (as I might say) endeavour, is called than *beneficence*; and the doer (vulgarily named a good house) may be called a *benefactor*.

Sir Thomas Elyot. Governor, p. 122.

That competency of means which our *beneficent* predecessors prize of.

Selden. Mir. of Antiquity, p. 190.

Some old men frugal nature so *beneficial* unto they, that their stomachs and livers are more strong to digest, than the young men same.

Sir Thomas Elyot. Castle of Health, p. 49.

Though the knowledge of these objects be commendable for their contentment and curiosity, yet they do not commend their knowledge to us, upon the account of their usefulness and *beneficialness*.

Hale. Origin of Mankind.

Beneficiary services were those, which were done by the middling or lesser Thanes to the King, and the greater Thanes either militarily in war or ministerially in peace.

Spreman. On Frades and Troures, fol. 40.

The fathers and children, the benefactors and the *beneficiary* shall knit the wreath, and bind each other in the eternal inclosures and circings of immortality.

Taylor. Sermon xiii. l. 123.

We long'd for the assembling of this parliament, as gladly as your *beneficiaries* the priests came up to answer the complaints and out-cries of all the shires.

Milton. Answered upon Remon. Defence, v. l. fol. 76.

They (the ungrateful) discourage the inclinations of noble minds, and make *beneficency* cool unto acts of obligation, whereby the grateful world should subside and have their consolation.

Brown. Chr. Mor. li. 17.

Contrary to common account he estimated every advantage of being useful and serviceable to God and men a rich *benefice*. So that his best patrons and *benefactors*, not who did him good, but who gave him the opportunity and means of doing it.

Tillotson. Dedication to Sermon xliii.

All mortals once *beneficently* great,
(As fume reports) and raised in heavenly state;
Yet, sharing labours, still they shun'd repose,
To shed the blessings down which they rose.

Parnell. On Queen Anne's Peace.

God also by his order of things designs, that a charitable intercourse should be maintained among men, mutually pleasant and *beneficial*: the rich kindly obliging the poor, and the poor gratefully serving the rich.

Burrow. Sermon xxxi. v. 1.

Where the church *benefices* are all nearly equal, none of them can be very great, and this mediocrity of *benefice*, though it may no doubt be carried too far, has, however, some very agreeable effects.

Smith. Wealth of Nations, book v. c. 1.

You dispense all the clergy of England now actually in office, for the chance of obliging a score or two, perhaps, of grantees, who are, or want to be, *beneficed* clergymen.

Burke. Speech on the Acts of Uniformity.

Whose work is without labour; whose design
No law demands, no difficulty thwarts;
And whose *beneficence* no charge requires.

Guyard. Task, book vi.

The number of indigent persons being also greatly increased, by withdrawing the aims of the monasteries, a plan was formed in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, more humane and *beneficial* than even feeding and clothing of millions; by affording them the means (with proper industry) to feed and clothe themselves.

Blackstone. Commentaries, iv. 432.

The true weakness and opprobrium of our best general constitutions is, that they cannot provide *beneficially* for every particular case, and thus fill, inadequately to their intentions, the circle of universal justice.

Burke. Tracts on the Popery Laws.

BENEFICE, in Law, generally signifies any ecclesiastical preferment except a Bishopric; and by stat. 13 Rich. II. Benefices are divided into *elective* and *donative*, and so also the Canon law considers them.

According to more strict and proper acceptation, the term *Benefice* is confined to Rectories and Vicarages. A *Benefice* must be given for life, and not for a term of years. The word, as is stated above, is borrowed from the feudal system, having formerly been applied to the portions of land given by Lords to their followers for service and maintenance, *ex mero beneficio*. Hence, as in the early church, the revenues of the clergy arose from the common stock distributed by the Bishop to the ministers in his jurisdiction, the similarity of his superintendence to that of the feudal Lord, induced a corresponding similarity of language regarding it. Sometimes, indeed, Benefices were conferred upon ecclesiastics by the lay Lord, on the same tenure as he would have given them to his lay vassals; namely, that they should provide men, as occasion required, to serve in the wars.

BENEFIT, v. i. See *BENEFERENCE*, and the citation there from Sir Thomas Elyot. To benefit; to do well for, good to; to serve, to advantage; to do a service, or advantage, to do any thing useful, profitable.

U enj man doj me a benefit, ojr helpe; me at nudo tch unknjnde agjans courtjeve.

Pierre Planchet. Fiston, p. 112.

The Norman was so farre as yet from *benefiting* either the English nation, or such as he ruled on them, that he never played the open tyrant, and was hated of them all.

Grafton. William Conquerour, Ann. 4.

When Jupiter this hart hath seen,
Another *benefice* there agree
He yale. *Gower. Conf. Am. book iii. fol. 52.*

And they that have faithful lordie displeas him not for the ben brotheren, but more serve thei for the ben faithful and loved which ben partneris of *benefice*.

Wulf. Tyme, vi.

So that they whyche have beleynge masters, displeas thei not because they are bretheren: but so muche the rather do service, for as much as they are beleuing and beloued, and partneris of the *benefice*.

Bible, 1351.

Ye have marvellously and worthily hurt your selves, and graciously provided except the Kings goodness be more unto you, than your owne desertes can claime that ye be not so muche worthe as to be *beneficed* in any kinde, as ye be worthe to lose that ye have on errie side.

Cherch. The hart of Scithian.

This noble King Cyrus was wont to say, that they who would not do good unto themselves, were constrained to *benefice* others.

Holland. Fitcher, fol. 332.

'Tis, perhaps, somewhat dangerous to affix a determinate value upon any of God's *benefits*: (for to value them seems to undervalue them, they being really inexhaustible:) what then is to estimate, to vilifie, to despise the greatest?

Burrow. Sermon viii. v. 1.

He now therefore found that such friends as *benefits* had gathered round him, were little estimable: he saw found that a man's own heart must be ever given to gain that of another.

Goldsmith. Vicar of Wakefield, ch. iii.

BENEGROE, be and negro, a word used in Sermons by Hewyt. See *NEGRO*.

And if at the coming and appearance of the humanity of Christ, the sun shall be *ben-greaf* in darkness, as a petty light at the coming of a greater; how if you cast an eye upon the life of God?

Hewyt. Sermons, (1656), p. 79.

BENEMPT, a word found in Spenser; also used by Thomson in imitation of Spenser. *Benamed*. Chaucer uses *neupne*. See *BENAMED*, and *NEUPNE*.

BENEMIT

BENE-
VENTO.

If thy rymes as round and full be as

As those that did thy Rosalinde complain,
Much greater gifts for garden thou shalt gain;
Then kid or colts, which I thee besought.Sperace. *Shakespeare's Calendar, November.*"I will," he cry'd "so help me God! destroy
That villain, Archimede!"—He gives them straight
He to him called, a fiery-footed boy,
Besought dispatch. *Thomson, Castle of Indolence, c. ii.*BENET, be and aet. Goth. aeti; A. S. aet, nyt;
perhaps from Goth. *nianan, natan, capere. Muzze antene,*
hominum captores. Dutche, *nette;* Ger. *nette;* Swe. *net.*To catch, inclose, cover, as with a net; to entangle,
to ensnare.HAM. Being thus beset round with villains,
Ere I could make a prologue to my brains,
They had begun the play.*Shakespeare. Hamlet, fol. 279.*

BENEVENTO, a small duchy of Italy, within the Principato Ultra of the Kingdom of Naples, but for several centuries annexed to the Papal States. In former times, it was equal in area to the Duchy of Spoleto; but it now consists only of the city of Benevento and a small surrounding district of about eleven square miles. It is situated in the valley of Beneventana, and comprises the city and seven villages and hamlets, with a population of about 24,000 individuals. Much of it is a fertile tract, producing excellent wine and fruit, besides feeding numbers of cattle, and yielding some corn; it has also many good springs, which increase its fertility.

This district anciently formed part of the territory of the Samnites, and was first erected into a duchy by the Lombards, in 571, in favour of Zotto, one of their leaders. The successor of this prince conquered a great part of the country which now constitutes the kingdom of Naples; but this afterwards passed into the hands of the Sicilians and the Normans. The modern duchy of Benevento, however, long maintained its independence, and was, in the eleventh century, granted to the Holy See by the Emperor Henry II. in exchange for some territorial jurisdiction he possessed at Bamberg. From that time it may be said to have remained in possession of the Church; for though there has scarcely been a sovereign of Naples who has not seized it, at least once, and sometimes oftener, in the course of his reign; it has always returned to the original possessor, and is perhaps a solitary instance of so small a principality, enclosed in the very heart of another kingdom, continually reverting, throughout eight centuries, to its first rulers. When Buonaparte became the chief director of the affairs of Italy, he availed himself of the disputes between the Neapolitan and Papal powers, to seize upon this duchy, which he conferred on his minister Talleyrand, whom he created Duke of Benevento. The Beneventine duchy acknowledged this new master as their legitimate sovereign for about ten years; and it does not appear, that, during that period, the natives had to complain of any abuse of power. The clear annual revenue which the sovereign received, was about 14,000 ducats, or £3,300.

Benevento, the capital of the preceding duchy, is situated on a steep declivity, and at the point of a hill between two narrow valleys; the one watered by the Sabato, and the other by the Calore, which unite into one stream a little below the town. Many good houses are found in this city, which is in general well built; but several of the most populous streets are narrow, and some of them so steep as to be impassable for

carriages. It is several miles in circuit, and contains about 18,000 inhabitants. Its population was estimated at a greater number in former times; but it experienced two dreadful visitations from plague and earthquake during the seventeenth century. Few places in Italy, except Rome, can boast of more antiquities than Benevento. The origin of this city seems to be hid in the obscurity of remoter ages; but there is no doubt that it was one of the principal towns of the Samnites, and one in which they frequently took refuge from the conquering armies of the Romans. Its name was then *Moleventum*, which the Romans, on taking possession of the place, changed into the more auspicious one which it still possesses. Besides the monuments of ancient times, which are still in a tolerable state of preservation, numerous fragments of altars, tombs, columns, and entablatures enter into the composition of the modern buildings. One of the most celebrated of these remains, is the triumphal arch which was erected A. D. 114, in honour of the Emperor Trajan. This monument is not only the most perfect as to preservation, but perhaps the best specimen of Roman workmanship existing; as the beauty of the materials which compose it, the taste displayed in the architectural parts, and the superior execution of the various masses of sculpture that adorn it, are equally conspicuous: among the last, the upper division, representing the apotheosis of the Emperor, nearly approaches to the perfection of the finest Grecian bas-reliefs. The arch is now one of the five gates by which the city is entered, and is called *Porta Aurea*. Benevento also possesses the remains of several other excellent pieces of sculpture, and those of a Roman amphitheatre. Its cathedral is of that mixed Saracenic architecture, which renders the edifices of the south inferior to the contemporary buildings of the northern regions. Near one of the town gates, an ancient monastery presents a good specimen of the style which prevailed during the early period of the lower Greek empire. The castle is of more modern date, and is said to have been built in the year 1323. The vicinity of Benevento has been the scene of several memorable conflicts. Near it, on the Appian way, stood the city of Caudium, at the narrow pass near which, so well known as the *Forca Caudina*, the Samnites obliged two Roman armies to pass under the yoke, in the year of the city 433. About fifty years afterwards, Pyrrhus was defeated in the same neighbourhood by the Consul Curius Dentatus. There also Charles of Anjou, King of Naples, triumphed over his rival Manfred, in 1266. Benevento has been the See of an Archbishop since 969, and has given birth to three Popes. It is situated about thirty miles north-east of Naples, in latitude 42° 7' north, and longitude 15° 36' east.BENEVOLENCE, } Lat. *benevolentia*, from *bene*
BENEVOLENT, } and *colo*, *volens*, *volentia*; Gr.
BENEVOLENTLY, } *βουλομαι*; to will.
BENEVOLENT, } Fr. *benecole*; well-willing,
friendly, kind, gracious, favourable.Fr. *benesolence*; a well-willing or good will."
Cotgrave. Puller chuses to write *benevolous* for *benevolent*.O leude books with thy foule rudenesse
Sith thou hast neither beaute nor eloquence
Who hath thee caused or yere thee hardnesse
For to speere in my indre pennesse
I am full sicker than knowest thy benivolence.
Chaucer. *The Cuckee and the Nightingale*, fol. 338. a. 1BENE-
VENTO.
BENEVO-
LENCE.

BENEVOLENCE. — **BENGAL.**
 And after that he rode about the more parts of the lande, and
 vied the people in such a fayre manner, that he rejoyed thirty notable
 summes of money, the which way of the levyinge of his money
 was after named a *benevolence*.
Foljens. Edward IV. Ann. 1478.

The king willing to shew that this benefit was to hym much
 acceptable, and not worthy to be put in oblivion called this grant
 of money a *benevolence*, notwithstanding that money with grudge &
 malice was given great summes toward that new *bénévolence*.
Hell. King Edward IV. fol. 227.

He hath made to the thyrs reasonable offers and this Godly motion,
 pryncing his holy alliance in God unto pynntes accordinge to right
 and reason, trusting in his counsell to be ayded and supported by
 his benevolent subjects and favourable will willers.
Id. King Henry F. fol. 43.

To whom his maiestie shall ever after beare so muche the more
 tender favour, in howe much he shall perceive you the more proud
 & benevolently minded toward his election.
Sir Thomas More. King Richards III. fol. 64.

When I remember, what incomparable goodnes hath ever
 proceed of this vertue *benevolence*, surely full God what myrie hartour
 this I, perceiving my eyes.
Sir Thomas Eliot. The Governour, book ii. c. ix.

If the chylde be of nature inclyned (as many have ben) to payre
 with a pen, or to *fourme* tongues in stones or tre, he shoulde not
 be therfrom withdrawn, or nature he reluked, whiche is to hym
benevolent.
Id. B. book i. c. viii.

A *benevolent* inclination is implanted into the very frame and
 nature of our chere's constitution.
Folies. Moderation of the Church of England, p. 309.

For my own part, amongst a thousand other obligations which I
 owe to my parents, I must particularly acknowledge that of instilling
 in early *benevolence* to mankind, in general, and a desire of
 fixing myself in the affections of one or more who should appear
 best qualified for so near an alliance.
Fisher, No. 314.

It is the *benevolent* passions only which can exert themselves
 without any regard or attention to propriety, and yet retain some-
 thing about them which is engaging.
Smith. Moral Sentiments, v. ii. p. 7. sec. ii.

Proper *benevolence* is the most graceful and agreeable of all the
 affections, it is recommended to us by a double sympathy; as its
 tendency is necessarily *benevolent*, it is the proper object of gra-
 titude and reward, and upon all these accounts it appears to our
 natural sentiments to possess a merit superior to any other.
Id. B. p. 7. sec. ii.

BENEVOLENCE, a name given in the *Chronicles* to a
 sum of money granted voluntarily by the subjects to the
 King. Hume mentions, that the practice first took place
 in the reign of Richard II. but the historian does not
 cite his authority; and Hume must be received with
 caution on points requiring antiquarian research. The
 "great journey" which Edward IV. undertook into

France, was provided for under this name. Fabyan
 states, that "the King rode about the more part of the
 lande, and used the people in such a fair manner, that
 they were liberal in their gifts, the which way of the
 levying of this money was after named a *Benevolence*."

Richard III. when he aimed at popularity, abolished
Benevolences by statute; and their abuse was one of
 the topics upon which the shallow Buckingham was
 instructed to enlarge on the hustings at Guildhall.
 The Duke's words have been preserved to us.

"Under the plausible name of *Benevolence*, as it
 was held in the time of Edward IV. your goods were
 taken from you much against your will, as if by
 that name was understood that every man should pay
 not what he pleased, but what the King would have
 him."

Notwithstanding this declaration of their illegality,
 Henry VII. our English Vespasian, issued a
 commission in 1491 for levying a *Benevolence*, under
 the pretext of a French war. (Rymer, xii. 446.) The
 commercial men, who were possessed of ready money,
 suffered most; and from London alone nearly £10,000,
 was exacted. The Chancellor Archbishop Morton
 employed a dilemma which was nicknamed Morton's
fork or crutch. If any one lived parsimoniously, he
 was told that his avarice must have enriched him; if
 any lived hospitably, it was inferred that his means
 were equal to his expenses. In 1495, under the
 same reign, this arbitrary mode of impost was authorized
 by Act of Parliament. Nevertheless, when
 Henry VIII. demanded a similar supply, the citizens
 of London appealed to the act of Richard III. Wolsey
 objected to Richard, that he was a murderer and a
 usurper. The Beckford of his day replied, that King
 Richard, conjointly with Parliament, had enacted many
 good statutes.

When Charles I. was unable to procure supplies in
 the regular form from his refractory Parliament, among
 other resources he attempted to raise a *Benevolence*.
 It was said by Lord Digby, that the granting of sub-
 sidies under so preposterous a name as a *Benevolence*,
 was a *malevolence*; and by Mr. Grimstone, that the
 nature of the thing agrees not with the name.

Charles II. with less desert had better fortune. By
 Act of Parliament (13 Car. II. c. iv.) a *Benevolence*
 was granted to him; but with a provision, that it should
 not be drawn into future example, as these *Benevo-
lences* were frequently extorted without a real and
 voluntary consent. The progress of national finance
 from *Benevolences* to Loans, is ably, though lightly
 sketched in a paper by Mr. D'Israeli, entitled *Taxation
no Tyranny*, (*Curiosities of Literature*, New Series, li.
 269.) which we have freely used above, and to which
 we refer our readers for fuller information.

BENGAL.

The province or *Sibah-dári* of Bengal, is bounded
 on the north by Népál, the Sikkim territory and Bútán,
 by Assam and Ava, or the Burman empire on the east,
 by the bay of Bengal on the south, and by the provinces
 of Oriss, Gondwánah and Bahár, on the west. Its

length may be estimated at 350, and its breadth at
 200 miles. The northern and eastern frontier of Bengal
 is guarded by a broad belt of uninhabited and almost
 impenetrable woods, the southern by the shallows and
 forests near the almost innumerable outlets of the

BENGAL. Ganges, and even on the west, the side most open to attack, a barren, thinly-peopled country presents a strong barrier against the progress of an invading army. The whole area of Bengal covers 97,944 square miles, and of this space one-eighth is occupied by rivers and lakes, one-sixth is waste, and three-eighths are in a state of tillage. The province is now subdivided into the following nineteen districts; to which may be added the principality of Cûch Bihâr.

- | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Bâcâr-ganj. | 11. Châtî-gâng. |
| 2. Jasar (Jestore.) | 12. Tippra. |
| 3. Hûglî. | 13. D'hâck. |
| 4. The Jungal Mahala. | 14. Maimeo-sing'h. |
| 5. The 24 Parganahs. | 15. Silhet. |
| 6. Nediâh. | 16. Râj-shâhî. |
| 7. Médî-pûr. | 17. Rang-pûr. |
| 8. Berd'hwân. | 18. Dinâj-pûr. |
| 9. Bîrh'hâm. | 19. Pûrniyâ. |
| 10. Murshid-âbâd. | 20. Cûch Bihâr. |

The greater part of the country forms one vast alluvial plain, descending imperceptibly to the sea, and annually covered by the inundations of the Ganges; this was anciently called Beng, and the higher lands, above the limit of the inundation, Varêndra or Barêndra. Near the sea, rice; further up, wheat and barley; in the middle districts, the mulberry; and in the northern and western divisions, the poppy are the primary objects of cultivation. Châtî-gâng (Chittagong) Silhet, and Bîrh'hâm are the only parts of the province which can be called mountainous; and even they are hardly deserving of that name. The rivers of Bengal, besides those gigantic streams, the Ganges and Brâhma-pûtra, (see GANGES, BRAHMA-PUTRA, and MEGNA,) are the Rûp-nârî, Damôdh, Tistâ, Cûram, Corotoyâ, Mânâs, Côt, and Cônki.

Lakes. The lakhs called j'hils, are rather morasses, or inundated valleys than lakes, in the proper sense of the word; but they are generally navigable for boats in the wet season. Embankments must of course be indispensable in such a country; and the sum allowed by government for their maintenance in 1815, amounted to 247,457 rupees (£30,932. 2s. 6d.)

Winds. The periodical winds, prevalent in the bay, extend their influence over the level country of Bengal; but are diverted by the ranges of hills, into different courses. Thus, in the southern and middle parts of Bengal, the prevalent winds are north and south; in Bihâr and Assam they are east and west; and these winds blow alternately through unequal portions of the year, nearly agreeing, in the period of their prevalence, with the hot and cold seasons. During April and May, storms and violent squalls from the north-west are frequent; in the beginning of June the periodical rains commence, and they last till the beginning or middle of September: they are usually accompanied and followed by excessive heat, which gradually diminishes as the year advances. Fogs are very frequent, and heavy dews fall, as the cold season comes on; when by means of evaporation, ice may be easily procured. This state of the atmosphere continues throughout the winter; and it may generally be said, that an almost continued dampness is the great characteristic of the climate of Bengal, which, combined with the effect of a tropical sun, must be peculiarly

BENGAL. injurious to the health of Europeans, and sufficiently accounts for the vast numbers of our countrymen who are annually its victims. The constant verdure and thick foliage, and innumerable flowering trees and shrubs, which everywhere embower the cottages and villages, are captivating to the eye, but do infinite mischief by preventing the circulation of the air, and giving shelter to a variety of noxious insects and reptiles. The extreme luxuriance of the vegetation is seldom checked by the natives, who are too indolent to undertake any labour which they can avoid, and who delight in being surrounded by thickets which screen their families, and especially their women, from observation. The variations of the barometer in this climate are extremely trifling; and that instrument now exhibits the remarkable phenomenon of diurnal tides in the atmosphere. In December and January, when the mercury stands at its greatest height, its mean elevation is 30·07 inches; and towards the end of February, it does not vary one-tenth of an inch above, or below thirty inches: the thermometer then ranges from 70° to 80° in the shade, but in December its maximum is 66°. The average annual fall of rain is the lower parts of Bengal, is from 70 to 80 inches.

The original soil seems to have been an unproductive soil.

sand, which is scarcely covered, in the lapse of thirty years, with vegetable mould in a sufficient quantity for agricultural purposes. This alluvial soil consists principally of clay, mixed up with a considerable portion of silicious matter, decayed vegetables and various saline substances, which together form a compost highly productive; and which, combined with the moisture and heat of the climate, account for a luxuriance and rapidity of vegetation almost unparalleled elsewhere. In a country so constituted, minerals must be rare; but in the hilly districts of Bîrh'hâm and Berd'hwân, iron ores are found in considerable quantities. In the tract subject to inundation, a singular and striking scene presents itself during the rainy season. Large sheets of water in which the passage of boats is impeded by ears of rice floating on the surface; stupendous mounds, at intervals, checking the progress of the inundation; peasants, with their families and cattle, embarked on rafts, and travelling to market or to the higher grounds; and cottages just raised, by the artificial mounds on which they are built, above the level of the water, are the objects which then appear, and, to a stranger, are surprising and interesting in the highest degree. Separate farm houses are unknown; the land is cultivated by peasants, who are in a state of great indigence, and live together in villages, as solitary habitations would be insecure in a country exposed to the ravages of ferocious beasts and more ferocious men, the pirates on the streams, and the banditti called Durais, whom the vigilance of the police has not yet entirely rooted out. The gross produce of the land was estimated, in 1793, at 329,130,000 rupees, (£41,198,750.) but this was probably too high.

Rice, the species of grain most generally cultivated, *Agricultra* is almost infinitely varied by the different seasons and situations in which it is grown; that reaped in the beginning of the winter is esteemed the best. Wheat and barley are sown at the commencement of the cold season, and are reaped in the spring. A great variety of pulse is sown, or reaped, in winter. Maize is almost

BENGAL confined to the western districts where the country is hilly, and the soil poor; and therefore not so fit for more valuable kinds of grain. Mustard, linseed, sesamum, and palma christi are cultivated, to a considerable extent, for the sake of the oils extracted from them, which, as well as that expressed from the cocoa nut, have a vast consumption. Most of these are sown in the cold season; the sesamum ripens at the close of the rains. Tobacco, cotton, indigo, the mulberry and the poppy require land peculiarly appropriated to them; and newly-cleared ground produces the largest crops of indigo, which also depends much upon an uniform supply of water. The plough of the Bengalese is peculiarly defective; they endeavour to remedy this by ploughing their land several times over, in different directions. A stage, such as is used in Arabia, and represented is one of Niebuhr's plates, is erected to the fields; and, for some time after the seed is sown, persons are mounted upon it for the purpose of scaring away birds and wild beasts. When ripe, the corn is reaped, the trodden out by cattle, and finally stored in jars of unbacked earth, or baskets made of large twigs, which are deposited in circular huts, raised a foot or two above the surface of the ground. The Bengali farmers have no notion of the rotation of crops, and in general a system of husbandry more defective, negligent, or improvident than theirs, can hardly be imagined. The tanks, or reservoirs, and embankments are in a miserable state of repair; for, though the digging a new tank is considered as a very meritorious act, and gives its author a splendid reputation, little or no merit is ascribed to one who merely renews that which is falling into decay; almost every tank therefore is soon choked up, and instead of being useful, becomes a public nuisance by the pestilential vapours which it exhales.

Small commons interspersed amongst the arable lands, and downs or forests in the hilly, less populous districts, provide the cattle with provender; grass is also cut for them when in the stall. Their dung is collected for fuel, for the native farmer has no idea of using manure for his ordinary crops. He applies it to the more valuable articles, and occasionally uses oil-cake for the sugar-cane.

Perseverance enables the Indian to attain the object of his toil in spite of his wretched implements; but want of capital prevents the subdivision of labour, and compels him frequently to turn from one branch of his trade to another, which he does with a degree of success that is daily remarked with surprise. Every manufacturer, artist, and labourer, performs every part of his business himself, from the construction of his tools to the sale of his produce in the market. Wages are extremely low, and at the usual hire of a plough is less than sixpence per diem, ten pence might be employed for about thirty shillings a week. The rice is cleaned by persons who undertake that work, on condition of returning five-eighths of the weight freed from the husk, and receiving the surplus for their pains. Five quarters per acre are accounted a large crop, and a return of fifteen for one on the seed. The labourers are usually hired servants; in some districts more commonly slaves; but they are humanely treated, as is generally the case with domestic slaves in other parts of Asia. A strong evidence of the actual improvement of agriculture in this province is afforded by the fact, that from

1790 to 1800, notwithstanding an increased export of grain, and a very extensive growth of sugar, indigo, and other articles, rice gradually became more abundant and lower in price than it ever had been before, since Bengal was ceded to the English; nor has there been any thing like a famine since 1770.

Orchards of Mangoes (*Mangifera indica*) ornament the plains in every part of Bengal: the Cocoa thrives within and on the borders of the Tropic; and the Date tree (*Phoenix dactylifera*) everywhere. The Palmetto, or Wild date, (*Elate sylvestris*) is more common in Bahár; plantations of Areca are found in the central parts of the province; the Basain, or Indian Butter tree, abounds in the hilly districts. Bamboos are plentiful wherever they are planted; and Potatoes have been introduced with success by the Europeans.

The consumption of animal food is hardly sufficient to render the rearing of cattle so profitable as it might be, considering the very low rate at which stock can be grazed. Half, or even a quarter of a rupee (i. e. 1s. 3d. or 7½d.) per annum, are the prices usually paid for a buffalo, or a cow. The tath's or horses are a miserable breed, unfit for labour; bullocks alone are used in the plough and the team. The sheep are dark grey and lean, but when carefully fattened make excellent mutton. The streets are infested by dogs, whom nobody owns; and jackals inhabit every thicket. Apes and monkeys swarm, and are often fed by devout Hindús, being sacred animals. The Bráhmans or sacred ox rambles about unmolested, and is often fed by the people, who consider this a very meritorious act. Crows, kites, mynads, (*Coracias indica*) and sparrows are seen everywhere; and the stork, called adjutant by the European soldiers, from his erect stature, gait, is almost as common as the insects and reptiles on which he feeds. Fish is extremely plentiful. The bicti, or cockup, and the mable-fish are excellent; but the Maagoe-fish, (*Polynemus paradiseus*) which appears in the season of that fruit, is perhaps the best fish in the whole world. The mullet and oysters are of a high flavour, but the turtle is of a small kind, and a bad quality.

The staple productions of Bengal are tobacco, sugar, cotton, silk, and indigo. Tobacco was introduced into India, by Europeans, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, and was too congenial with the habits of the Asiatics not to come very soon into general use. It requires a good soil, and is not much cultivated beyond the northern districts. It may be procured in Calcutta for about eight shillings per maund of 80lbs. including all charges.

The sugar-cane is supposed to have been introduced, at a very remote period, from India into Arabia, whence it was carried to Egypt, and thence to Sicily and Spain. There is scarcely a district in Bengal in which it does not flourish; but the hilly tracts are those in which it thrives most. The maund (80lbs.) of raw sugar seldom sells for more than 18s. 6d. in the Calcutta market.

The finest kind of cotton is grown only in the more eastern parts of the province; a coarse sort is produced everywhere, and a great deal is imported from the Dakhn and the Deccan, in which the best is produced near Nág-púr, and sells there for £25. per cwt. Silk is principally obtained from the district of Berd'hwan, and the banks of the Bhágrat'á and Great Ganges. The Company's investment is made

Fruits.

Cattle.

BENGAL, principally at Máláú, Rang-púr, and Kásim-bázár. Much is also procured from wild silk-worms. There is also a very considerable import and export trade in this article.

Indigo, which derives its name from India, has been cultivated there from time immemorial; but that produced in America had driven the Asiatic manufacture out of the market, till the exertions of a few individuals brought back this branch of trade to its old channels. The whole quantity produced in Bengal in 1807-8, was not less than 120,000 factory maunds, and the total sold at the East India Company's sales in 1810, amounted to 5,253,489 lbs., and netted £1,949,328. In 1814, 102,584 factory maunds (8,200,000 lbs.) were entered in the Custom-house at Calcutta.

Commerce.

Grain and salt are the principal articles of the internal, as piece-goods, silk, saltpetre, opium and indigo are the staple commodities of the external trade. Muslins, calicoes, dimities, sack-cloth, canvases, and silks, saltpetre and opium, are the manufactures which are carried on throughout the province, frequently on a large scale. Leather has been made with considerable success, and rum, little inferior to that of Jamaica. These, with many other articles, can now, since the freights have been so much reduced, be exported to Europe with advantage.

The number of articles at present brought from Bengal might easily be augmented; as it can hardly be doubted that anatto, (*Bixa orellana*) coffee, cocoa, cochineal, and tea would succeed in this and the adjoining provinces. Madler grows wild in the neighbouring mountains. Galls, turmeric, safflower, (*Carthamus*) myrobolans, morinda roots, and blossoms of the nyctanthes, very useful for giving permanent colours to silks and cottons; gum arabic, olibanum, and a great many other gums and resins; various medicinal drugs and vegetable oils; tincl, procured from Tibet, with alkalis, both vegetable and mineral, may be procured in large quantities, and at very low rates, and yet they are hardly imported by our merchants from this part of India. The trade between Bengal and the different coasts of the Indian Ocean is very considerable. To Madras it sends grain, pulse, sugar, molasses, saltpetre, ginger, long pepper, clarified butter, oil, silk, muslins, spirits, and provisions; and receives in return salt, red wood, long cloth, izáris, (striped calicoes for trousers) and chintzes, with a balance in specie. To China, the next great mart for goods from Calcutta, besides the exports named above, iron and fire-arms are sent, tutenague, sugar-candy, tea, allum, dammer, (tar) porcelain, lakered wares, and other manufactured articles are returned. To Bombay, in addition to the first named articles, sacking and hempen ropes; and from the retroins are teak timber, (Tectona) ivory, and lac. To Persia and Arabia the first named articles are sent; and to the Persian Empire, in addition to them, fire arms and military stores. From the Eastern Islands pepper, tin, wax, dammer, brimstone, gold-dust, betel nut, spices, benzoin, &c. and specie; from Manila, indigo, sugar, and sapan wood; from the coast of Malabar, sandal wood, coir rope, pepper, and cardamoms are sent in return for the exports stated above. The various European goods sent out to India are too well known to need any specification here.

Notwithstanding the vast advantages attending

an almost universal facility of water carriage, the internal trade of Bengal is far from being so great or so profitable as it ought to be to the cultivators of the soil. Rice, the true staff of life in a country so easily irrigated, is carried in December or January, when the peasants, at a distance from large towns, if without means of carrying their grain to market, and if too poor to keep their grain till prices have risen, are a prey to opulent speculators, who can make a monopoly and fix the prices at their own discretion. When the sowing time returns, the cultivator is compelled to purchase his rice for seed at the most exorbitant rate, and is often reduced to the necessity of having recourse to a mortgage, which must always be ruinous; especially when the rate of interest is so high as it is in India.

The various kinds of vessels used in this inland navigation, and the cheapness with which they are constructed, are highly deserving of notice. Each is well adapted to the country for which it is designed: flat, slight boats are used in the shallow streams of the western districts; low, deep, vessels in the Eastern Sea, full of creeks and inlets; lofty-sided barks navigate the main stream of the Ganges, where an impetuous swell and frequent squalls would perpetually endanger boats of a lighter make. The expense also of building these vessels is a mere trifle: a circular board lashed to a bamboo, for the oar; a triangular frame sufficiently ballasted, for the anchor; a mast made of some bamboos bound firmly together; a yard formed of the same material; a sail of coarse sacking; rope made from the rushy *cratallaria*, or *bemphike hibiscus*, very common plants; resins from trees in the woods, to pay the seams, and a thatch of straw to secure the goods and answer the purpose of a deck; are all that is required for their complete equipment; and there are perhaps not less than 300,000 of them employed in the two provinces of Bengal and Bahár.

For land carriage there are not the same facilities, nor is it so much used. Except the great military road from Calcutta to Benáres, there are no ways but such as are merely beaten paths. Want of good materials and liability to inundation, must always render the construction of carriage roads expensive and difficult; and the poverty of the agricultural part of the population would prove a great bar to the establishment of tolls, as in England and America.

The trade, carried on by the Company, is regulated, in the first instance, by the Board of Trade, which consists of two members and a nominal president, a member of the Supreme Council. Subordinate to this Board there are sixteen commercial agents stationed at different places, and assisted by one gentleman in the civil service, with several native officers. Their business is the purchase of the Company's investments. The expense of this establishment amounted to 1,496,559 rupees (£178,319. 17s. 6d.) in 1813.

Iláts, or open markets, held on fixed days, in an open plain, and marked by a flag, were anciently the only places at which commercial transactions took place; shopkeeping, which is still rather uncommon in remote places, appears to have been introduced by the Mhaummedans. Bázárs are an assemblage of shops collected into one building, or area; nod gunjs, or bunders, are grain markets and ports on the canals and branches of the river, in which merchants or retail

Water carriage.

Roads.

Commercial regulations.

BENGAL traders commonly resided. The markets of these places are now under the protection of the nearest police officer, but much is still wanting to render his superintendence completely efficient.

Currency. The currency consists of cauries (cowries) and rupees, for gold is rarely seen out of Calcutta; and the former alone is used for small change. In this, as in most other points, the ignorance and improvidence of the lower orders make them the dupes of their wealthier neighbours. The potdars, or money-changers, a very numerous class, often have no shop, but sit in the open market, with heaps of cauries placed before them. In the morning they give cauries in exchange for silver, at the rate of 5,760 for a rupee; but in the evening will not receive them again at a lower rate than 5,920 for the same sum, thus making a profit of nearly 3 per cent. upon good mint money, besides the fluctuating exchange on clipped or debased coin. Advances also are made by these harpies to servants who are paid in monthly wages; and who thus lose from 65 to 70 per cent. in the course of the year.

Population. Various estimates of the population of these provinces have been made at different times, but rather from conjecture than from any well authenticated documents; the result of the most accurate statements so far from making the conjectural estimates appear exaggerated, shews that they are greatly below the truth. The sum total for Bengal alone, appears to be 25,306,000; and there are very strong grounds for believing this number to fall short of the real amount.

The smaller villages are surprisingly numerous, and line the banks of the rivers as thickly as in the most populous parts of China. Few things can be a more pleasing evidence of the happiness and prosperity of the people, than the cheerful, bustling, multitudes of men, women, children, poultry and cattle, all mixed and crowded together, which continually meet the traveller's eye, as he sails, or is towed along from place to place. All shew a sense of security, and an appearance of happiness, which will be sought for in vain beyond the limits of the Company's territories. Even the pirates and banditti, the worst evils of which Bengal has now to complain, have been very effectually checked, and there is reason to expect, that in a few years they will be completely extirpated.

Revenue. The revenue is derived, in great measure, from assessments on the land; made in consequence of the system established by the Moghuls. According to their notions the conqueror is proprietor of the soil; it is therefore highly probable that the zemindars, or landholders, were considered by them merely in the light of agents commissioned to collect the revenue. It is also equally probable, that grants were made in favour of the Râjâs who had before enjoyed an independent authority, and who must of course have great influence over the people. These, whether considered as tributary chiefs, or as feudatories, were all looked upon as officers of the Sultân by the Musulman lawyers, and were considered as holding their lands in virtue of their office, and therefore as liable to suspension or removal at the Sultân's pleasure. The cultivator, called ryot, (râya) was considered as a tenant paying rent, and the zemindâr as a steward receiving that rent on behalf of the crown. The standard for the regulation of the rates is lost, but it is known that it was never in excess a fourth part of the gross produce

of the soil; and the division of the crop between the zemindâr and the ryot, was either an equal portion to each, or one-third to the former, and two-thirds to the latter. Thus five-fifteenths was the smallest portion ever assessed by the Mohammedans, while three-fifteenths appear to be more than was ever exacted by the Hindû Sovereigns. It is not clear whether any thing like an hereditary authority was considered as vested in the zemindâr, even under the Hindû princes; though the same lands were often allowed to descend from father to son for many generations. At present, however, they have been declared proprietors of the soil, and the assessment on their estates has been irrevocably fixed by a valuation made during the administration of Lord Cornwallis. Besides this assessment, or jamâ, levied on the zemindârs, there is an excise or âb-câri (i. e. a duty on spirits); rates or âyir, levied on personal property; and the customs imposed as import duties; together with tolls at the entrance of twas, on canals, &c.; stamp duties to a small extent, and a tax on the pilgrims to Budd'hâ Gayâ, Jagannâth in Orissâ, Prayâg at the conflux of the Ganges, and Jannâh near Allah-âbâd.

The government of this presidency is vested in the Supreme Council, consisting of the Governor-general and three councillors. The former is appointed by the King, the latter are chosen by the Court of Directors from the civil servants of at least twelve years standing. For the administration of justice, there is one supreme court at Calcutta; six courts of appeal and circuit, and forty-six inferior magistrates, stationed in as many different towns or districts.

The courts of circuit are formed by three judges, with an assistant and active officers. The circuits are held at stated times. Criminal causes are tried by the Mohammedan law, in form and name, but so modified as to approach nearly in fact to our own; and capital punishments are not executed till the sentence has been confirmed by the sâdmat khâdâ, or supreme criminal court at Calcutta. The district magistrates, or judges as they are often called, have each a registrar, and one or more of the junior civil servants as assistants, with native lawyers, Musulman, and Hindû. An appeal lies from their sentence, in almost all cases, to the provincial court within the jurisdiction of which they reside. These magistrates have the power of apprehending and securing felons. Each district, or zillah, is subdivided into portions of about twenty miles square, in each of which a darogah, or head police officer is stationed: he has a body of armed followers under his orders, and authority to apprehend, on receiving a warrant from the magistrate. The average size of a district in this presidency is about 6,000 square miles. The ultimate court of appeal in civil causes, is the sedr dîwânî Adalat, which sits at Calcutta. If the property contested amounts to £5,000, there is an appeal from the sentence of this court to the King in council. In civil causes the respective codes of the Mohammedans and Hindûs are generally followed. In 1793, regular advocates, educated at the Mohammedan and Hindû colleges at Calcutta and Beâres, were appointed to plead in these courts, for fees regulated by law. These advocates are effectual checks on the negligence or misconduct of the judge and his assistants, as they are well acquainted with the laws, rules, and practice of the court. If one of the Company's servants is convicted of having received

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Govern-
ment.Courts of
justice.

BENGAL, a present from any of the parties, his offence is deemed a misdemeanour in law. Written pleadings are allowed, and written evidence must sometimes be admitted, when the witnesses are women, to whose appearance in public the Asiatics have so great a dislike. Suits between native and British subjects, or between the latter alone, are determined before the supreme court of judicature, with an appeal to the King in council. A chief justice, with two puisne judges, nominated by the crown, constitute this court. It is held at Calcutta; and a jury formed from the British residents exclusively, decides the cause in criminal actions; the court alone in civil cases. There are fourteen attorneys, and six barristers, attached to this court.

Private war and assassination, crimes which the weakness of former governments had fostered, are now no longer frequent: though a class of people named *thugs*, seem still to persevere in the commission of murder, notwithstanding the vigilance of the police. Incursions from banditti, on the north-eastern frontiers, are still far from uncommon. Theft and house-breaking are but too prevalent, though the establishment of *chokidars*, or watchmen, has done much towards their suppression. A crime of the most frequent occurrence in this country, though almost unknown elsewhere, is the murder of children. Neighbours, friends, and relations, are often the perpetrators of these horrid acts; and the trinkets with which the child is decorated, are temptations which they cannot resist. Much attention is paid to the state of the jails, and the health of the prisoners. The superintendents of the Police, officers appointed in 1812, visit each district in rotation, and make a report of the offences that have been committed, to the Governor-general in council, that the actual state of the country may be known to the Supreme Government as soon as possible.

National character.

The population of Bengal consists of a mixed multitude, drawn from various quarters, and for the most part bearing evidence in their complexion, features, and character, of the stock from which they are derived. In the northern mountains, their face betrays a Tatar origin; on the eastern hills, and adjoining plains, a peculiar, but very distinct turn of countenance prevails; and the high land on the west is occupied by several tribes of mountaineers, still more or less uncivilized, and manifestly differing in religion, manners, and language from the Hindūs. They have been conjectured to be, like the negroes of the Eastern Archipelago, the original occupiers of the soil, now driven into the woods and fastnesses by the progress of more civilized nations who have invaded their country. Among the inhabitants of the central plains, the Mohammedan is easily distinguishable from the Hindū; and even the different classes of the former, the Moghul, Afghan, and descendants of converts to the Mohammedan faith, may be recognised without difficulty. The native Bengalees are gentle and submissive; they have been accused, though unjustly, of cowardice; they are artful and fraudulent, as well as indolent and thriftless; but ignorance, and the want of a stimulus to industry, will sufficiently account for their principal defects.

Flattering pictures indeed have been drawn of the moral character of the natives, but they were suggested, no doubt, by partial and erroneous views. The Protestant

BENGAL Missionaries have given a very different delineation; they may, however, be suspected of having been misled by gloomy and enthusiastic notions; narrow views of human nature, and an unwillingness to distinguish between pardonable ignorance and voluntary crime; it will, therefore, be desirable to obtain information from a source, the purity of which cannot be controverted. The records of the courts, and reports of the magistrates furnish precisely that species of evidence; and from them we learn that robbery, even when accompanied by great atrocities, neither occasions remorse in the offenders, nor renders them the objects of public scorn and hatred; that a general want of moral principle is so obvious in both Mohammedans and Hindūs, the lower classes of the former having adopted many idolatrous usages of the latter; that the bloody and execrable worship of *Cālī* is considered as sanctifying the most atrocious acts; that perjury is hardly considered as a crime; that the depraved character of the Hindū mythology, and the Mohammedan doctrine of fatality, have a most powerful influence upon the moral sentiments and habits of the people.

The leading defects in the criminal law of Mohammed Law. have been corrected in the practice of our Indian tribunals, by the abolition of mutilation, pecuniary commutation for murder, and acquittal in default of proof of actual intention to assassinate. It is satisfactory to observe, that without any distinct notion of the principles of our jurisprudence, the natives have, in general, great confidence in the integrity of the Company's servants, and of the difficulty of attaining their ends by improper means. Perhaps they may, in the course of time, be induced to substitute honest industry and exertion for their habitual cunning and intrigue.

Most of the zemindars, or landholders, have been Zemindars, reduced by their improvidence to distress and beggary. Dissipation and extravagance involve them in difficulties; indolence and false pride induce them to intrust the management of their estates to unprincipled and rapacious agents; and an almost universal insensibility to any but immediate consequences, hurries them on to ruin. In some cases their estates have been over-assessed, though the government has spared no pains to make the charges uniformly equitable. The Brāhmans, besides enjoying several exemptions granted Brāhmans. to their caste and functions, frequently act as directors of their patron's conscience, and exert a concealed influence over his public conduct. This gives the members of that sacred order many considerable advantages in the management of their secular concerns.

The law of inheritance, among both Mohammedans Law of in- and Hindūs, divides the testator's property equally heritance. among all his heirs: and is consequently the source of endless disputes and enmity, checks any disposition to improve or ornament the estate, and effectually prevents the landed proprietor from acquiring that stability and consideration which would render him useful to his family and the state. Those who are inclined to quarrel with the European privileges of primogeniture, need only look into the modern history of Bengal, to be convinced of the mischief arising from the opposite system. These and other causes have now thrown the wealth of the country into the hands of merchants and traders in the great towns, and it is probable, that persons of that class are well satisfied with our government; as they can have little ambition

BENGAL. to rise in the army or the state, from which their rank precludes them, and must feel strongly the superior degree of security which they enjoy in the Company's dominions. The lower classes also are probably attached to their European rulers. The police, though not quite so effective as it might be, has done much towards repressing atrocious crimes; while outrages and oppression on the part of the government are unknown; a state of things unparalleled in the rest of Asia, and especially in the dominions of the native Indian powers.

Writers.

All the commercial, political, financial, and judicial offices, with a few exceptions, are filled by the civil servants of the Company, who are sent out under the name of Writers, having been merely clerks and supernumeraries, as long as the Company had nothing more than a trading factory near the coast. Eighteen is the earliest age at which they can now leave England; after having resided in India for three years they are eligible to an office of the value of £500. per annum, after six, to one of £1500., after nine, to one of £3000., and to one of £4000. and upwards, after twelve years. Thirty is about the number annually sent. The whole expense of the civil service in Bengal, amounted, in 1811, to £1,045,400. Diplomatic residents, usually selected from among the civil servants, are stationed at the courts of Delhi, Haiderabad, Luk'nanu, (Lucknow,) Travancor, Maloor, Nagpore, Puna, and the residence of Daulat Râd Sind'hyâ.

Army.

The number of native troops, called Sepoys, (Sipâhîs,) or soldiers, was in 1811, 207,579, including 182,838 regulars, besides 5,875 invalids, making a total of 213,000. The non-commissioned officers are natives; those who have commissions are Europeans; and the number of the latter, in this Presidency, was then 2,024. About 23,000 of the King's troops, also, are commonly stationed in India, and occasion no expense to the Company of about £160,000. per annum.

Education.

The native children are early taught the elements of reading. About the age of five, they are sent to the village schoolmaster, who assembles them under the shade of a spreading tree, makes them trace the letters in the sand, first consonants, then vowels; and proceeding, much in the same way as in our admirable National Schools, teaches them to read and write in five or six months. They are next occupied for a year, in learning to write with a reed and ink, on the leaves of the *Palmeira*, (*Elate Sylvestris*;) and are also instructed in the rudiments of arithmetic, and learn by art the tables of weights and measures. Writing on paper and the elementary rules of summing are the finish of their education: and the arithmetic necessary for agricultural and commercial purposes is taught separately. Book-keeping and mensuration are learned practically in some shop or office, where the youth is received at first as an assistant. The Hindûs anciently wrote, as they still do in the Peninsula, with iron styles, on the narrow leaves of the *Palmeira*; but in Bengal reeds have been substituted for them. Their books are formed of separate leaves filed on iron pins with a flat strip of wood, to serve as a guard, at top and bottom. The whole is tied with a string, and wrapped up in a cloth. One rupee is paid for every 35,000 letters; and at that rate the Mahâbhârat would cost 60 rupees, (about £8.); the Râmâyana 24, (£3.), and the Sri Bhâgavat 18,

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(£2. 10s.). Divinity, Law, and Astrology are almost the only sciences now studied; and learning has evidently been long on the decline.

Towns.

The towns are divided into different quarters, each of which is allotted to a different trade or nation. The Portuguese occupy one, the Mussulmans another, the Hindûs a third; but this is not always strictly observed. The houses are huts, with sloping roofs, resembling an inverted boat. These huts are called *bangla*, whence the English borrowed the term *banglow*, which in India is synonymous with 'cottage,' and is so often misapplied. The houses of the rich differ more in number than in form or materials from those of the poor; for they are merely a collection of huts within the same enclosure. Walls of mud, reed-burdles, or split bamboos; a floor raised a foot or two above the ground outside; and occasionally a platform of bamboos at one end within, as a sleeping place and retreat in time of floods, constitute the whole of these habitations. The door is generally the only opening for the admission of light and air, even among the houses of the great, few have any thing like windows. Different apartments are seldom made in the same house; but separate huts are constructed when more rooms than one are wanted. The inconvenience and insalubrity of such slight, damp, and ill ventilated dwellings, may be easily conceived; and when the great resemblance which they bear to the huts of the Booshannas in Southern Africa is considered, it will appear how little the Bengalees are yet advanced in civilisation. In towns the houses are of brick, and flat-roofed, two stories high, and sometimes consisting of a body and two wings, the whole enclosed by a high wall: in the first story the family God resides, and the family occupies the rooms below. On each side of the court below are verandas, or open galleries, which are filled with spectators on holidays, when religious ceremonies are performed. The apartments have scarcely any article of furniture, except a loose mat, some utensils of brass, a hukkah, or spiral tobacco-pipe, and a few dishes for pân, or betel nut, (*Piper Betle*.) An empty house, or shed, is the only accommodation which a traveller can procure; and as these are rarely to be met with, except in towns, which are often remote from each other, it is frequently necessary to quit the straight line of road in order to get a night's lodging. The religion of the Brâhmans prescribes works of beneficence for the purpose of gratifying the Gods, not for the good of men; any real regard, therefore, for public utility seldom enters into the views of the devout Hindû who plants a grove, digs a tank, or makes a road. Provided the meritorious work be completed, it matters not whether it be of use or a nuisance. The trees may do nothing but afford a cover for tigers, the tank may soon become a stinking puddle, and the road may lead to no place but to the paltry family-temple of the founder.

In diet the natives are commonly abstemious, but Diet preparations of hemp and opium are often used, spirituous liquors very rarely, for purposes of intoxication. Their principal meal is made in the evening. In the morning and at noon, parched or parboiled rice is eaten, seasoned with molasses, sour or curdled milk, or tamarinds. A little water, a salt or some acid fruit are substituted for those luxuries the poor. Milk is never used as it comes from the cow, but always boiled, or dressed in some way or other. Butter also

BENGAL. Is always boiled before it is used. That process converts it into ghí, which keeps well, and may be used a year after it has been prepared. Their sweetmeats, fried in oil or butter, are very far from pleasing to an European palate.

Labour. A labourer in some districts cannot earn more than a penny or twopence *per diem*: but fuel, herbs, and fruit can be got for nothing; scarcely any clothing is necessary; and his wife spins and weaves cotton enough for her husband and herself, and the children go naked. The hateful distinction of caste annihilates every feeling of humanity towards persons of an inferior class: they are held to be accursed by the Gods, and kindness to them is considered unworthy of those who are favoured by heaven. Common fowls are held to be impure by the Hindús, but they are reared in abundance by the Mohammedans and Portuguese. Ducks and pigeons are lawful food, and therefore plentiful; geese are kept as pets, but rarely sold; and turkeys are only to be met with among the descendants of the Portuguese. Dogs are no favourites, and, as well as cats, are merely tolerated. In this, as with regard to their fellow-creatures, the fallacy of the Hindú system of morals is manifest; to kill a dog in order to relieve him from a lingering death, would be a heinous crime; but to feed or treat him kindly is no virtue. Even the children shew no disposition to play with or handle those animals. They wander about half starved, and in a wretched condition. The Bráhmán's bulls are another absurdity created by the same system of false humanity: they are sacred beasts, consecrated to Siva at the death of some great man; the cows, who are married to them on the same occasion, are given to the Bráhmáns; but the sacred bull is turned loose, marked to secure him from harm, and authorized to devour whatever he finds to his taste.

Person and features. The natives of Bengal are generally handsome and lively; they have a soft expression of countenance, and mildness of character; their manners are highly polished; to superiors they are excessively humble and obsequious; to inferiors haughty and insolent: when young, they are quick and inquisitive; and would probably be much improved by their intercourse with Europeans, but for the supreme contempt for other nations, created by the notion of their being degraded Hindús. They are small, and well made, but thin; have an olive tint, black hair and eyes, an oval face, and frequently aquiline noses.

Dress. The indigent wear scarcely any clothing, nothing more than a rag round their waists: the rich when out of doors dress much as the Mohammedans; within the house they usually resume their old national costume, which consists merely of different pieces of cloth twisted round the body, and having one end tucked into the folds. Needle-work seems to have been unknown to the genuine Hindús; their language has not even a word to express sewing. Nothing is worn on the head. The women are peculiarly fond of trinkets, and rub red lead on their foreheads; their teeth they blacken with a preparation of vitriol and iron filings. Rings, bracelets of shell lac round the arms, and bangles of mother of pearl, are favourite ornaments; and proud is the woman who bears herself described as walking like a duck, or an elephant; having teeth as black and red as the seeds of the pomegranate; a nose like a parrot's beak; hands and feet as wide

spreading as the water-lily; a chin as plump as a mango; and lips as red as the fruit of the *táladúba*. Widows of a pure caste are stripped of their much-loved ornaments, condemned to sleep on the ground, exposed to damp and vermin, and obliged to act as menial servants to the young and handsome, who are decked out in the finery of which they have been robbed. Can we wonder, then, that they should often prefer the funeral pile, with an expectation of bliss in another world, to the certainty of misery in this?

The music of the Indians is as harsh and inharmonious, as their dancing is lifeless and ungraceful. Hymns, or rather love-songs, in honour of Krishna, the Indian Apollo, and his favourite Rád'há, sung by the boatmen while rowing on the rivers, are the only airs that have any thing like melody. The different trades are confined to different castes, some of them very low, and held in great contempt. Tailors' work was, it seems, unknown to the Hindús, and almost all who follow that business are Mussulmans. The barbers, who pare nails and pick ears, as well as shave heads, are a pure caste, and consequently well paid. A woman who cuts her hair is esteemed to commit a breach of delicacy, and none but very immodest ones ever smoke. Paper was introduced by the Mohammedans, and is usually made by them. The Bengalese artificers are generally clumsy and indolent; and their work in metals has none of the finish which distinguishes the blades of Damascus, and the filigree of Tunis.

Domestic slavery is allowed by law; but the slaves are kindly treated, and considered as members of the family. The number of these slaves, or the proportion they bear to the free population, has never been estimated, as it has been deemed unsafe to institute inquiries for that purpose. The marriage of slaves is never impeded; many children therefore are born in that condition; but few of such are sold, as it is reputed discreditable to sell them, and their manumission is considered as an act of piety. The demand for slaves, which always exists, must be answered by some other means; and parents themselves, who are reduced by famine, war, or other misfortunes, are usually the persons who supply the market. Want, and inability to provide for their children, not the desire of gain, seems to be the real motive for what at first appeared so inhuman. The prices, moreover, given for infants are extremely small, except in two cases; either when the purchaser is a Bráhmán of some religious order, who wishes for a disciple to assist him in carrying on his trade of begging and fleeing the vulgar; or when he is the master of a troop of dancing girls and prostitutes, who wishes to replenish his stock. Formerly a few slaves were imported by Arab vessels from the coast of Africa, and the Górk'há's were driven, by the oppression of their rulers, to wander into the Company's territory, and sell themselves or their children. The latter evil has ceased to exist with its cause, and our own abolition laws have put a stop to the former. Slaves are now placed, as well as free men, under the protection of the law.

The Mohammedans may be estimated at one-seventh of the whole population; the three first classes, Bráhmáns, Chattríes, and Vaisnús, make up about one-fifth; and it may be observed, that none but Bráhmáns and Sôdás are of genuine Bengalese

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Music and
mechanic
arts.

Slavery.

Mohammedans and
Hindús.

BENGAL. origin. The Brāhmins of this country are looked up to throughout Hindūstān; they are all said to have descended from five families introduced from Cnōj (or Cānya cubja) a few centuries before the Moham-medan conquest. The first in rank are the Cālinas. Of the Sūdras, the Vaidyas, or medical tribe, rank first; next the Cāyasthas (or Cāstis,) who are the writers or accountants. There are also nine other tribes of uncontaminated Sūdras, from whom a Brāhman may condescend to receive a cup of water. The trade or profession of the individual is not so much shackled by the restriction of caste as might be supposed; for it is a maxim generally received, that a preference of the prescribed occupation is all that is required: so that Brāhmins are frequently met with exercising the profession of a cshattri (soldier), or even the humble ones of a sūdra (labourer.) The purity of caste is maintained by a sort of clubs or lodges, called dōla, which are again subdivided into smaller societies of a similar description. The office of Chief in these societies is hereditary; and in large towns, where there are many of them, they generally annoy each other as much as circumstances will allow. Animal food is by no means universally proscribed among the Hindūs; and one order of mendicants, the Āg'bhā-pant'b, have been even suspected of cannibalism.

Religious rites. A rigid observance of the frivolous and laborious ceremonies prescribed by their religion, is the thing in which all genuine Hindūs most particularly glory. Their dead ought, strictly, to be burnt; but those who cannot afford to raise a funeral pile, stick a whisp of straw into the mouth of the corpse, and throw it into the nearest river. To the rivers also they carry their expiring friends when all hope is over, and leave them to die without assistance, or frequently to be devoured by sharks or tigers. The self-inmolation of their widows is connected with these deplorable superstitions: it has lately been so far checked by police regulations, as to prevent the unhappy woman from being compelled to ascend the pile.

Enough has been already said to enable the reader to make a pretty fair estimate of the moral character of the Bengalese; but it may perhaps be proper to add, that truth and honesty are so little in request among them, as never to be looked for, and scarcely to be even desired. "In Bengal," we are told, "a man of real integrity is a wonderful phenomenon," and "one, conscientious in his whole conduct, may be safely pronounced to be an unknown character." The Mohammedan faith certainly might correct many of these defects, and the word of a conscientious Mussulman may be safely trusted; but in India, the lower classes of both religions resemble each other so closely, that a description of the vices of the one is almost wholly applicable to the other.

Calcutta. Calcutta (Calcuttah or Cāl-cuttā, the Castle of Cālī,) the capital of the British possessions in India, is situated on the B'hāgīret'ki, or Hūgīl river, the original branch of the Ganges, in lat. 23° 23' N., long 88° 28' E. about 100 miles above its mouth. At high-water the river is full a mile in breadth; and the villas, gardens, groves, spires, minarets, with a profusion of other splendid objects which crowd upon the view, astonish the stranger who approaches this city from the sea, and give him at once a magnificent idea of the extent and resources of our empire in the

BENGAL. East. It now extends about six miles along the eastern side of the river, and has a very varying breadth. At nearly a quarter of a mile below the town stands Fort William, superior in strength and regularity to any fortress in India. It was commenced by Lord Clive soon after the battle of Plassey (Palāśī), and was intended by him to have been completed on a still larger scale; but has been found to be too extensive as it is, since it would require 10,000 men to garrison it properly, and such a force would be able to keep the field. From up first to last it has cost the East India Company upwards of £2,000,000. sterling. The works are scarcely elevated above the level of the country, and greatly surprise the natives who have heard of its impregnability, and who expect to see a lofty castle on the summit of a precipice, the only fortress they can believe to be a place of strength. The barracks are very handsome, and the interior, which is kept in excellent order, is perfectly open. Between the fort and the town there is a large opening, called the esplanade, on one side of which stands the Government-house, built by the Marquess Wellesley; in a line with it, there is a splendid row of houses, ornamented with spacious verandas, and connected with Chauringhu (Channing'ld), formerly a knot of native huts, now literally a village of palaces. The principal square extends 1500 feet each way, and the centre of it is filled by a large tank, sixty feet in depth, its sides graduated to the bottom, and surrounded by a wall and palisade. The Writers' buildings, and the old fort taken by Sir John's dialah in 1757, occupy another side of this square. The Custom-house, and a quay in front of it, also adorn this part of the city. The Government-house is the most splendid of all the public buildings, and its internal decorations correspond with its exterior. Besides these, there is a Court of justice, two Protestant churches for the established religion, one of which is very handsome; with Roman Catholic, Greek, and Armenian churches; chapels for the different Protestant sects; mosques and temples. The hospital and jail are to the south of the town. On the west bank is the Botanic garden, beautifully situated; and beyond it, a large plantation of Teak, (*Tectona Grandis*) introduced from the forests in the Peninsula. Opposite to the fort there is a private dock, and another one mile further down on the same side of the river. To the north of the European city stands the Black Town, as complete a contrast as can well be imagined. Its narrow, unpaved, dirty streets, flat-roofed houses, and ruinous cottages, with tiled roofs and bamboo verandas, all swarming with people, form a spectacle amusing and interesting in a high degree, but disgusting from the filth and wretchedness of their inhabitants. Fires and the termites, or white ants, are continually making ravages in these frail edifices; but the houses of the English inhabitants are secured by distance, materials, and mode of construction, from such risks; and from fire, at least, are seldom endangered. There are thirteen bāzars or market-houses, substantially built, and affording all necessary conveniences to the dealers. Six belong to the government, and are farmed out. In the beginning of the last century, Calcutta was a paltry village, surrounded by wood and stagnant pools, and was scarcely more salubrious than Batavia; by drainage, however, and by opening wide roads through the woods, much has been done

BENGAL. to render it more healthy. The rainy season, so trying to European constitutions, usually begins about the 15th June, and ends about the 14th October. The floating capital employed in mercantile speculations was estimated at sixteen millions, in 1807. In the following year the Calcutta Bank was established, with a capital of fifty lacs of rupees, (£63,000.); it issues no notes below ten rupees, (£1. 5s.) or above 10,000, (£1250.). The house tax covers the expense of cleaning, watching, &c. the city; and in 1814 left a surplus of 7787 rupees, after deducting 178,366 rupees for the above charges.

Society and institutions.

The society is gay and convivial; but, as is always the case in too restricted a circle, much divided into parties. The public and private dinners are splendid; but the quantity of superfluous food, which the prejudices of the lower classes compel the Europeans to throw to the dogs and jackals, attracts amazing flights of birds of prey, who soon clear the streets of the relics of the feast. The hospitality and liberality of the English established at Calcutta, are such as do the greatest honour to their country; and the Asiatic Society, founded by Sir William Jones, and several of the leading servants of the East India Company, in 1784, has now for nearly forty years contributed most essentially to enlarge our knowledge of the history, antiquities, and physical peculiarities of Asia.

Among the foreigners established here, the most numerous, perhaps, are the Armenians. They carry on an extensive commerce both with the East and West, and bear a high character for industry and integrity. There are several Portuguese houses of agency. Those of the lower classes who bear that name, are scarcely distinguishable from the natives of an unmixed Asiatic origin. It is remarkable that there are scarcely any Jews, which has been observed to be the case also in North America. Another class of inhabitants in Calcutta are the offspring, often illegitimate, of European fathers and native mothers, commonly known by the name of half-castes. For the education of the children of officers and soldiers, there are two excellent institutions, and much has been done lately for the improvement and religious instruction of others of this class. Several of the Company's chaplains have qualified themselves to do duty in the Hindustani language; and some persons of that very class have lately, we believe, been ordained, and are actually engaged in instructing congregations of their countrymen. The College instituted by the exertions, and at the suggestion of the late excellent Bishop Middleton, was primarily designed for the improvement of this part of the Christian population, by providing a place of education for such as should be desirous of preparing themselves for holy orders. Among other admirable institutions, to which the last five or six years have given birth, are the moral and religious societies established for the purpose of promoting education and the knowledge of the Scriptures. The School-book Society has been peculiarly useful; and the results arising from the labours of these benevolent undertakings, have proved highly satisfactory.

Chander-nagore.

Chander-nagore (in Sanscrit, Chandra-nagara) a French settlement, on the west side of the Hugli river, in lat. 22° 49' N., long. 88° 26' E. in an advantageous position. The number of inhabitants in 1814, was 41,577; and the amount of its revenue, in the

same year, 32,154 rupees (£4,019. 5s.). It was occupied by the British troops during the late war, and became even then a complete receptacle of smugglers and swindlers. After the peace it was restored to the French, in 1816, who had been deprived of it for nearly twenty-three years.

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Chibichura, or Chinchura, on the west side of the same river, in lat. 22° 52' N., long. 88° 28' E. It is the principal Dutch factory in this part of India, and was first established in 1656. The site is preferable to that of Calcutta. Its revenue amounted, in 1814, to 17,988 (£2,248. 10s.). A school established there by Mr. May for the education of the native children, had 1080 scholars on its list in 1814: reading, writing, and arithmetic are taught to all, and English, as a reward, to the most deserving.

Chinsura.

Si-râm-pûr (Sri-râma-pûra), a Danish settlement on the west side of the Hugli river, in lat. 22° 45' N., 88° 26' E. is an unfortified town, stretching more than a mile along the bank of the river, but having only a very small breadth. Its white stuccoed houses have a neat and pleasing appearance from the water. A shoal, just below it, prevents large vessels from coming close up to the town, but as labour is extremely cheap, the inconvenience is not severely felt. Its revenue, in 1813, was 13,931 rupees (£1654.).

Scramptown.

Bârac-pûr, about sixteen miles above Calcutta, has Barrack-park with a small menagerie, and is the station where the native corps, amounting to about 4000 men, are in cantonment. There is also an institution for the instruction of the cadets in the artillery and engineer corps in this place; and in the cold season there are horse races under the patronage of the military.

Sundar-bans (Sundara-vana, the beautiful wood), a woody tract of country, extending 180 miles along banks of the Bay of Bengal, consisting of an intricate maze of creeks and streams, generally salt, and having eight considerable openings, each of which may be called a mouth of the Ganges. The shelving sides of all these streams bear decisive evidence of the alluvial origin of the low lands of Bengal. There are two navigable passages through this tract, the southern, or Sunderbund; the northern, or Ballinghaut passage. The first is the widest and deepest, and comes into the Hugli river about sixty-five miles below Calcutta. Its course is through a thick forest abandoned to wild beasts, and enlivened only by the call of birds, or chattering of monkeys. Alligators are often seen sleeping on the banks; and enormous tigers emerge from their retreats when the salt-makers and wood-cutters come, in the dry season, to work at their respective trades. The salt is esteemed holy, because made from the mud of the Ganges; but we are not told whether any sanctity is supposed to reside in the timber of these forests. As a barrier against maritime invasion, the continuance of this labyrinth, in its present state, has been deemed advantageous; it might also be difficult to bring such salt, marshy land into a state of cultivation; but the extreme insalubrity of so large an expanse of wood and marsh, in a tropical climate, does not seem to have been sufficiently considered. This widely extended tract of wilderness is, with some trifling exceptions, the property of the government, and may hereafter be a source of revenue. On this and other accounts a survey of it was made by Captain Morrison of the Bengal Engineers, in 1812 and 1813; and a commissioner was appointed in 1814 to determine the validity

BENGAL of claims to lands in it, and to assess such as had been rendered productive.

Sagor Island (Gangā-sāgar, i.e. the confluence of the Ganges, and the Ocean), is twenty miles in length by five in breadth, and so intersected by creeks that it is difficult to fix its precise limits. It lies on the west of Channel Creek. The anchorage near it being more open to the breezes immediately from the sea, than from Calpee or Diamond Harbour, it proves more healthy and a better station for shipping. As this island is placed at the junction of the holiest branch of the Ganges with the Ocean, it is considered by the Hindus as a place of peculiar sanctity; and at the full moons of November and January many are the human sacrifices here offered up. The victims are voluntary and involuntary: aged persons, weary perhaps of life, and infants devoted by their parents to the Ganges, who, from gratitude for the boon of five children, throw the fifth into the river. In one case a child of twelve years old was forced, by his parents, a second time into the waves. Three other places are mentioned as polluted by these horrid rites. The Sāstras do not prescribe such sacrifices; but the vow, in compliance with which they are made, is considered as inviolable. The island is inhabited by a few Gōsāins (Gōsāwam, religious mendicants), who levy contributions as the disciples of Capita, a sage, supposed to have lived 3000 years before the vulgar era. A few ruins shew that the island was once inhabited. To clear it, and form a maritime depot, had appeared to many persons desirable; and a few years ago the government determined, in this one instance, to relax the standing regulation by which Europeans are prohibited from holding any land in India. The whole has now been leased to a company, who have subscribed the sum of 250,000 rupees, (£25,000.) and are to hold the land, rent free for thirty years, and afterwards at the assessment of four annas per big hāt (about one shilling and one penny per acre) for ever. Before the commencement of April 1819, one-fifth of the whole had been already cleared, and the tigers were retiring to less frequented places.

Edmonstone's Isle Very near to this island there is another, which is remarkable, as being a striking instance of the manner in which the whole of the Delta of the Ganges has been gradually formed. It lies to lat. $21^{\circ} 35' N.$, and long. $88^{\circ} 30' E.$ in the spot where the Sagor shoal appeared in former maps. In 1813 it had not emerged from the water, and was nothing more than a sand-bank; but in 1818 it formed a distinct island, two miles long, from east to west, and half a mile in breadth, from north to south. The channel between it and Sagor is already so shallow, that in a few years the two islands will probably be united. On the central, and most elevated part, vegetation had even then commenced, and *salsolæ*, together with the *Ipomœa pes capræ* had given it a verdant tint, and by daily binding together the drifting sand, were contributing to form the basis of a more stable soil. It was first noticed in the survey of Sagor, made in 1816, and named Edmonstone's Isle.

Backergunge District. 1. The district of Bācar-ganj at the south-eastern extremity of the Delta of the Ganges, was formed, in 1801, from that of Dacca Jēlā-pūr. A part of it was the *Serdār* of Bech in the time of Abar, and extends along the bank of the Pad'ha, or Great Ganges, nearly to its mouth. The great area of this district was

estimated in 1801 at 4564 square miles. A colony of wretched Portuguese, whose ancestors settled there two centuries ago, still occupy a part of the southern quarter; they are a meagre, poor, imbecile race, called *cala ferings* by the natives who are fairer than they are, and heartily despise them.

The principal places in this district are Bācar-ganj, Burriahol, Sutahury, Gourudy, Rāban-ābād Isle and Dak'hin-shāh-bāz-pūr.

Burriahol is the capital of this district; the courts of justice were transferred to it in 1801. It stands on an island of the Ganges, in lat. $22^{\circ} 46' N.$, long. $90^{\circ} 17' E.$

Rāvan-ābād and Dak'hin-shāh-bāz-pūr are islands included in this district; the latter at the junction of the Megna with the sea. It is about thirty miles long and thirteen broad: is almost inundated during the rains, and has some excellent salt-works. The navigation of the neighbouring channels is rendered very dangerous by the bore, or overwhelming rush of the tide.

2. Jasar (i.e. the bridge) a district which has Bācar-ganj on the east, Hūglī on the west, the sea on the south, and on the north the Pad'ha or Great Ganges. The southern part, in the Sundar-hane, is covered with impenetrable wood, but naturally fertile. Salt, Indigo, Tobacco, Gunjah (*Abrus precator*), Mulberry, Pan, (leaf of *Piper Betle*), Betel, (*Piper*) a long Pepper are its most valuable productions; and of these Indigo is the most considerable. Salt is a government monopoly. Mahmūd-shāhī, Naldang, Mūrali or Jasar, Chalañ and Mahmūd-pār, Ghān-ābād (Ryn-ābād) on the B'hārab are its principal places.

3. The district of Hūglī has Berd'wān on the north, the Sundar-bans on the east, the sea on the south, and Mēdini-pūr on the west. It is a low flat country, covered with wood, and very unhealthy near the coast; but extremely fertile when brought under cultivation. The island navigation, as in the neighbouring districts, is excellent. Notwithstanding these advantages, and the proximity of the capital, a very large part still remains uncultivated. Reading, writing, and arithmetic are taught in almost every village.

The Hūglī river is formed by the junction of the Kāsim-bāzār and Jellingī, the two most westerly streams of the Ganges, and is the only branch navigated by large vessels. Its entrance and the passage up to the town are very difficult. The sudden and impetuous influx of the tide, called the bore, begins at Hūglī Point where the width of the stream is first contracted; it moves at the rate of nearly eighteen miles an hour, and crosses the river four miles above Fort William. In the mid stream there is little or no danger; and the Calcutta, side of the river is not affected, except occasionally by a very sudden rise of the water. This stream is part of the Māg'hīrā'hī, or true Ganges, and is therefore revered as a sacred river by the Hindus.

The principal towns are, Kīrpāl, Temlūc, Chander-Town, cona, and the following places:

On the west side of the river, the town of Hūglī, in lat. $22^{\circ} 54' N.$ long. $88^{\circ} 29' E.$ was formerly the town, bāder, or great seaport town, of this part of India, and the place where the Mughals' duties were collected; the most commercial of the European States, therefore, the Portuguese, Dutch, French, English and Danes, had factories there. In 1632, it was taken by

BENGAL
Dacca.

Burriahol.

Rāvanābād.
Duckin-shah-baz-poor.

2. Jassar.

3. Hooghly District.

Hooghly River.

BENGAL. assault from the Portuguese, by the Moghals, who also succeeded in destroying their fleet, which was considerable. In 1686, an action fought between the Nabob's troops and the English, in consequence of a quarrel in the *bazar*, terminated in favour of the latter; but they soon afterwards made a disadvantageous peace, and thinking themselves insecure at Húglí, crossed over the river to Chatá-nati, or Calcutta.

Hidjellee. Hijeli, or Hijala, on the west side of the river, in lat. $21^{\circ} 56' N.$ long. $88^{\circ} 10' E.$ was the capital of a *fauldari*, or military station, in the *súbah*, or province of Orishah, but was annexed to Bengal in the reign of Sháh Jehán. It is close to the mouth of the river, and consists of salt, and redeemed marsh land, the former yielding large quantities of excellent salt. The fresh water land, or redeemed marshes, yield very abundant crops of rice.

Calpee. Calpi, on a creek near the east bank of the river, in lat. $22^{\circ} 6' N.$ long. $88^{\circ} 25' E.$ is surrounded by wood, and opposite to the anchorage named from it. The mud banks and wood, render it peculiarly unhealthy.

Kedgerree. Kijari, in lat. $21^{\circ} 55' N.$ long. $88^{\circ} 10' E.$ is at the mouth of the river, where it is nine miles wide. Ships of war seldom go higher up, as it is much more healthy than Diamond Harbour or Calpi.

Diamond Harbour. Diamond Harbour, an anchorage thirty-four miles below Calcutta, peculiarly unhealthy, particularly from July to September. At this place the Company's ships usually unload and take in the greater part of their homeward cargoes. The warehouses for marine stores, &c. are secured from inundation by an embankment.

Falta. Falta (Phalata), on the east bank of the river, in lat. $22^{\circ} 19' N.$ long. $88^{\circ} 20' E.$ is a village near which ships find a safe anchorage, protected from the swell.

Sat-gong. Sát-góng, (the seven villages) now a paltry village, was anciently a place of considerable note; it is situated on a creek a little way to the north-west of Húglí, and small vessels could approach it in the middle of the sixteenth century.

4. Jungle Mahals. 4. The Jungle Mahals form a district, of which the boundaries have not been accurately determined. It is a woody tract, little cultivated, the chief place of which is Banerárah, near Chatná, in lat. $23^{\circ} 20' N.$ long. $87^{\circ} 10' E.$ Tenk trees transplanted here from the botanical garden at Calcutta, had reached the height of twenty-five feet in 1813.

5. Twenty-four Pargunnas. 5. The Twenty-four Pargunnas. This district is to the south of Calcutta, on the eastern side of the river Húglí. It was made the *zeniidari* of the Company, and *jágir* of Lord Clive in 1757, and contains 562 square miles. In 1801, it possessed 190 schools for instruction in Hindú literature, maintained by charitable funds and contributions, at an annual expense of 19,500 rupees, (£2,437. 10s.) and one *madrasah*, or college, for Mohammedan law. In 1813, it was still much infested by daccats, or banditti, though in an evident state of improvement. The *jumá*, or land tax, amounted, in 1814, to 1,349,003 rupees, (£156,125. 7s. 6d.) and the *ab-ekáí*, or excise, to \$4,675 rupees, (£11,844. 7s. 6d.) and it was always found that the lands paying the *jumá* were better cultivated than those which are exempted. Calcutta is sometimes considered as comprehended within this district.

Revenue, &c. *Ab-hup-hup*, in lat. $22^{\circ} 30' N.$ long. $88^{\circ} 20' E.$ is remarkable on account of its capture in 1756.

Budget. *Nediyá*, (Nava-dwípa, the new island) imme-

diately to the north of Calcutta, has Ráj-sháhi to the north, Jinar on the east, the 24 Pargunnas on the south, and Berd-hwán on the west. It was anciently called Anusrah and afterwards Kishn-nagar, from Crishna-nagara, the principal *zeniidari* within its limits. Its soil is peculiarly fertile, but light and requiring a fallow for three successive years. Besides the articles mentioned as being cultivated in the district of Jasar, Jasarúsh (from which a red dye is extracted,) and Pipal (*Piper longum*), are grown here. The cultivation has greatly increased since the Decennial settlement has been in force; and the waste land was supposed, in 1802, not to amount to more than one-fortieth of the whole. The inland navigation may be said to reach every part of this district; but its light, sandy soil is unfavourable to the construction and permanency of the necessary embankments. Its police appears to have been very vigilant; and the gangs of daccats had been nearly, if not entirely, reduced in 1814. Its chief towns are Nediyá, Sánti-pár, Crishna-nagara and Chogdah.

Nediyá. Nediyá, at the confluence of the Jelling and Kásim-bázár rivers, in lat. $23^{\circ} 25' N.$ long. $88^{\circ} 24' E.$ was the capital of a principality, when the Mohammedans first invaded Bengal, under Bakhtiyár Khilji, in the beginning of the fifteenth century. It was afterwards distinguished as a school for Hindú learning; and a sum of nearly 13,000 rupees (£1,600) was assigned, under Lord Minto's administration, for the maintenance and encouragement of that institution, which had fallen into a declining state.

Chogdah. Chogdah, on the east of the Húglí river, thirty-four miles north of Calcutta, was formerly celebrated as a place where the Hindús used to drown themselves in the holy stream: latterly, however, they have been satisfied with a mere ceremony of immersion.

Pálási. Pálási, in lat. $23^{\circ} 45' N.$ and long. $88^{\circ} 15' E.$ must Pálásey always be remembered with a pleasing recollection by the English, as the place near which Lord Clive gained the decisive victory, that made him master of Bengal. With an army of 3000 men, of whom only 900 were Europeans, he completely routed the Nabob who had 80,000.

Agra-dwípa, or Agá-dip, is a place of pilgrimage, Agha-dip on account of an image of Crishna, supposed to bring in a revenue of more than £3000. per annum to its proprietor. It was seized by the late Rájá Nob Kishn (Nava Crishna), for a debt, was counterfeited, and recovered by a law-suit.

7. Médni-pár, properly belonging to Orishah, but 7. Médni-long attached to Bengal, is now considered as one of poor its districts. It is bounded on the north by Rám-gar'h and Berd-hwán; on the east by Húglí and the sea; on the south and west by various tributary *zeniidaries*. Its area probably contains 7300 miles. In 1799, it experienced a severe dearth, which carried off many of its inhabitants, and appears to have retarded the progress of cultivation, as it had not materially improved for some years afterwards. Two-thirds of it were supposed, in 1801, to be yet covered with wood, the clearing of which is prevented by the same superstitious prejudices as prevail in Rám-gar'h. Among other inhabitants of these wood-lands, are the Sontals, a Souths poor, despised, race of people, who seem to be far more estimable than their proud, self-sufficient Hindú neighbours, by whom they are contemned as beings scarcely human. They are said to be mild, sober, and

BENGAL.

Produce.

Police.

Nuddeas.

Chogdah.

Pálásey.

Agha-dip.

Médni-long.

Souths.

BENGAL industrious, remarkable for their honesty and fidelity; but suffering from extreme indigence from the villainy of the money-lenders, who take advantage of their ignorance and necessity, and charge the most exorbitant interest for the money which they want in order to purchase seed. Sugar is the article most extensively cultivated, and it was valued at 50,000 rupees (£900.) in 1801.

When Balasor and Pipley were frequented by the Europeans, a century ago, the manufactures of this district were in a very flourishing condition; but they have subsequently much declined. A few sandés and gauzes for hude sale are still made; but commerce is rather giving way than advancing. Even the more opulent natives live in slight, wretched, huts, and seem to have no idea of ornamenting their houses, or rendering them comfortable. A maintenance is all they desire, and as that is easily obtained in a country where fuel and clothing are little wanted, they are destitute of a powerful stimulus to exertion felt in regions less favoured by nature: but it is the pressure of their enormous debts which contributes more than any thing else to damp their ardour, and stifle any desire for a better condition. They are sober, regular, and domestic; less quarrelsome and litigious than their neighbours; marry early, but have not usually numerous families, which probably arises from the premature decrepitude of their women. Inoculation, though long known, is little practised; and the small-pox consequently commits great ravages.

Towns. Médni-púr, Jálsúr, and Pippál, are the principal towns in this district, which was ceded by Kásim Ali Khán, the reigning nabob (Núwáb), in 1761. In 1770 it was afflicted by that dreadful famine which swept away nearly half its population. In 1815, its police seemed to have nearly quelled the ferocious banditti by which it was so long infested.

Midna-poor Médni-púr, its capital, in lat. 23° 25' N. long. 87° 25' E. being a frontier station, formerly had a fort, now converted into a prison. The neighbouring roads have been put into an excellent condition through the exertions of the resident magistrates.

Jáláswar. Jáláswar (Jáláswar, the lord of water,) on the eastern side of the Subarnika (Súvermaarika, golden sands), in lat. 21° 20' N. long. 87° 25' E. formerly the southern boundary of this province, was a place of considerable consequence, and much frequented by Europeans in the seventeenth century.

Pipley. Pippál, in lat. 21° 49' N. and long. 87° 20' E. was a place of great resort at the same period. The Dutch annually shipped 2000 tons of salt there; and it was the first place in Bengal, with which the English obtained permission to trade.

Bágras. Bágras is a wild and woody parganah towards the north-east quarter of this district. Even in 1816, the marauders and assassins, called chásás, defied the efforts of the magistrates to check their depredations and atrocities; but they were at length dispersed or captured by the exertions of Mr. Oakley, deputed for that purpose with special authority from the government.

B. Burdwan District. B. Berd'hwán, (in Sanscrit Vard'hamán, productive,) is bounded by Bír'húm on the north, by Húglí on the east, Médni-púr on the south, and Ráin-gar'h on the west. It came into our possession in 1760, and may be considered as the most fertile territory in India. The original zemindári comprehended rather more than

3000 square miles, and was conferred, some time subsequently to 1732, on Kérat Chand, ancestor of the present Rájá. The yearly rent in 1790 was £400,000. Most villages have schools, but there are no colleges. Arrears of rent and other expenses have reduced the two great zemindáries of Berd'hwán and Bishn-púr to a very humble condition. The number of new villages and brick buildings are alone a proof of the increasing prosperity of this district, which, with respect to agricultural produce, is the first in the whole of India. Tanjore in the southern Carnatic is the second.

The principal places are Berd'hwán, Bisan-púr, Catwá, K'halak (or Culin) and Ocmah.

Bishn-púr (or Bisan-púr, (Vishnúpura, the city of Vishnu-poor) in lat. 23° 4' N. long. 87° 25' E. was formerly the chief town of an extensive zemindári, which constituted an almost independent territory for nearly 1100 years. It was finally reduced by Jálér Khán in 1715.

Catwá (Cátgotyá) in lat. 23° 37' N. and long. 86° 10' E. is noted for its manufacture of vessels, made of a kind of pewter alloyed with a considerable proportion of zinc. It was near this place that the well known engagement between our troops and those of Kásim Ali, in 1763, took place.

Bír'húm (Vira-húm, the land of heroes,) a 9. District district at the north-western extremity of the province, has B'hágel-púr on the north, Ráj-sháh on the east, Berd'hwán on the south, and Pachét on the west. It is called the Sercár of Madáran in the *Ájín Arbáí*. A considerable part is either rock or wood, and still uncultivated. Indifferent soil and excellent iron ore in strata mixed with clay, are found in the hills; but the iron-works established, in 1814, at the confluence of the Málá and Húglí rivers, have not been found to answer. The prosperity and cultivation of this district are gradually increasing. The roads and bridges are kept in good repair; the latter are formed from the timber of the *Palmeira* (*Elate Sylvestris*). About the time of Shér Sháh, the Afghán, Asadullah, a chief of the same nation, was settled here in a large military

sief, to guard the frontiers from the incursions of the Hindús of Jéhár-k'hánd; but the grant was resumed in 1763 by Kásim Ali Khán.

The principal towns are Sári, (23° 54' N. 87° 38' E.) Saráí, Nágór, Baidyá-nát'h, Lácarik'handah, Sri-kát and Sri-rám-púr.

Baidyá-nát'h, or Déógír, is a celebrated place of Baidya-pilgrimage in lat. 24° 32' N. long. 86° 40' E. Its temple contains an illustrious lingam or phallus, round which the pilgrims make many circuits, washing it also with libations of holy water, in order to procure favourable dreams. 6000 persons from Bahár alone, are said to visit it annually, notwithstanding the risk of being murdered on the road.

10. The district of Murshid-ábád has undergone so many alterations as to its extent and jurisdiction, that it is difficult to define its boundaries. It may be considered as having the Ganges and Jelling rivers to the north and east, Nediya to the south, and Bír'húm to the west.

The extent of this district, its crowded population, Police, straggling and ruinous capital, with various other circumstances, have rendered it extremely difficult for the police to exercise all the vigilance requisite for the suppression of crimes; and it was considered, in 1813,

BENGAL. as the worst regulated in any part of the province. In consequence of this, an assistant-magistrate was appointed to reside within the walls of the city. It is worthy of observation, that though this part of the country was formerly considered by the natives as very healthy, it has lately become remarkable for its insalubrity.

Police. Its principal towns are, the capital of the same name; Birangur (Vira-nagura); B'bagwár Gôlá; Jangl-púr, or Jangul-púr; Kásim-bázár; Berhám, or Burhám-púr; and Sôti.

Climate. The city of Murshid-ábád is situated on the B'hágrét'bi, or sacred branch of the Ganges, in lat. 24° 11' N., and long. 88° 15' S. It was originally called Minkóid-ábád; but its name was changed by Murshid Kulí Khán, otherwise called Jáfer Khán, when he fixed the seat of government there, in 1704.

Moorshed-abad city. It stretches eight miles on each side of the river, and was never fortified except by an occasional rampart. The streets are extremely narrow, and the buildings as wretched as they usually are in Indian towns. The transit commerce of this place is very great; and the river is covered with boats, excepting from October to May, when it is almost dry: much of the trade is, during that interval, transferred to B'bagwár Gôlá, a port on the main stream of the Ganges, about nine miles from Murshid-ábád. A canal between the two streams, made in 1813, has been of great service: but the unhealthiness of the place, which in 1814 almost exceeded belief, has caused its population visibly to decline; for, besides the numbers carried off by disease, many of the lower classes have deserted their houses in quest of a more healthy abode.

Moaty Jeta. The Múti j'hil, or pearl lake, near this place, is part of a former bed of the Kásim-bázár river. Ali-verdi Khán erected a palace there, and ornamented it with black marble columns, from the ruins of Gaur, the ancient capital of Bengal. A considerable part of the town is secured from inundation solely by the Bulabeg pushtah, or projecting embankment, which every year occasions heavy expense to the government. The charges for the city police were estimated at 56,000 rupees, (£4500.) annually, in 1814. The collector-general and board of revenue were stationed at this place till 1771. This is the principal station of a court of circuit.

Jangry- poor. Jangl-púr, or Jangul-púr, in lat. 24° 28' N., and long. 88° 15' E. is the greatest establishment for the production of silk in the territories of the East India Company. It was commenced in 1773, and thirty years afterwards, no less than 3000 persons were employed in it. The Italian method of spinning, introduced by persons sent over by the Company in 1762, is used. The worms are bred by women and children. The Chinese mulberry requires a moist soil; but it produces more nutritious leaves than those of the Oriental species here cultivated.

Comin- bazar. Kásim-bázár, in lat. 24° 10' N., and long. 88° 15', the port of Murshid-ábád being only about a mile distant, is one of the largest inland trading towns in Bengal; and during the rainy season has an unparalleled extent of water carriage. It stands on an island of sand, fertilized by the mud of the Ganges, and abounding with various sorts of game. Its silk manufactures, particularly its stockings, are in universal request. They are all wire-knit, and sell for from twenty to twenty-

five rupees (fifty to ninety shillings) per score of pairs. Carpets, sedas, and other silk manufactures, are made here usually to a very large amount.

BENGAL. 11. Chitragong. The district of Cháit-gang, (Ghông gárgám,) at the south-eastern extremity of Bengal, has Tipura on the north, the Burman Empire on the east, Aracan on the south, and the sea on the west. It was anciently assigned as a fief for the maintenance of a large body of militia, as a guard for the frontier against the incursions of the Mug'hs, or people of Aracan. The islands of Hattid, Snodip, and Báminí, though separated by wide arms of the sea from the main land, are annexed to this district. The principal river has not depth of water sufficient to admit ships of any size; and much beyond the limits of the harbour there are bars in the mouths of all streams which flow into the sea between that river and the boundary of Aracan; so that the internal navigation on this side of the province can only be carried on by vessels of small burthen. The southern part of this district, towards the Náf river, is very mountainous, and had been considered as almost impervious and incapable of cultivation, till 1814, when inquiries, occasioned by the great emigrations from the neighbouring countries, shewed that, between those ranges of hills there are many plains and valleys susceptible of great improvement; such as the plains of Chacráá, Rámti, and Gargáná; the last estimated at ten miles each way. They were exclusively occupied by Hindus from Bengal; but, since the conquest of Aracan by the Bermans, a very large number of Mug'hs have emigrated into the British territory, and settled on the borders; some few as husbandmen, but most as pedlars, or mechanics. They have been estimated at 100,000; this is probably too high; but their numbers are certainly very considerable. The irregular manner in which they have established themselves, besides occasioning much inconvenience and dissatisfaction to the other inhabitants, has often thrown the country into a state of serious commotion.

The interior of this district is extremely mountainous; and at a distance from the sea the torrents, as well as the ocean itself on the shores, are continually making encroachments on the labours of the cultivator, whose diligence in struggling against such discouragements is highly commendable. Its frequent change of level, maritime position, and high altitude, render this a suitable place for the production of coffee, pepper, and spices, the most valuable productions of Asia. The land is now held by a great number of small proprietors, and a considerable portion of it is still waste, though the district appeared, so long ago as 1801, to be in a progressive state of improvement. The Mohammedans are to the Hindus as three to two.

Taldm-ábád The port of Islám-ábád, the capital of this district, is extremely well situated for maritime commerce, as well as for the construction of ships. Timber, planks, canvaas, coarse cloths, stockings, cotton and umbrellas, are the principal exports near the sea. Salt-works have been established by the government; and it derives a considerable profit from the number of elephants taken in the forests, for which a contract is made, the contractor engaging to provide a certain number answering to a fixed standard. The sea air and bathing on this coast are considered as extremely beneficial, and it is therefore much frequented by the

BENGAL. European residents in Bengal. The Sittá-cúnd, or well of Sittá, about twenty miles to the north of Islám-ábád, is a remarkable mineral spring, which emits an inflammable vapour, and, like all similar phenomena, is considered as sacred by the Hindús. The Náf, which is the south-eastern boundary of this residency, is not navigable above a few miles from the shore; its banks are covered with wood, and very scantily inhabited, in consequence of the dread of attacks from the neighbouring Mug's.

Tipura, or rather Tripura, to which this district belonged, appears to have been anciently an independent state, on the frontiers of the kingdoms where the doctrines of Bráhma and Budd'há prevailed, and was occasionally subjected to each. It was probably subdued, in the beginning of the sixteenth century, by the Afghán Sovereigns of Bengal; but was possessed by the Rájá of Aracan, a Budd'híst, in the beginning of the seventeenth, when it was first visited by the Portuguese. Macat Rái, one of the Rájá's vassals, having incurred his master's displeasure, placed himself under the protection of the Great Moghul, Sháh Jehán, in 1638; and about twenty years afterwards, Sháiyásh Khán, Súbah-dár of Bengal, sent a large fleet from D'hách, under the command of Uméd Khán, and took the capital, to which he then gave the name of Islám-ábád, (the abode of the True Faith.) It was finally ceded to the English by the Nabob Jáfér Ali Khán, in 1760.

The passes, and higher positions, in the chain of hills which runs parallel with the coast, have for the last thirty years been chiefly occupied by bodies of Mug's, fugitives from Aracan; considered as rebels and deserters by the Berman Sovereign, and therefore opening a source of perpetual misunderstandings between him and the Bengal government. These people have also been sometimes driven by distress to commit depredations on the inhabitants of the plains; their presence, therefore, has occasioned much mischief; but to expel them has not been possible; for the woody vallies in which they conceal themselves are not only almost inaccessible, but in the highest degree unhealthy. The Mug's are a muscular, hardy race, inured from their infancy to labour, and to the air of these mountains. They therefore are more than a match for the Hindús established in the plains below, who are small and feeble, and by no means adapted for war and resistance.

The principal towns are, Islám-ábád, or Cháti-gáng, Sittá-cúnd, Mércá-serít, Rámd, Cox's Bázár, and the isles of Mascul, Catebáha, Sandip, Hattá, and Bámaní.

Islám-ábád. The capital, Islám-ábád, is on the west side of the river, about eight miles from the sea, in lat. 23° 22' N., and long. 91° 45' E. It was a great emporium in the time of Achar.

Cox's Bazar. Cox's Bazar, at the mouth of the river Náf, is in a high, open situation, at the termination of a range of lofty white cliffs. It is clear of wood, and has excellent water. The Mug's established here in 1814, amounted to more than 3000. In 1816, a Custom-house, towards the Aracan frontier, was built.

Sun-dép. Sun-dép, or Sóna-dwipa, (the island of the Moon), is at the mouth of the Megná, a broad stream, formed by the united waters of the Ganges and Bráhma-putra. Its size may be estimated at sixteen miles by eight. Its soil is alluvial; and salt seems to be the only

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BENGAL. article manufactured upon it. It was possessed, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, by a horde of Portuguese pirates, under the command of Sebastian Gonsalves; but his perfidy and tyranny soon raised up foes against him, both abroad and at home. He was expelled, after having reigned for a few years, by the Rájá of Aracan, who was in his turn driven out by the fleet of Sháiyásh Khán, in 1666, when all this country became subject to the Moghul.

Among the savage tribes inhabiting the hilly tracts of this district, two deserve particular notice. The Cákies or Luncás, and the Chámias. The Chámias inhabit the lower range of hills to the north and east, and are tributary to the Bengal government. They are migratory people, seldom remaining more than two years in one place. They appear inclined to acquire more settled and industrious habits, but are harassed by incursions from the Berman domoioes. The Cákies, occupy more distant and elevated ranges of the same hills. They are low and muscular, with the broad, flat, round face, and dimoutive eye of the Tatar tribes. They are warriors and hunters, divided into many independent tribes, and fixing on the most inaccessible spots for the site of their villages. Like most savages, they are much given to theft, and have a peculiar partiality for salt. They have none of the Hindú distinctions of caste, and are fond of animal food. They are migratory at intervals, and for a short distance. The belief of a future state of rewards and punishments forms a part of their religious creed.

12. The district of Tipura (Tripura, i.e. Tripoli), has D'hách and Silhet on the north, the Berman domoioes on the east, Cháti-gáng on the south, and D'hách on the west. It was an independent state in the time of Abú'l Fazl, who says that its sovereign was styled Yahya Máic, or King John. It is also called Ráúshan-ábád, and is the eastern boundary of Bengal. Its eastern limits are not yet accurately determined, being clothed with extensive forests, abounding in elephants, and little explored. The Máic, or Zemindár, is the independent sovereign of an extensive territory to the east of the hills, beyond the limits of the Company's territories: but he usually resides at Comillá, where the judge and magistrate is stationed. The number of the inhabitants, and the cultivation of this district, have both greatly increased though a large portion of it still remains uncultivated. It has no large towns; the most considerable are Comillá, Lak hi-púr, Dáúd-cándi, and Chánd-púr. From Dáúd-cándi to Lak hi-púr, along the course of the Megná, the country is famous for producing the best

Produce.

Betel nut, (*Piper Betle*); and that article is so much esteemed by the natives of Ava and Aracan, that they always make a contract one year for the produce of the next. The coarse cottons, called bafus and káshas, manufactured here, are exported all over the world; and the cotton plantations are rapidly increasing. There are no schools for Hindú or Mohammedan learning; and suicide is said to be common among the warrors of the lower orders. The gayál (a species of ox) and elephants abound in the woods; but the latter are inferior to those of Cháti-gáng and Pégd. The highest ever accurately measured was ten feet six inches at the shoulder. The standard height for the service in Bengal, is nine feet from the top of the shoulder to the ground. Tipura seems never to have

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Cookies, or Luncás.

12. Tipura District.

BENGAL. been subjected to the Moghul government till towards the middle of the last century, when Mir Hinhlu'lah, a general in the service of the Subah-dar of Bengal, made a successful incursion, and compelled the Rājā to consent to pay an annual tribute. It came into our possession with the rest of the province in 1763, and, though long disturbed by frequent commotions, has now continued for many years in a very tranquil state.

The principal towns are, Comillah, Nūr-nagar, Lak'-hī-pūr, Chūd-pār, Dūid-cāndī, Candāl, Colinda, and Jagdēā, (Yuga-dēva.)

13. District of Dacca. 13. The district of D'hāch Jelū-pār has Māimē-sing'h on the north, Tipura on the east, Bākur-ganj on the south, and Rāj-shāhī on the west. It may be called the granary of Bengal, as it is almost entirely covered with water in the rainy season; and, like the Delta of Egypt when the inundation of the Nile is at its greatest height, has the appearance of a boundless sheet of water, studded with islands just rising from its surface, and covered with villages, surrounded by groves of palms and other trees, peculiar to the tropics. Notwithstanding the fertility of the soil, and the facility of conveyance every where afforded by the water-carriage, there is scarcely any district in Bengal where more waste land is to be found. There are many schools, where the elements of Hindū learning are taught.

Manufactures. The muslins of D'hāch have long been the most celebrated in the world; and a species of cotton, called *hāngā*, cultivated in the neighbourhood, is necessary, though not itself of a very fine quality, for forming the stripes of the finest muslins. Flowered, striped, chequered and plain muslins, are all manufactured in this part of Bengal: the latter are distinguished by different names, according to their different degrees of fineness. Dimities, and cloths resembling dimers and damasks, are also among the manufactures of D'hāch. The art of making some of the most delicate kinds of muslins is in danger of being lost, so much has the demand for them diminished.

Towns. The principal towns in this district are the capital, Nārān-ganj, Sunār-gāng, and Rājā-nagar. The Mohammedans and Hindūs are in equal numbers.

Dacca. D'hāch, the capital, in lat. 23° 42' N., and long. 90° 17' E. is placed upon a large branch of the river called the Bār'hi Ganga, or Old Ganges, above a mile in width. This communicates, by various channels, with almost every part of the neighbourhood. The abundance of moisture maintains the verdure in this country throughout the dry season, and renders the air much cooler than in the province of Bihār. From the middle of August to the beginning of October, the season is unhealthy; but, at every other part of the year, this is one of the pleasantest, as well as the healthiest stations in India. This town has succeeded to Sunār-gāng as the capital of the eastern part of Bengal. Islām Khān, governor of that province under Jehān-gīr, fixed the seat of government here in 1606, and called it Jehān-gīr-nagar, in honour of the reigning emperor. It reached its greatest pitch of splendour under Aurang-zib; and magnificent ruins, now overgrown with wood, attest its magnitude and splendour at that period. The invasion of Nādir Shāh, and the gradual dissolution of the Moghul Empire, seem to have hastened the decline of this city: but the middle and commercial classes have of late gradually increased,

and the town has been proportionally augmented. It extends six miles along the banks of the river, and has all the nuisances of an Asiatic town. Its frail structures are usually burnt down once or twice a year; and some large earthen pots, sunk into the floor of the house, serve as receptacles for all the valuable articles which the proprietors possess. This mode of insurance, and the facility with which such houses are rebuilt, cause the sufferers to witness their loss with an apathy quite inconceivable to Europeans. Greek, Armenian, and Portuguese merchants are established at this place as well as nations of western Europe. The dialect used at D'hāch is the genuine language of Bengal, while that used at Calcutta is the (Saur) idiom, and has only been brought into repute by the removal of the seat of government to the latter place. The inhabitants are quiet and orderly, as well as remarkable for their attachment to the British government.

Nārān-ganj, in lat. 23° 17' N., long. 90° 35' E. a narrow large town on the west side of the Sital Lak'hī, a gunga.

branch of the Brāhmi-putra, remarkable for its bustle and activity. In the rainy season the Lak'hī is one of the finest rivers of Bengal, and is covered with boats and vessels constantly passing and repassing. On the opposite side of the river is a place called Kadum Rasul, where an impression of the footstep of Mohammed is as much venerated by the Mussulman pilgrims as the holy lingam, at the shrine of Vaidyanātha, by the Hindūs.

Sunār-gāng (Suvāna-grāma, the golden village), Soner in lat. 23° 39' N. and long. 90° 43' E. now a mere gunga-village, though formerly capital of this part of the province. It was celebrated for the manufacture of khāsabs (cousines) in the time of Achar, and still retains its reputation by its excellence. The ancient city was entirely swept away by the encroachments of the Brāhmi-putra.

Feringī Bazar, in lat. 23° 33' N., long. 90° 23' E. Fringed a small town on the west side of the Daldāc, was founded by Shāyistal Khān, about 1626, when established there a colony of Portuguese fugitives from Aracan.

Kiwāl, as before observed, is so overgrown with wood and infested by elephants, as to frustrate the attempts to bring it into cultivation. Among the birds which inhabit these forests are Peacocks and the Florican, or Curmāg, the *Ovis Montanus* of Linnaeus, the most delicious of all the Indian wild fowl. It is a small species of Bustard of varied plumage, with a handsome topping of black feathers falling gracefully from its head. Under the name of Hūbārā it is well known in Syria and the states of Barbary.

14. The district of Māimē-sing'h is bounded by the Garā mountains on the north, Sillēt on the east, Dacca on the south, and Dināj-pur on the west. Like the preceding districts it is intersected by the Brāhmi-putra, and is almost entirely under water in the rainy season. It is low, flat, and very fertile; producing large quantities of coarse rice, and mustard-seed. It is much improved since the perpetuation of the Decennial settlement. It has no regular schools. Produce. for Mohammedan, and but a few for Hindū learning, Dacca, which, as usual, are gratuitous. In 1814, the banditti had been entirely extirpated.

Its principal towns are Baigon-bāri, Sirāj-ganj, Jangal-bāri, Bujet-pār, Saang, Cāgmāri and Mūdā-pār.

BENGAL.

14. District of Myman-singh.

Produce.

Schools.

Dacca.

BENGAL. *Baḡra-bārī* (Valcunt'ha-bārī) the capital, is a modern town standing on the west side of the *Brāhma-putra*, in lat. $24^{\circ} 40'$ N., and long. 90° E.

Bygon-harry.

15. District of Silhet.

Sirij-ganj, on the *J'hinkī* river, is, next to Calcutta, the greatest place of trade in the whole province, yet not to be found in any map. It is near the confluence of the *J'hinkī* and *Cōrāyī*.

15. The district of Silhet, (*Srī hātā*, the rich market) at the eastern extremity of the province, is bounded on the north and east by lofty mountains, on the south by *Tipura*, and on the west by *Maimensingh*.

The mountains which form the boundary of this district, rise with a peculiar abruptness from the plains on their western side, and are probably branches of the great chain of *Himālaya*, stretching in a south-easterly direction, through *Chātū-gāng* and *Aracan* to the Indian Ocean. They are occupied by various tribes in almost the lowest state of civilisation, which, in some degree, accounts for their having remained so long unexplored. On the eastern side of them, at a distance of only 350 miles from the frontier of Silhet, lies the province of *Yūn-nan*, in the Chinese Empire; the intervening space is probably a wild rugged country, covered with thick forests, and destitute of any considerable streams; and will perhaps, before many more years have elapsed, be explored by some of our countrymen established in Bengal. The mountainous scenery of the district is very striking and delightful, when contrasted with the flat monotonous landscape of Bengal. Conical hills rising from a broad basis, at short intervals, and clothed with verdure to their summits, in the immediate neighbourhood, and lofty mountains to the north and east, rising abruptly like a wall to an extraordinary height, are the objects which give peculiar character to the views of the country round the town of Silhet. The low lands are flooded to the depth of eight or ten feet in the rainy season, as in the neighbouring districts to the south, and consequently, after the waters have retired, are in an excellent condition for the production of rice. In 1801, that grain, in the bush, sold for fifteen rupees the 100 maunds (eighty pounds each); or rather less than a quarter of a farthing per pound. Wages were proportionally low; eighteen rupees a year (two pounds five shillings) being the highest given; but the indolence of the natives, and facility of obtaining the means of subsistence, render them unwilling to labour, except when compelled by want; and the ground is very ill cultivated notwithstanding the low price of labour. Limes and oranges are among the leading articles of produce in this district. The latter are grown in plantations, which, from their extent, might be called forests. They are exported from hence in great quantities to Calcutta and elsewhere. It is very remarkable that there are only three places in all our territories in Hindūstān where excellent oranges are produced: *Sāt-garh* on the road from Madras to Bangalore; *Chānd-pūr*, near *D'hāch*, where they are delicious; and Silhet, where they are inferior only to those last named. The hills abound in limestone; and that, perhaps, may be one reason why the soil is so favourable to the production of the orange. *Chūnām* (i.e. *chōnāh*, Lime) Was, Ivory, and other articles produced in the mountains are procured from the *K'hāśās* (Cossahs), who inhabit the hills on the eastern confines. *Agura* (fragrant Aloe-

Produce.

Wages.

Fruits.

Minerals.

wood, the *Agallochum* of the ancients, or *Erccariss Agalloche*) and wild silk, are also brought from these forests. Slaty coal of an inferior quality was discovered in these hills in 1814.

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There are no regular schools or colleges, *Moham-Schools*, *medan* or *Hindū*, though writing and reading are taught in several places. Towards the *K'hāśā* (Cossah) mountains, on the frontier, there are several brick redoubts, where guards are stationed to repel the incursions of the wild mountaineers. They had *Mongot* possession of the low lands about *Ilan-gāng*, in *Salween*. 1798, but were expelled by order of the *Marquess Cornwallis*. The *pergonah*, or tract occupied by them, was soon afterwards put into a state of cultivation, and an amicable intercourse with those mountaineers was established, which has a tendency to give them civilized habits. The violent spirit of revenge by which they are stimulated is the worst trait in their character; and they are still a continual source of trouble and anxiety to the inhabitants of the confines. Slavery and the sale of children, by their parents, seem to have existed in this part of India from time immemorial.

The principal towns are Silhet and *Azmeri-ganj*, *Town*. *Lāūr* and *Tarāf*. The *Sōrmah* and *Megnah* are the largest rivers that traverse this district.

Silhet, the capital, is in lat. $24^{\circ} 55'$ N., and long. Silhet. $91^{\circ} 40'$ E. and has a considerable trade and population.

Azmeri, or *Ajaminda-ganj*, in lat. $24^{\circ} 55'$ N., and *Azmeri* long. $91^{\circ} 5'$ E. has wharfs for boat-building, and carries on an extensive commerce with the interior of the province.

Near *Lāūr*, in lat. $25^{\circ} 10'$ N., long. $91^{\circ} 12'$ E. coal has been found; and trade in salt and other articles is carried on thence with the *Gāras* in the neighbouring hills.

16. The district of *Rāj-shāhī*, bounded on the north by *Dinā-pūr*, has *D'hāch* on the east, *Bir'hūm* on the south, and *B'hāgel-pūr* on the west. It is traversed by the *Ganges* and its innumerable arms, and is almost entirely covered with water from July to November. The tract peculiarly liable to be thus inundated was anciently called *Vārāṇḍā*. About *Hariyāl* the country is woody and extremely wild. The shallow lakes or *j'hils* are protected by a guard-boat, under the command of a *jemsāḍr*, or corporal, who is particularly enjoined to watch the *Chilās j'hil*, the largest of them. The improvement here, since the perpetuation of the Decennial settlement, has been considerable. Silk is one of the staple commodities of this district; and formerly four-fifths of all that article produced in India were raised here. In 1814 a monopoly of grain, from apprehensions of a failure in the crops, produced a most dreadful famine among the labouring classes, and many crimes as extreme misery were the consequences of it. The chief towns are *Nāt'hōr*, *Sir pūr*, *Bāliā*, *Hanyāl*, *B'hītōrā*, *Bakhāhī-pūr*, *Comār-k'hāhī*, *Cashtī*, *Shib-ganj* (*Siva-ganj*) *Pānā*, *Rāj-mahāl*, *Sierī-gālī*, *Uḍāy-nālā*.

Nāt'hōr, or *Nāt'haver*, in lat. $24^{\circ} 25'$ N., long. $88^{\circ} 55'$ E. is the residence of the judge and magistrate; and has a jail, usually the most conspicuous building in a country town in Bengal.

Natore.

Bāliā, in lat. $24^{\circ} 33'$ N., long. $88^{\circ} 44'$ E. lies on the north side of the *Pod'hā*, or Great *Ganges*; it has had a subsidiary police establishment since 1815, and a tank

Bachsh.

BENGAL
Cinner-
cally.

plantation, which was in a flourishing condition in 1814.

Cumdar-k'hál, in lat. 23° 52' N. long. 89° 11' E. a few miles to the south of Pad'há, has long been the station of one of the East India Company's commercial residents, whose principal business is in the purchase of piece goods.

Raja-
mahal.

Ráj-mahal (the King's Palace) though belonging to Bengal is now attached to Bahár, and comprehended within the district of B'hágel-púr. It was anciently called Acbar-nagar and Cáne-jál. Placed on the south-western bank of the Ganges, it was formerly the seat of an important military government on the confines of the two provinces, established for the purpose of securing the passes, especially that of Telá-gár'hí.

Tellu-
gurry, or
gully.

This city itself is in lat. 25° 2' N. and long. 87° 43' E. Its original name, Ag-mahal, was exchanged into Ráj-mahal by Mán-sing-b, who, in the reign of Achar, made it the capital of Bengal. Saltán Shujá, the brother of Aúrang-zéb, made it the metropolis of Bengal and Bahár, for which its position is peculiarly adapted. The ruins of his magnificent palace, called Sangi dálla, are still existing. Mirair, the son of Jáfer Ali was hurried there, and his tomb is still kept in good repair. The town, though still populous, has greatly declined, and is in a ruinous, dismal condition.

Sicly-gully.

Sáncrí-gál, or the Narrow Pass, one of the most celebrated defiles in Hindústán, is about eight miles N. by W. from Ráj-mahal. It is the boundary between Bengal and Bahár. Though so carefully guarded in former times, it is not the only pass by which the former of those two provinces can be entered, since the Maharrats, in 1742, found their way through another to the south-west.

Oadallah.

Udá nála, or Událáya nála, a small town in lat. 24° 56' N. and long. 87° 52' E. is remarkable as being the place nearest to the sea (which however is more than 300 miles distant) where any thing so coarse as gravel is to be found in the bed of the Ganges. This place is also known by the extensive lines formed, in 1764, by Kásim Ali, and forced by Major Adams; few traces of them now remain.

17. District
of Rang-
púr.

17. The district of Rang-púr has Bítán on the north, Asám on the east, Maimen-sing'h on the south, and Dináj-púr on the west. It is extremely irregular in shape, embracing nearly the whole of Cúch Bihár; has its boundary very ill defined, and to the north and east, is much exposed to incursions from the neighbouring states of Népal, Bítán, Cúch Bihár, Asám, and the Gárlós. The river Cárátóyá, which is the boundary between this district and Dináj-púr, is continually changing its course, as are the other streams which traverse it. In the north-eastern quarter there are several lakes, the most considerable of which are about five miles north of Jugr'hápa; and on the eastern side a red soil, called Rangan-mati, is covered with stately forests overgrown with climbing plants of an extraordinary size. To the east of the Bráhma-putra and Chancooh there is a considerable extent of hilly country, surrounded on all sides by low lands, and with the exception of one part, no where exceeding the height of 1200 feet. The heats are not so scorching and parching as on the western side of Bengal. The cocoa nut, by some supposed to require the proximity of the sea, flourishes at Góál-párah, 250 miles from the nearest coast. The inhabitants, having no

mills, dress the little wheat they consume like rice. Tobacco and Betel (*Piper Betle*) are the staple productions. Silkworms and the lac-insect are reared in considerable numbers. All the gear necessary for carrying on a small farm of one plough, may be purchased for seven shillings. Rhinoceroses, as well as elephants, are found in the forests; and black bears are among the beasts of prey inhabiting them.

The frontiers bordering on Móring and Bítán, are inhabited by wandering tribes of mountaineers, called Kibacs or Gidarmars, who are robbers, and often murder as well as plunder; a few of them were taken in 1813, and considerable numbers were frightened away by the disaster of their brethren. The natives of this district are peculiarly unhealthy, and a great number of children die in their infancy. Prostitution is extremely common, and carried on by a regularly organized society; which is the less surprising as this country is part of Címárápa, the Paphian Empire of the Hindús. In 295 houses, devoted to their impure orgies, there were found 460 women from the age of 13 to 25, besides half that number more advanced in years, and acting as servants or superintendents, together with several men and boys, the offspring or relatives of this abandoned community. These women, though commonly Mohammedas by origin, affect the manners and superstitions of the Hindús,—a singular and tacit admission of the superior morality of the Mohammedan code. But such is the prevalent laxity of principle, that the Mussulmans when in distress make no scruple to address their prayers to the saints and deities of their idolatrous neighbours.

National
character.

Rang-púr was not completely subdued by the Moghuls till the reign of Aúrang-zéb in 1660. It was then called Fácár-cúndi. In 1765 it passed with the rest of the province into the possession of the English, and has been ever since in a state of progressive improvement. The ruins of Comotá-pír and of the city of Prit'hí Ráj in the division of Sanyál-góta, shew what the splendour of this country must have been at a remote period.

The principal towns are the capital, Gaz-góta, or Towns, Gaj-cóta, Jalál-ganj, Pát-gáng, Sanyál-góta, Jelpesh, Mángal hát, Comotá-pír, Chalmárá, Rangan-mati, Góál-párah, Jugr'hápa, Mez-párah or Méch-párah.

Rang-púr, in lat. 25° 43' N. long. 89° 22' E., is rather Rang-poor.

an assemblage of four distinct villages than a single town. It contains the collector's office and the Company's factory, but it is not the place in which the magistrate of the district resides. There are few public buildings of brick, such as temples, mosques, &c. The Europeans reside at D'háp, near an excellent road shaded with trees.

Mángal hát, in lat. 25° 59' N. long. 86° 39' E., is a very neat, well-built town, with spacious streets. It lies on the river Darlah, which separates Rang-púr from Cúch Bihár. Coarse cotton goods are the staple article of the trade, which it carries on to some extent with Bítán.

Comotá-pír is the name of a large assemblage of ruins, on the west bank of the Darlah, which shew the great power and resources of the ancient sovereigns of this country.

Komota-
poor.

Chilmárá or Chalmárá, on the banks of the Bráhma-putra, in lat. 25° 25' N. and long. 86° 42' E., is a place of great resort, particularly on account of a

Chilmáray.

BENGAL. neighbouring sandbank called *Várum chár*, a place of pilgrimage to the Hindús.

Ranga-mati. In lat. $26^{\circ} 9' N.$ long. $90^{\circ} E.$, is the capital of a division of this district, bearing the same name, and stretching along both sides of the *Bráhma-putra*. It is now a miserable village, but contains some vestiges of a more flourishing condition, and is said to have been a considerable place only fifty years ago. The great forest of *Párbat Joyár* is very near this town.

Goál-pára. *Goál-pára*, on the south side of the *Bráhma-putra*, in lat. $26^{\circ} 8' N.$ long. $90^{\circ} 38' E.$ It is a collection of huts, almost all two or three feet deep in water for above two months in the year; but it is the principal mart for the people of *Asám*, who come hither to barter coarse cloths, stick lac, tar, wax, and gold, for salt. A few Portuguese, called *chóidrá* by the natives, are established here. They are more active than the latter, by whom they are much feared. The men are employed as messengers, the women in needle-work and distilling spirits. They have no priest, and little of Christianity but the name.

Jugig'hópa. on the north side of the river, opposite to *Goál-pára*, in lat. $26^{\circ} 12' N.$ long. $90^{\circ} 35' E.$ is the station of a small detachment under an European officer, acting as a check upon the half-civilized tribes in the neighbourhood. The adjoining forests abound in timber and bamboos. There is a considerable fishery at the beautiful lakes called *Toborong*, north of *Jugig'hópa*; 1400 mannds (119,000 lbs.) are usually taken and dried; half is given as a tribute to the *Rájá* of *Bijál*. Near the village of *Tocor*, there is a very remarkable hill, formed of one vast mass of granite.

Mécha-pára. (the district of the *Mécha*) is a portion of this district, lying on the south side of the *Bráhma-putra*. The tribe of *Méchas* (*Mécha's*?) from which it derives its name, forms a chief part of the population in all the country between *Cúch Bihár* and the mountains.

18. District of Dináj-púr. The district of *Dináj-púr*, has *Rang-púr* on the north, *Malmen-singh* on the east, *Ráj-sháhi* on the south, and *Purniá* on the west. It was anciently named the *Sercár* of *Pijnah*: at a later period it formed together with *Idrác-púr*, the district of *Aúrang-shád*, and was considered as a sort of barrier against the encroachments of the princes of *Cúch Bihár*. The whole country consists of valleys fifty or sixty miles long, and two or three broad; the waters of which rise in the rainy season and form lakes, having the same dimensions. The soil of the high lands is a stiff clay; that of the low lands the same, covered with a deep bed of rich loam. The latter afford pasturage to large herds of buffaloes and other cattle. The northern parts of the district are more level, yet none of it presents so dead a flat to the eye, as many of the more southerly divisions of this province. Rice is the staple production of the soil; then indigo; sugar in small quantities; fibrous plants for cordage and sackcloth; hemp for its husk, used as an intoxicating drug; tobacco in considerable quantities; and many kinds of pulse; such as *kéant* (*Lathyrus sativa*) *máshur* (*Ervum lens*) and *bút* (*Cicer aris-tinum*). The cow is used in the plough, and pigs are extremely common, so little are the tenets of *Bráhma* and *Mohammed* rigidly observed. Six weeks after the rains begin, the rice fields, so dry in spring, are

full of small fish; and the peasants believe that they have fallen from the clouds with the rain. The bamboos are very abundant; and the *Dináj-púr* mats, so much esteemed in Bengal, are made of them instead of rushes. Women are employed to pick and clear the cotton; and spinning cotton thread is the business of their leisure hours, even among those of the highest ranks. Sacking is worn by the lower orders, and manufactured here. The East India Company are the principal merchants, and the natives shew much eagerness to deal with them. Among the inferior merchants are many called *Góidás*, (or *Góiwáris*) who form a religious order, professedly devoted to works of charity and contemplative devotion; but in reality more attentive to their secular concerns: they purchase silk and cottons, and import chintzes, carpets, and *Patná* blankets. The population is enormous, for early marriages are universal, and there is no emigration; but the natives are a weak, pusy race; while disease and penury, together with insufficient clothing and lodging, act as constant checks on the too rapid increase of their numbers.

The principal towns are *Dináj-púr*, *Máldá*, *Gaur*, *Town*. *Rát-ganj*, *G'hórá-g'hát*, *Sib-ganj*, *B'husi*, *Chintáman*, *Avigár*, *G'hagadángá*, *Saucil*.

Dináj-púr, the capital, is lat. $25^{\circ} 37' N.$ long. $88^{\circ} 43' E.$ *Dinag-poor*. It consists of four distinct quarters, *Dináj-púr* Proper, *Ráj-ganj*, *Cánc-chua-g'hát*, *Pahár-g'hát*, forming altogether an assemblage of about 5000 houses. The roads, repaired by the convicts, are excellent; the town is externally neat, but ill supplied with water.

Cántá-nagar, in lat. $25^{\circ} 44' N.$ long. $88^{\circ} 43' E.$ *Conta-nagur*. shows its former importance by the wrecks of monads and ramparts, and has one of the finest temples in Bengal.

G'hórá-g'hát, (Horse-ferry) a town and *zenáddá*, *Gloring-hast*. in lat. $25^{\circ} 13' N.$ long. $89^{\circ} 10' E.$ is also called *Idrác-púr*, and anciently belonged to the district of *Aúrang-shád*. It was given, soon after the Mohammedan conquest, as a fief to different Afghan chiefs, whose zeal in converting the inhabitants to their faith, is still evidenced by the fact, that the Mussulmans are more numerous than the Hindús, though the latter have long regained their natural preponderance. Extensive ruins show how much it formerly exceeded its present bounds; and the sepulchre of *Ismáíl Gházi Khán*, its first Mohammedan conqueror, though ruinous, is venerated both by Mohammedans and Hindús.

Máldá, or *Maladh*, in lat. $24^{\circ} 23' N.$ long. $88^{\circ} 5' E.$ *Malda and Nalod-gung*. is the second town in *Dináj-púr*, and has a large suburb called *Nawráh-ganj*. It is miserably crowded together on the side of the *Mahámaná* river, and is built of materials chiefly from the ruins of *Gaur*. Its trade has been much injured by the improvements in European manufactures, and the French and Dutch factories, as well as many large mercantile houses, have been withdrawn. Its silks and cottons, and especially its *Mangoes*, (*Mangifera*) are in high reputation, but are peculiarly liable to be injured by a species of curculio.

The ruins of *Gaur*, the ancient capital of *Beogal*, *Ruin of Gour*. have long attracted the notice of travellers, and have furnished the inhabitants of the neighbourhood with an almost inexhaustible store of materials for their buildings. They are situated only a few miles to the south of *Máldá*, and are now almost buried in a forest of reeds and palms. This city was called *Jennet-ábád*

BENGAL (the rhode of Paradise) by Achur, and is described under that name in the *Ajla Achuri*, (ii. 8. 8vo. ed.) The ruins extend along the sides of an ancient bed of the Ganges, and occupy an area of twenty square miles; but when the waste of room, generally found in Asiatic towns, is taken into the account, it will appear probable that this vast space did not contain any proportionate number of inhabitants. Several villages have risen as it were from its ashes; and much of its rich soil has been brought into cultivation. The most conspicuous ruin is a mosque built of black horn-blende, or indurated potstone; but most of the buildings were constructed with bricks, extremely solid and durable; the greater part of which have been carried to the neighbouring towns. The situation of Gauw was nearly central, well secured against invasions, and peculiarly convenient for communication by water with the rest of the kingdom. The name of this city is derived from *gur*, which signifies raw sugar in the ancient and modern languages of India; and it is remarkable that from *suresh*, the Sanscrit word for manufactured sugar, the name of that article, in almost every other language, is derived. The Gaura language, or dialect, is the true Bengalese, which is spoken in its greatest purity about D'hák: but the Gaori Bráhmans seem all to have migrated into the Upper India, and to have settled in the neighbourhood of Delhi; while their brethren, now inhabiting Bengal, are confessedly a colony from Canógi. Gauw, as appears from history, was a place of vast extent in the thirteenth century.

Perrush. *Perúyá*, in lat. $25^{\circ} 8' N$. and long. $88^{\circ} 14' E$., was a royal residence in the following century; and considerable remains of it may still be traced.

Tandah. *Tándah*, or *Tárá*, near the ruins of Gauw, in lat. $24^{\circ} 40' N$. and long. $88^{\circ} 15' E$., is surrounded by swamps, and at present is peculiarly unwholesome, though selected by Sulaimán Sháh, in the sixteenth century, as his place of residence on account of its salubrity. Very little remains to shew its former grandeur, except some fragments of a rampart.

19. District of Paruah. *19 Púrniyá*, or *Púrniyá*, comprehends a part of Bihár, according to the Moghal division of these provinces; it has the hills and forest of Márag on the north, *Dináj-púr* on the east, *B'hágel-púr* on the south, and Tirhut on the west. The soil in general is good, but in some places light and sandy; usually flat, but diversified with a few hillocks, in the north-eastern angle, near the Mahámandá; and near Manihari, not far from the Ganges, the calcareous stone, the only rock in the whole district, is quite bare. As in Rang-púr, there are many shallow lakes and morasses, formed in the desert beds of rivers; and almost all the streams have changed their courses since the date of the Bengal Atlas by Major Rennell. The high lands are usually very productive, especially in plants similar to mustard, cultivated for the sake of their oil, the staple commodity of this district. The prevailing winds are south in the rainy season, and north in winter, when the frost is sometimes severe enough to injure the rising crops. The rains do not last so long, and the heats are not so scorching as further east and south. These advantages of climate render this district extremely fertile; it produces rice and other grains in large quantities. Potatoes were introduced by Mr. Smith of Nát'h-púr, and had come in general use among the natives before 1810. There were not

that period several indigo-factories belonging to BENGAL, Hindis and Portuguese, besides those established by British merchants. Much cattle is reared here, and a great deal of butter is made from buffalo's milk; a considerable part of which is clarified and exported under the name of g'hí. The most common timber in the woods, on the Márag boundary, is the Sál, (*Shorea robusta*.) this, and other timber fit for building, is floated, in the rainy season, down the rivers to Calcutta.

Púrniyá devolved with the rest of the *diwán*, (stewardship,) to Lord Clive, in 1765. The exertions of the police have been attended with very satisfactory results; and in 1813 and 1814, there seemed ground for hoping that atrocious crimes would soon become very uncommon.

Púrniyá, (or *Púrniyá*), the capital, in lat. $25^{\circ} 45' N$. and long. $88^{\circ} 23' E$. occupies a space of nine miles square, but is rather a crowd of villages than one unbroken town. The best part of it is east of the *Sikárgiri* river, and consists of one wide street tolerably well built. On the opposite side is Rám-hágh, a dry, sandy plain, on which the houses of the Europeans, the courts of justice, and jail are situated. It has latterly become extremely unhealthy; the cause of which does not appear to have been ascertained.

Nát'h-púr is situated in lat. $26^{\circ} 17' N$. and long. $87^{\circ} 5' E$. and is, like the capital, an assemblage of villages. It is on the bank of the *Cósi*, in the wet season, but some miles from its bed after the water has retired. Much has been done towards the improvement of this town by the exertions of Mr. Smith, a merchant who settled there in 1810.

20. The western division of the ancient kingdom of **20. District of Cooch Bahar.** *Cánnip* formed what is now called the territory of *Cóch Báhar*, and is comprehended between the rivers Chomosh and Mahámandá, *G'hórá-g'hát*, and the mountains of *Bátán*. It is divided into several districts, in a very confused manner; and a part of the *Rájá's* dominions is beyond the limits of Bengal. The principal divisions are the *Chachá* of *Fat'h-púr*; the *Perganahs* of *Pingá*, *Bishárit*, *Pát-gang*, *Bashóti*, *Cankiyá*, *Imjyerhát*; the *Chachá* of *Parbá-b'hágh*, *Bódá*, *Battris-hazárit*, or *Balcunt'h-púr*. The latter *Perganah* was given to the family of *Siva-sing'h*, from which the prime minister was always chosen; and is supposed to produce an annual revenue of 32,000 rupees, a circumstance implied by the first of its two names. This territory is called *Cóch*, to distinguish it from the province of *Bahár*, and to indicate the tribe by which it is inhabited. The southern division, on the river *Duriah*, is highly fertile, and much improved; the northern part is woody and marshy, and in a very desolate state.

The proprietors of this *zemindárit*, or principality, pretend to be descended from *Mahádóó*, or *Siva*; assume the title of *Désh Rájá*, *Déva Rájá*, i. e. Divine King, and never return the salute of any one; but the inhabitants, with some few exceptions, belong to the *Cóch* tribe, one branch of which, the *Pin-Cóch*, have still preserved a religion and language entirely different from that of the *Hindus*. Their priests were called *Colitas*. Many of these have been converted by the *Bráhmans*, and have in their turn carried the *Bráhmañical* faith into the neighbouring countries, having converted the Sovereigns of *Asm*. The sale of children by their parents has been discontinued; but the misery of the lower orders, in the northern

BENGAL districts, is extreme. The ruler tribes are not yet acquainted with the use of the plough, the hoe is their only implement of agriculture; and five acres, it is supposed, are the utmost extent of ground, which a man and his wife can cultivate.

Lachhna Nārāyan, Rājā of Cāch, at the close of the sixteenth century, voluntarily became the vassal of the Emperor Akbar; and Mir Jemshid, the celebrated Subah-dār of Bengal, in the reign of Adreng-zeb, completed the subjugation of this territory, even then a state of considerable extent. It came into the possession of the East India Company in 1765, but was scarcely noticed till 1772, when the Dēb Rājā applied to the magistrate stationed in Rang-pūr, for assistance against the Rājā of Būtān. In compliance with this

request, a detachment under the command of Captain Jones, was sent into the Rājā's territory; and on the capture of Dellanicōta, a Tibetan fortress very difficult of approach, the Rājā of Būtān was glad to negotiate for peace.

Béhar, or Bihār, Vihār, a monastery, the residence of the Rājā, is in lat. 26° 18' N. long. 89° 22' E. See *Asiatic Researches*; *Asiatic Annual Register*; *Asiatic Journal*; Hamilton's *East India Gazetteer*; *Appendix to the fifth Report on East India Affairs*; Colclough's *Agriculture of Bengal*; Tennant's *Indian Recollections*; Ward's *Religion of the Hindus*; Lord Valentia's *Travels*; and particularly Mr. Hamilton's *Hindustan*, a very valuable compilation, containing much matter not to be found elsewhere.

TABLE I.

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF BENGAL IN 1800—1801.

1800—1801.	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	Ships.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Ships.	Merchandise.	Treasure.
	No.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	No.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
London	30	4,698,360	374,142	25	8,487,336	
Copenhagen	2	446,806	575,714	3	714,825	
Lisbon	2	263,989	705,330	4	2,057,036	
America	17	869,977	4,075,867	27	6,106,733	
Malabar	3	31,364		18	1,408,175	
Coromandel	199	813,391	9,155	163	2,480,351	
Sumatra	6	290,712	7,000	10	248,036	
Persian and Arabian gulfs	6	344,175	266,318	8	406,031	
Manilla	1			2	897,775	
Penang and Eastern Islands	35	1,403,067	845,091	30	2,570,640	
Pegu	21	617,010	91,735	14	393,782	
China	5	1,732,693	407,256	5	2,430,006	
Cape of Good Hope	5	70,157			10,500	
New South Wales	5	3,001		1	20,011	
Maldiv Islands	33	77,836		33	53,677	

FOREIGN COMMERCE OF BENGAL IN 1815—1816.

1815—1816.	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	Ships.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Ships.	Merchandise.	Treasure.
	No.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	No.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
London	53	5,752,886	1,142,596	51	16,444,208	
Copenhagen	1	8,410		1	31,964	
Lisbon	7	210,432	3,462,400	5	2,728,922	
Brazil	4	178,241	1,150,273	5	1,678,122	
Caliz	1	25,543	675,000	1	277,010	
Russia	2			2	214,400	
America	22	222,768	4,793,886	19	4,421,435	
Malabar	16	559,092	256,632	19	3,146,261	
Coromandel	181	842,867	1,159,043	171	1,427,372	
Sumatra	11	262,677	387,913	9	469,900	4,500
Ceylon	16	113,910	45,000	16	120,448	
Persian and Arabian gulfs	20	336,696	1,567,151	21	3,606,021	
Manilla	3	237,743	576,816	1	63,110	
Penang and Eastern Islands	22	985,590	269,263	19	2,172,730	11,250
China	15	1,603,691	3,629,618	25	9,037,912	
Pegu	36	353,362	178,395	19	469,038	
Java	18	765,637	46,675	15	1,167,464	
Ambony	1	13,389			34,568	
Mauritius	24	339,310	128,195	43	1,841,998	
Cape of Good Hope	4	15,337		9	297,590	
Maldives	28	140,259		30	99,101	
New South Wales	4	27,699	2,000	8	222,312	

TABLE II.—REVENUE IN 1814—15.

DISTRICT.	Extent in square miles.	Population.	Jam.	Ab-cari.	Sdyr 1814—15.	Customs 1815—16.
1. Bâcar-ganj	4,564	926,000	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
2. Jassar (Jessor)		1,200,000	1,197,561	10,496	352,699	1,546,520
3. Hûglî		1,000,000	291,448	983		
4. Jangal Mahala						
5. The 94 Pargannahs	682	1,025,000	1,249,003	94,675		
6. Nediya	3,115	800,000	1,191,133	11,951		
7. Mâinf-pûr	7,300	1,500,000	1,491,240	10,405		
8. Berd'hwan	5,174	1,450,000	4,323,663	82,650		
9. Bîrb'hûm	3,858	700,000				
10. Murshid-âbâd	2,400	1,020,000	1,874,568	97,032		
11. Châtî-gâng	2,987	1,200,000	585,611	8,064		
12. Tipura	6,618	750,000	1,134,888	15,550		
13. D'hâch	15,397	1,110,000	1,289,145	39,212		
14. Maimen-sing'h	6,700	1,360,000	757,550	21,900		
15. Silhet	2,861	500,000	291,504	7,005		
16. Râj-ahâli	12,999	1,500,000	1,469,814	20,480		
17. Rang-pûr	7,400	2,735,000	1,062,115	16,877		
18. Dinâj-pûr	3,519	3,000,000	1,766,373	10,117		
19. Pârniya	6,340	2,900,000	1,035,789	37,476		
20. Cûch Bihâr	1,302		62,722			

TABLE III.—POPULATION OF THE PRINCIPAL TOWNS IN THE PROVINCE OF BENGAL.

Calcutta	500,000	Berd'hwan	53,900	Râj Mahal	30,000	Maldâ	20,000
D'hâch	200,000	Chander-nagore ..	41,377	Dinâj-pûr	28,000	Gaur	18,000
Murshid-âbâd ..	150,000	Pârniya	33,000	Nûrain-ganj ..	20,000	Chander-consa ..	18,145

TABLE IV.—COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

1. Imaginary Coins.

12 current pice (paisâ) = 1 current ânâ	
16 ——— ânâs = 1 ——— rupee	
116 ——— rupees = 100 sicca rupees	

2. Specie.

1 gold mohur = 7 dwts. 8.5 gr. troy = $14\frac{1}{2}$ to $15\frac{1}{2}$ sicca rupees

1 sicca rupee = 7 dwts. 8 gr. troy =

4 cauries (cyprina moneta) = 1 ganda

5 ganda = 1 buri

20 ganda = 1 pan

4 pan = 1 ânâ, chûc or dâm

16 pan = 1 caban

4 cshan = 1 tâcâ (rupee)

3. Weights.

8 reti = 1 mâsâ

10 mâsâ = 1 tôlâ lb. oz. dwt.

4 tôlâ = 1 chatâc = 0 1 13.866

4 chatâc = 1 pâyâ

4 pâyâ = 1 sér (seer) = 1 13 13.333

40 sér = 1 môn (maund) = 74 10 10.666

1 bâzâr maund = 82lb. 2oz. 2dwt. avoirdupois.

4. Measures.

1. Superficial.

3 yab (barley corns) = 1 anguli (finger)

4 anguli = 1 mut (hand)

3 mut = 1 big'hât (span)

2 big'hât = 1 hât (cubit)

4 hât = 1 d'hanu (fathom)

2000 d'hanu = 1 crûs (côc or coss)

4 crûs = 1 yôjan

2. Capacity.

4 réc = 1 pâli, or dôn, or drôn

4 drôn = 1 âd'hi

5 âd'hi = 1 sâl

4 sâl = 1 bish

16 bish = 1 chauti

1 réc = $1\frac{1}{2}$ sér

5. Time.

60 pal = 1 dand

60 dand = 1 din (day)

BENGAL QUINCE, the English name of the *Crataeva* *Vermeil* of Willdenow, and *Ægle Marnesia* of Correa, in *Transact. Linn. Society*, v. p. 232. Roxburgh, *Plants of Coromandel*, ii. p. 23, tab. 143.

BENGUELA, a province of Southern Africa, between the sixth and thirtieth degree of southern latitude; having Angola on the north, Matamba and the savage Jagas on the east, Bemba on the south, and the Atlantic Ocean on the west. From the high mountains in the interior, called Dongo, flows the river Coanza, which forcing its way through the Serras de Flada, (silver mountains) forms some stupendous cataracts. This river constitutes the northern boundary; the other streams are the Morroco, or Longo, Cuba, Covo, and Gubarora, or S. Francisco, which is now considered as the southern boundary of Benguela: the older writers extended its limits as far to the south as the river Cucoi, and Cabo Negro, in lat. 15° 28' S. This country is fertile and well adapted for the cultivation of all tropical vegetables: but the climate near the coast is excessively fatal to European constitutions. In the mountains, at a distance from the sea, it is much more temperate and healthy; but as it has never been visited by any intelligent travellers in modern times, it is almost wholly unknown. A fragrant wood, called *econgo*, is one of the productions mentioned as peculiar to this country: and the mountains are said to contain rich veins of copper and silver. The principal town San Felipe de Benguela, on the coast, is lat. 12° 58' S. long. 12° 54' E., at the mouth of the Coanza, has a good harbour, and is the residence of a Portuguese Viceroy. The natives are Negroes derived from the same source as those of Congo and Loango, and speaking a similar language. It does not appear that the Portuguese established on this coast have any intercourse by land with their colonies on the opposite shores of Africa; but it is plain, from the accounts received by Mr. Campbell, (*Travels in Africa*, vol. ii. p. 68. 117.) that the Marutis to the north of the Cape of Good Hope have reached the coasts of Benguela; and it is probable, that the river named to him as the Mampoor, is the Momboro of the maps. The best accounts of this country are to be found in Poyari's *Histoire de Loango*, &c. Paris, 1776; Merolla's *Fuogio nel Congo*, Napoli, 1726; and De Grandpre's *Voyage à la Côte Occidentale d'Afrique*, Paris, 1802.

BENIGHT, be and night. Goth. *nauts*; A. S. *niht*; Ger. and Dutch, *nacht*. As the Ger. *Niç* from *veien*, inclinare, so the Ger. *nacht* from *neigen*, inclinare. See Waechter. In the Goth. *aneivan*; and A. S. *anigan*, incinare, decline, may have given *nauts* and *niht*. *Dies ceperat declinare*. *Daga dugann aneivan*. Lue. ix. 19. To go down, (sc. in darkness, gloom,) to overtake, to overshadow, to shroud, to overwhelm, (sc. in darkness, gloom, in ignorance.)

So, go break off this last lamenting kiss,
Which sucks two souls, and vapours both away,
Turn thou, ghost, that way, and let me turn this,
And let ourselves be *benight* our happiest day.
Dante. *The Expurgation*.

Now jealousy no more *benights* her face,
Her courage heautious grows, and grief decays,
And with such joy as shipwreck'd men embrace
The shore, she hastens to the house of praise.

Davenant. *Conditi*, book iii. c. 5.

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But oh! alas! what sudden cloud is spread
About this glorious king's eclipsed head?
It all his time *benights*, and all his store,
Wrapping him round, and now he's seen no more.
Cowley. *The Desideria*, book ii.

Beneath her roof he might be *benight*'d to stay;
Or some *benighted* angel, in his way,
Might ease his wings, and, seeing heaven appear
In its best work of mercy, think it there.

Dryden. *Eleonora*.

Where art thou, poor *benighted* traveller?
The stars will light thee; though the moon should fall,
Where art thou, more *benighted*? more astray!
In ways immortal! the stars call thee back!
And, if obey'd their counsel, set thee right.

Young. *The Complaint*, N. ix.

BENIGN, } Vossius rejects both the etymo-
BENIGNANT, } logies of Festus; ac. *benignus dicitur*;
BENIGNITY, } *proprie, qui bonis, et dignis largitur*;
BENIGNLY, } or *benignus* from *benignando*. He
prefers *benus*, *aditus* *gnus*, but what *gnus* is he says
out. Fr. *benigne*, *benignite*; It. and Sp. *benigno*,
benignita, *benignidad*. The application of the word
seems to be to those qualities or dispositions which
are *productive* of good, with a kind intent. To that
which is gentle, courteous, gracious, kind, liberal,
bountiful.

Mercy blithe but mayde, a mytld þjog with alle
And a ful *benigne* burde, and becom of speche
Heere suetie as hit semede, cam softly walkyng.

Piers Plowman. Vision, p. 345.

For when they came from any strange place
He wold of his *benigne* curtesie
Make hem good chere, and bealy espie
Tidings of swoly regnes, for to lere
The wonderis that they might see or here.

Chaucer. *The Man of Lawes Tale*, v. 4598.

And for he was to lowe strange,
He woude not his herte change
To be *benigne* and favourable
To lowe.

Gower. *Conf. Am.* book iii.

Yours mede schal be mythe, and ye schulen be the soones of the
lyghteste: for he is *benigne* on unkynd men and yrelle men.
Wiclif. *Luk.* ch. vi. fol. 40.

That ye so longe of your *benignite*
Han holden me in honour and nobly,
Wheras I was not worthy for to be,
That thank I God and you.

Chaucer. *The Clerk's Tale*, v. 8783.

Knowist thou not that the *benignity* of God ledith thee to
fortidynghyng.
Wiclif. *Romans*, ch. ii.

For which sayth Saint John Christenote: penance distreloth
a man to accept *benignity* every peyne, that him is enioyned, with
contrition of herte. Chaucer. *The Ferous Tale*, v. ii. p. 263.

Thi gerte mercy for myneden. yf men wolde hit sauen,
Busunliche and *benygnyliche*, and byden hit of grace.
Piers Plowman. Vision, p. 232.

The prynce of the ysa pappill bi name which resceyvede us bi
three daies *benygnyte* and loode us.

Wiclif. *The Dedes of Apollith*, ch. xxviii. fol. 133.

And then the Prince of Wales opened his eyes and regarded
towards heven, and laynd his handes together and sayd, very God
Jesu Christ, who hath formed and created me, cōsent by your
benygne grace, that I may have this day victory of myne enemyes,
as that I do in a ryghtful quarrell.

Prætorius. *Cronycle*, v. l. C. 237.

Yet be there three principall, by whom *humanitie* is chiefly com-
pet, beneficence, beneficence, and liberality, which maketh up
the sayd principall vertue called *benignitas* or *gentleness*.

Sir Thomas Elyot. *The Governour*, fol. 121.

3 N

BENIGHT

BENIGN.

BENIGN.

BENIN.

Ulysses loved, to hear that one man yet
Went him *dearly*, and would truth alight
In those contentions.

Chapman. Homer's Odyssey, book viii. fol. 115.

The ancient heroes were illustrious
For being *benign* and not illustrious
Against a vanquish'd foe; their words
Were sharp and cruel, not their words.

Baile. Hecates, part i. can. 3.

In a thermometer 'tis only the purest and most sublimated
spirit, that is either contracted or dilated by the benignity or
felicity of the season.

Speotator, No. 238.

"Fair dame, united to the bravest chief,"
In smiles he answers, "fortune more benign
Preserv'd those husbands for the happiest lot,
Society with you." *Glover. Athenian*, book vii.

The king whom he [Naok] gave us was indeed the very reverse
of your benignant sovereign, who in reward for his attempt to
bestow liberty on his subjects, banishes himself in prison.

Black. A Letter to a Member of the National Assembly.

Yet by immense benignity inclin'd
To spread around him that primal joy
Which fill'd himself, he rais'd his plastic arm,
And sounded through the hollow depths of space
Theatrical, creative sounds.

Alexander. Pictures of Imagination, book ii.

The hero full of dignity and years,
Once bold in action, plac'd now at ease,
Ev'n by his look benignly cast around,
Gives lassitude relief. *Glover. Leonidas*, book ii.

BENIN, is an extensive kingdom on the coast of Africa, between the Rio Furmoo, nearly in long. 6° 30' E., and the Bonny, or Bani, in long. 9° E. Its northern boundaries are extremely uncertain, as no Europeans have yet penetrated to any distance from the coast. From the latter river, which comes from the north-west, this country derives its name. It was discovered, in 1482, by Alfonso de Aveiro, and has long been frequented by European traders, principally for the purpose of procuring slaves. The Bight of Benin, between the mouths of the Rio da Lagoa (Lagoa) and Cape Formoso, is still, it is to be feared, crowded with vessels employed in that nefarious traffic. Fewer attempts to explore the interior have been made from this, than from almost any other part of the coast, though the abundance of navigable streams seems to offer facilities not found elsewhere; but the perpetual exhalations from so great an extent of alluvial soil, filled with stagnant pools, render this country peculiarly fatal to European constitutions. It does not appear, that there was any establishment in it before 1786, in which year the French erected a fort at the mouth of the Formoso, on the island of Borodo, ceded to them by the King of Warri, a small neighbouring state; but this fort was destroyed by our cruisers in 1792.

This state, like many other of the Negro kingdoms, has at times had an extensive influence over the petty principalities in the neighbourhood. Jabu, on the west; and the islands of Warri (Warre, Owerri, Owarre, or Awerri) and Bani (Bonny) on the east, are tributary to the King of Benin, who resides at a town of that name, about 150 miles up the river Formoso or Benin. This city is situated in a spacious plain, and is enclosed by a wide ditch. Its streets are fifteen feet broad, and the houses are thatched with the leaves of the fan-palm (*Latisia*). The palace consists of a great many square butts, covered with shingles, and all

included within one enclosure. The nearest springs are at the distance of a furlong, which must be a serious inconvenience in so hot a climate. The King, like most of the Negro Princes, has a very despotical power. He is venerated almost as a deity by his subjects; but is somewhat checked by the influence of his caboceros or chiefs. He never appears in public except twice a year: at the yam-feast, and the cowry-feast, and on those occasions human sacrifices are offered up. The religion of his subjects is very similar to that of the rest of this coast—a fetish (fetich) worship, debased by the grossest superstitions.

Polygamy prevailed to such an extent, that when M. Palisot de Beauvois was in this country, one of the King's ministers had 400 wives. Jabu, to the west of the Furmoo, is one of the most flourishing places in Benin. Blue and white cottons are manufactured by them, and are taken in some quantity by the Portuguese, for the use of their slaves in Brazil. Gato (Agaton or Agatho) is a town nearer to the sea than the capital of Benin, and is more frequently visited by European traders. Warri is an island at the mouth of Rio de Escavo or Don Forcados (Slave's or Hangman's River), and formerly gave its name to an independent kingdom. Between it and the bay formed by the New Colabar and Bani rivers (Rio Real and San Domingo of the Portuguese) there are a great number of outlets, which are probably the mouths of one large stream, forming a delta in the interior like that of the Nile and Ganges. The soil is everywhere alluvial and highly productive, even where fresh water is not easily procured, as is the case between Gato and Benin. Gold dust is not found in this kingdom, which, together with the want of other mineral productions, shews that the higher lands must be at a considerable distance. The natives are remarkably courteous and hospitable. They have the faults and good qualities common to most of the Negro tribes; are benevolent and faithful, but insincere and vindictive, indolent and thoughtless, the slaves to a degrading and inhuman superstition, which prompts their chiefs to celebrate those bloody rites which seem so inconsistent with the natural kind-heartedness of the Negro character. The descriptions, given by the older navigators, of the massacres made at the obsequies of their kings, are as horrid as similar scenes in Asbanti, described by Mr. Bowditch. Their attachment to their country is said to exceed all bounds; what then must be the wretchedness of those who are carried off by the slave-ships to the opposite shores of the Atlantic. From Bani alone, 15 or 30,000 were said to be carried off annually before the abolition; and it is to be feared, that the French and Portuguese have renewed this scourge to a great extent since the termination of the continental war. Salt, palm-oil, and Acori or blue-coral are among the principal articles of trade in this country. Smith's *Voyage to Guinea*, p. 227. Le Groing and Palisot de Beauvois, in the *Annales des Voyages*. Robertson's *Notes on Africa*, 297.

BENJAMIN TREE, the English name of the *Laurus* *Benzoin*.

BENISON, Fr. *benizon*, from the Latin *benedictio*. See *Benediction*.

Richard said to his wife, mariners if ye moun,
Arjane in to Manille, with Gods benison.

R. Brinsley, p. 147.

BENIN.

BENIN.

BENISON.

BEN-
THEM.

And certes, but if they deem amendeem, right as God yare his
benison to Loken by the service of Jacob, and to Phance by the
service of Joseph, right as God wold yere his malison to write
lordshippes as punition the wickedness of his servants, but they
come to amendeem.

Chaucer. The Prioress Tale, v. li. p. 217.

All that precession is pure list puffer
They han the benison of God, blisful is erthe.

Piers Planchman. Credo.

Therun on hyt hem he sat adoun
Before Clement.

And seyde: "Fadyr thy benison
With good latest!"

German Emperor, in Weber, v. iii. p. 261.

And when of un he leave he tak, /
The usen they wat mine ce,

I gawe tell him a purting lute,
"My benison prag wi' thee."

Guidrey, in Percy's Reliques, v. i. p. 346.

OLD MAN. God's benison go with you, and with thoun

That would make good of bad, and friends of foes.

Shakespeare. Macbeth, fol. 139.

ELD. BR. Unsmoller, ye faist stars; / and thou, fair moon,
That woe't'st to love the traveller's benison,
Stop thy pale viage through an amber cloud.

Milton. Comus.

Twelve noble virgins, blooming, young and fair,
With hyscintille wreaths adorn'd their hair,

And pleas'd the vocal lessons to shewer,
To the soft cithern danc'd before the bowen.

Pamph. Theocritus Idyl. 17.

BENSUWEEF, a town on the west of the Nile,
in the middle province of Egypt, called El Wostani,
in lat. 29° 9' N., long. 30° 32' E. the residence of a
Beys; adorned with many mosques and houses of
brick. It has manufactories of carpets, woollens, and
linens.

BENNINGTON, a county in the south-west part
of the state of Vermont, United States of America.
It is bounded on the north by Rutland county, east
by Windham county, south by Massachusetts, and
west by the state of New York. The population is
about 16,000 or 17,000, and the two principal towns
are Bennington and Manchester.

BENNINGTON, a post town in the above county,
watered by a branch of the Housack, and situated
about thirty-seven miles north-east of Albany, and
395 from Washington. It borders on the state of
New York, and stands in a good farming country,
besides being a place of considerable trade, with a
population of nearly 3000 individuals: There are
also some manufactories of cotton, woollen, and paper,
with a fine quarry of marble in the vicinity. The
courts for the county are alternately held here and at
Manchester. There is also an academy. A weekly
newspaper is published here; and it was the scene
of a battle between the Americans, under General
Shark, and the British, on the 16th of August 1777,
in which the former were victorious. Lat. 43° 42' N.
and long. 73° W.

BENNOW, the capital of the Moorish kingdom of
Ludamar, in Central Africa, to which Mr. Park was
for sometime detained a prisoner; he, however, at
last found means to escape, and describes it as con-
sisting of a number of dirty looking huts scattered
over a large space of ground, and resembling a camp
rather than a town. It is situated about lat. 15° 5' N.
and long. 7° 10' W.

BENTHEIM, a county of Germany, formerly
belonging to the family of Bentheim-Bentheim, and
included in the circle of Westphalia, but now forming

a part of the kingdom of Hanover. It lies principally
between the bishopric of Munster and the province of
Overijssel, exceeds forty miles in length, and contains
about 360 square miles, with a population, according
to a late enumeration, of 94,368. Much of the county
is occupied by tillage, or laid out in beautiful meadows,
which feed a great number of cattle, and not only
supply abundance of the necessities of life, but afford
several articles of export. It also contains many woods,
and quarries of good stone. The river Vechte runs
through the whole length of the county and facilitates
its commerce, which consists chiefly in linen, thread,
wool, yarn, wood, stone, cattle, and honey. The in-
habitants consist of Lutherans, Calvinists, and Roman
Catholics. In 1806 the county of Bentheim was
first annexed to the Grand Duchy of Berg, and then
to the French Empire, and included in the depart-
ments of the Mouths of the Yssel and the West Ems.
At the general peace of 1814 it was annexed to the
kingdom of Hanover, by the Congress.

BENTHEIM, the capital of the above county,
situated on an eminence, about thirty miles north-west
of Munster. It contains two churches, one of them
belonging to the Protestants, and the other to the
Catholics. The castle or palace of the Counts stands
on an elevated rock, and was garrisoned for many
years by the troops belonging to the Bishop of Munster.
It was taken by the French, after a heavy
bombardment, in 1760; but was soon after retaken
by the allies, and part of the works blown up. It
was also taken again by the French in 1799, and
retained till the peace.

BENU'M, } Be and sum. "Nun is the
Benu'mmenness." past tense, and past participle of
nimen, copere, eripere, to nim. Skinner says truly—
eodem fere sensu quo Lat. dicunt membris captis; i. e.
membrorum usu, &c. motu et sensu privatis." Toole, i.
305.

To take away, to deprive of (&c. sensation, thought,
&c.)

His male neither go, ne come,
But all together he is benome,
The power both of hands and feet.

Source. Conf. Am. book vi.

The present site of Leice
Of afterwards to cum
Amaze my loving tender breast
And scenes due leuen.

Turberville. Epitaph, &c.

But when the mid heat is altogether vanquished, there must
needs ensue a brownness and congestion of the body, but if
heat get the victory, it bringeth a certain warmth, and distillation,
with pleasure.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 814.

As for the Aspiden, look whomever they have stung, they die
upon it with a kind of deadly sleepiness and benummedness in
all their limbs.

Id. Plutarch, fol. 356.

Into my bosom did I take,
This frozen and benumbed man,
Not fearing from it any harm;

But now it stings that breast that made it warm.

Cowley. Lord's Ingratitude.

Source had she faith'd when her feet she found
Bennum'd with cold, and instant'd to the ground.

Dryden. Gold's Metamorphosis, book i.

Some on a broken frag were struggling cast,
And there by oaky tangles grappled fast;
A while they bore th' o'erwhelming billows rage,
Unequal combat with their fate to wage;
Till all bennum'd, and feeble, they forego
Their slippery hold, and sink in shades below.

Poetaster. Shipwreck, c. l.

BENZON. BENZOIN. Fr. *Benjoin*; Lat. *Benzoinum*. *Asa dulcis*; *Asa odrata*; *Liquor Cyrenensis*; *Balsanum*: —Gum Benjamin in *Materia Medica*. Benzoin is a solid, fragile, vegetable substance, of a reddish brown colour. In commerce two varieties are distinguished, viz. the common and the amygdaloidal, the latter containing whitish tears, of an almond shape, diffused through its substance. It is imported from Sumatra, Siam, and Java, and is found also in South America.

Benzoin is obtained from the tree called *Styrax Benzoin*, and perhaps from some others; on making incisions into the bark, it flows out in the form of a balsamic juice, having a pungent taste, and an agreeable odour.

The pure balsam consists of two principles, viz. a resin and a peculiar acid, termed Benzoic, which is procured from the mass by sublimation: it is soluble in water. This acid is found also as a constituent principle in the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Storax; it exists in the urine of cows, camels, and even of young children. It is sometimes found in a crystalline form on the pods of the Vanilla.

Benzoin is not soluble in water, but is readily dissolved in alcohol, by the aid of a gentle heat. The tincture thus made, is used in pharmacy. A small quantity of this tincture dropped into water, forms a white milky fluid, which is used in France as a cosmetic, under the title of *lait virginal*. The gum is a principal ingredient of the common court plaster.

The acid, as well as the gum, is employed in medicine; they are stimulating, and more particularly act upon the pulmonary system, whence they are used in asthma, and chronic catarrh. For a description of the plant, from which this balsam is derived, see *STYRAX*.

BEPAINT. Lat. *pingo*, *pingere*, which Scaliger thinks is *pingere* (*detractâ aspiratione*) *exprimere imitationem rem*; Fr. *peindre*; It. *pingere*; Sp. *pintar*. To paint.

And with that word she spy'd the hunted bear;
Whom frothy mouth, bespainted all with red,
Like milk and blood being mingled both together,
A second fear through all her sinews spread.
Which madly hurries her she knows not whither.
Shakespeare. Venus and Adonis.

JUL. Thou knowest the marks of sight is on my face,
Ere would a maiden blush against my cheeks,
For that which thou hast heard me speak to night.
Id. Romeo and Juliet, fol. 59.

BEPALE, be and pale. Lat. *pallere*; Fr. *pâler*; which Skinner, after Vossius, thinks may be from the Gr. *παλιν*, *aliofacere*; to make white, to whiten.

When first those purple'd lips of thine,
Alfred's with blushing sighs, did seal
Their violated faith on mine,
From the soft bosom that did heal
Thou, thou my melting heart didst steal.
Corne. 'Tis an Inconstant Servant.

BEPEARL, be and pearl. Fr. *perle*; It. and Sp. *perla*; Dutch, *peerle*; Ger. *perl*. Skinner thinks, from the Lat. *perula*, on account of its roundness; Wachter, that *perle* is the diminutive, *Beerle*, *baccula*. *Beera*, was the common Latin name for what we call pearl.

Ask me who I send to you
This primrose all *bepearl'd* with dew;
I straight will whisper in your ears
The sweets of love are wash'd with tears.
Corne. The Princesse.

BEPEPPER, be and pepper. Lat. *piper*; Gr. *ἔπερ'ωσα*. } *εἰς*, which Vossius thinks passed from the Indians through the Persians to the Greeks. To throw at, pelt as with pepper-corns, or with the grains of pepper from a pepper-box.

O ye water-drinkers! it is then by the delusive fountain, that ye have so often governed and turn'd this world about like a mill-wheel, grinding the faces of the impotent;—*bepeppering* their ribs,—*bepeppering* their noses, and changing sometimes even the very frame and face of nature!

Sicne. Tristram Shandy, chap. v.

BEPINCH, be and pinch. Pinch, Dutch, *pincen*; Fr. *pincer*; It. *placcare*; which Junius thinks may be from the A. S. *pyngan*: whence also, Tooker derives the Lat. *pingere*.

— So crackt their back bones wrincht
With horrid twitches. In their sides, arms, shoulders (al
Apocryph.)
Ras thick the wals, red with the blood, ready to start out.
Chapman. Mem. El. book xviii. fol. 322.

BEPLASTER, be and plaster. Fr. *endosser*, from *de* and *endosser*, to form, to fashion. Lat. *emplastrum*; Fr. *plastre*; It. *empiastro*; Sp. *emplastro*; Dutch, *plaster*. In Ger. *pflaster*, is mud, clay, and every soft material from which any thing may be formed.

Yet, with talents like these, and an excellent heart,
The man had his fullings, a dupe to his art.
Like an ill-judging beauty, his colours he spread,
And beplaster'd with rouge his own natural red.
Goldsmith. Retaliation.

BEPLUME, be and plume, q. v. Lat. *pluma*, of unknown origin.

Applied to feathers worn as an ornament, as a mark of honour, &c.

The young, in armour bright, which shone like gold, *beplum'd* with each gay feather of the east,—all—all—tilting at it like fascinated knights in tournaments of yore for fame and love.
Sicne. Sentimental Journey.

BEPOWDER, be and powder. Fr. *poudre*, *pouder*; Lat. *pulex*. See above *BEFFREX*. See an example from Search, under the word *BECAVE*.

BEPRaise, be and praise. Dutch *pruis*, *prisen*; Ger. *preis*, *preisen*; French, "Praise" to prize, esteem, respect, reckon account of." Cotgrave. We praise those things only, which we hold in price. Junius.

I have lived to see generals who once had crowds hallooing after them wherever they went, who were *bepraised* by newspapers and magazines, those echoes of the voice of the vulgar, and yet they have long sunk into merited obscurity, with scarce even an epitaph left to flatter.
Goldsmith. Essay 8.

BEPROSE, be and prose. Lat. *prosa*, from *prosa*, quasi *recte oratio*, opposed to *versu oratio*.

Such was his doom impos'd by heaven's decree,
With ears that hear not, eyes that shall not see,
The low to swell, to level the sublime,
To blast all beauty, and deprave all rhyme.
Mallet. Of Verbal Criticism.

BEPURPLE, be and purple. Gr. *πορφύρεα*; Lat. *purpura*; Fr. *pourpre*; It. *porpora*; Sp. *purpura*. In Luc. xvi. 19. John. xix. 2. and 5. we find the Goth. *purpuraw*, and the A. S. *purpur*, which Junius derives from the Latin *purpura*.

Like to beauty, when the lawn,
With rosy cheeks *bepurple'd* o'er, is drawn
To boast the loveliness it seems to hide.
Dudley Digges. Verses prefixed to Sandys's Poems.

**BE-
FETTER.
—
BE-
PURPLE.**

RE-
QUALIFY
RE-
QUEATH

BEQUALIFY, be and qualify. *Qualify*, from *qualis* and *fit*; *qualis* of uncertain origin. See *Vossius*.

And I do vail to both your thanks and love them: but primarily to yours, most ingenious, acute, and polite ladies.
For, Gods my life, how he doe's all to bequalify her! ingenious, acute, and polite! as if there were not others in place as ingenious, acute, and polite, as she.
Ben Jonson. Cynthia's Revels, act iv. sc. iii.

BEQUEATH, } A. S. *beceathen*. Be and *cweathan*; *Beceath*, to say, to announce, to declare, ac. *Beceath*, to, the will or determination;—the *Beceath*, a manner in which the bequeather wills or determines that his property should be disposed of.

Atte lute, jo be juel, jat toward his ende be drow,
His *bequeath* in his manere he made byure his de.
Wyllam, he rede kyng, his sone at Engelond he *bequeath*
he jongere al his porcheas; ac, as laue was it wene,
Nanassidys his crynge he jef his *bequeath* mine
Robert je Courteise; and livery his jongere jo
He *bequeath* his treasure, vor he sadowe sones nanmo.
R. Gloucester, p. 381.

For though they yewe as all his heritage,
For which we claime to be of high perage,
Yet may they not bequeathe, for no thing,
To none of us, his reuous living.
Chaucer. The Wif of Bathes Tale, v. 6701.

Face wol quath the fere, for I not heten fenden
And byen to an housewif, that hath us *bequeathen*
Ten pound in her testament.

Piers Plowman. Crede, D. 1.

To penances and to pilgrimages, Ich wol passe with oþere
For this ich wolle er ich wende, do wryte my *bequeath*.
Id. Fustian, p. 133.

He dyed, being after hym ill sonnes, to the which he *bequeath*
his possessions and goods, but for y^e youngest, named Gryffyn, held
him self contended with such *bequeath* as his fader to hym gave
he therefore made warre upon his brother. *Ibid.*
Polygon, v. l. chap. 48.

And as good men, in charite should live,
I care my faults may no mans mind offend,
So har is all, I have to bequest,
And this is all, of the world request.
Guescigne. A Remembrance.

With cruell spots
Out of his will his doubtles heires be blots
And all his goods to *Piside* bequesten.
Sir J. Beaumont. Juvenal, Sat. 2.

Unthriftiness, loveliness, why dost thou spend
Upon thyself thy beavies legacy?
Natures bequest gives nothing but doth lend
And being frank, she lends to those are free.
Shakespeare. Sonnet iv.

If the bequeather or maker of any will be on liue, the will taketh
no place, and may be voyde.
Wilson. Arte of Logike, fol. 48.

I have often read with a great deal of pleasure a legacy of the
famous Lord Bacon, one of the greatest criminals that our own or
any country has produced: after having bequeathed his soul, body,
and estate, in the usual form, he adds, "My name and memory I
leave to foreign nations, and to my countrymen, after some time
be passed over."
Taiter, No. 133.

But haste to thy illustrious task; prepare
The noble work well trusted to thy care,
The gift bequeathed by Addison's command,
To Crugge made sacred by his dying hand.
Young. Letter to Mr. Tickell.

Saint John instantly saw the meaning, and felt the force of this
moving bequest. He considered our Lord's mother as his own,
and from that hour (as he himself with his usual modesty and sim-
plicity tells us,) "he took her to his own home."
Perkins. Sermon xviii. v. l.

BERA
BERAR

BERA, a considerable district in the island of
Celebes, stretching along the sea coast eastward from
the river Bampang to the point of Lassoan, was
ceded to the Dutch by the Rájah of Bonny. Much of
it is stony and unproductive, but it affords timber for
prows. Some of the most wealthy inhabitants are
merchants, others are employed in building small
vessels, or in making a species of cloth from cotton
that grows in tolerable abundance in some parts of the
district.

BERAIN, be and rain. Goth. *riegen*; A. S. *reian*;
Dutch, *regen*; Ger. *regen*; Swe. *regna*. Wachter sus-
pects that *riegen*, to run, to flow, is the parent of *rean*,
regen. And so the Goth. *rieman*, the A. S. *reman*, to
run, may be the same word differently written as the
Goth. *riegen*, A. S. *reian*, *pluere*, or *fluere*.

To flow down, to bedew, to bewet, to moisten.

So after that he long had his complained
His hands wrong, and said that was to say
And with his teares salt he's breast bedained
His gan the teares wipen all of ful day.

Chaucer. Troilus, book iv. fol. 102.

And Polimite, of whom I speak late
With the tempest hets, and all *berained*
By grace only, the cite hath obtained.

The Story of Thebes, fol. 377.

The months vato this signe ordeigned
In February, which is *berained*,
And with londfloods in his rage
At forden lettech the passage.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 140.

And with this thought, the blood forakes the face
The teares *berayn* my cheeks of deadly heave,
The whyche as sone as sobbing sighes, alas,
Unhappy have, thus I my plaint reweave.

Surrey. Complaint of a dying Lover.

Till at the last recovering his voice,
Sopping the teares that all his breast *berain'd*,
On cruell fortune weeping thus he plain'd.

Mirror for Magistrates, p. 271.

Ye sighes make true report of teares,
That so *berayn* my heart,
As Helen husbands teares were
For treason of his guest.

Turner's Epitaphs, &c.

BERAR is a province of the Deccan, or southern
division of Hindústán, lying between Khándesh and
Málwá, Áurang-ábád and Bider, north and south;
and having Áurang-ábád and Khándesh on the west,
with the winds of Gondvánah on the east. It was
anciently called Dardátat, Rndáruyat and Tittanar,
according to Abú'l Fazl; but the Súbah-dár described
by him was more extensive than the province which
now bears the same name. Its present divisions are

- | | |
|-----------------|-----------|
| 1. Baitál-bárf. | 5. Wásim. |
| 2. Narnálá. | 6. Máhór. |
| 3. Gáwíl-gur'h. | 7. Calam. |
| 4. Maicar. | |

It forms a table land, or rather an elevated valley,
nearly in the centre of Hindústán, being almost equally
distant from the opposite coasts. On its southern con-
fines it is bounded by a chain of g'háts or defiles which
have been lately surveyed in consequence of their being
the resort of the freebooters called Pindáris. These
g'háts consist of a succession of heights, now and then
distinguished by a prominent peak, and intersected by
deep ravines, perceptible only on a near approach.

BERAR. Some of them are impassable, except by travellers on foot. They are very stony, and in general covered with a thin brushwood. The most accessible is the Balāish g'hat; and the whole range of hills attains its greatest height near Saulah; its face is so steep as often to have the appearance of a perpendicular wall.

Soil and produce.

The soil of this province is generally rich, and much of it is distinguished by the name of "the black, cotton soil;" it produces large crops, but is ill cultivated, in consequence of the oppression of the government and the continual ravages of the Pindaris. Indian corn, Bengal gram, peas, vetches and flax are grown principally, and gathered in January. The wheat, which rises to the height of two or three feet, is extremely nutritious and yields an excellent spirit. The Tapi, Purnā, Werā and Pān-gangā are the principal streams. Ellich-pūr, Melicah-pūr, Māhā-pūr, Acwāt, Acūh, Narnālā, Gāwīl-gar'h and Amrā-watī, are the chief towns. The population is small and declining, and the trade inconsiderable; it is principally carried on by itinerant merchants, or rather hucksters.

A particular dynasty, rising out of the ruins of the Bahmani family, established itself in the southern part of Berar in the beginning of the sixteenth century. It was dispossessed by the Nizām-shāhs in the latter part of the same century, and the country was finally subjected to the Moghul about 150 years ago. This was one of the first portions of that vast empire wrested from the house of Tīmūr by the Mahrattas; and it was divided, in nearly equal portions, between the Rājā of Nāg-pūr and the Peshwā. In 1804 the Nizām obtained nearly the whole of the latter division, in consequence of the Peshwā's ill-advised alliance with Daulat Rād Sindhia. Tribes of freebooters, called Nācs and B'hils, long laid this country and the Nizām's government under heavy contributions. They were even protected by some of that Prince's own ministers; but with the assistance of the British subsidiary force, they were completely subdued in 1807.

Ellich-poor

Ellich-pūr, in lat. $21^{\circ} 14' N.$ long. $77^{\circ} 36' E.$ is the capital of Berar. It is now fallen into decay, and is a place of no strength, being only partially enclosed by a thick wall. There are some decent bāzars, and tolerably well-built houses in it.

Ajntee.

Ajantī (from the Sanscrit, Ajyanti, an impregnable pass), in lat. $20^{\circ} 34' N.$ long. $75^{\circ} 56' E.$ is at the entrance of a celebrated defile. It is thinly inhabited and ill fortified; but is protected by a small force constantly stationed there.

Narnālā.

Narnālā (Narnāyālā), a district situated above the chain of hills between Ajanti and the Werā. It was a separate district in the time of Achar. It is watered by the Parūh and many smaller streams; but it is in general ill cultivated.

Gāwīl-gar

Gāwīl-gar'h is a hilly district, especially on the north-east, and naturally strong. Its lower lands are extremely fertile. The capital, from which it derives its name, is a fortress on a high and rocky hill, in lat. $21^{\circ} 28' N.$ and long. $77^{\circ} 24' E.$ and in that chain of mountains from which the Tapi and Purnā spring. It was considered as impregnable, but capitulated after a siege of two days, in December 1803.

Amrā-watī.

Amrā-watī (Amravati, immortal), a large and populous town, in lat. $20^{\circ} 24' N.$ long. $77^{\circ} 57' E.$ Its trade is considerable, particularly in cotton, of which it sends a large quantity to Bengal, which is more than 500 miles distant.

Asā, a small town in lat. $20^{\circ} 10' N.$ long. $76^{\circ} 40' E.$ **BERAR.** near which the celebrated battle was fought in 1803, when General Wellesley (since Duke of Wellington,) with only 4500 men, defeated the combined forces of Daulat Rād, Sindhiyā and the Nāg-pūr Rājā, amounting to 30,000 men. Notwithstanding this disparity of numbers, the victory was complete.

Wāsin or Bāsin.

Wāsin, (Bāsin) a district above the g'hāts, is mentioned in the *Agē Acheri*, as containing eight mahals. It is watered by the Pān-gangā, which flows through a large valley, and falls into the Werā. The town of Wāsin is in lat. $20^{\circ} 10' N.$ long. $77^{\circ} 22' E.$

Māhār (Mahver, moon-shapel,) a district in the Seshāchil hills, described as containing twenty mahals in the time of Achar. The town is to the south of the Pān-gangā, in lat. $19^{\circ} 54' N.$ and long. $78^{\circ} 8' E.$

Kallum.

Calam, a district on the western bank of the Werā, containing thirty-one mahals in the time of Achar.

(See Hamilton's *East India Gazetteer*; Hamilton's *Indo-China*; Rennell's *Memoirs of the Map of India*; Scott's *Translation of Ferihta's History of the Deccan*; Leckie's *Route to Nag-poor*, and the *Asiatic Researches*.)

BERATE, be and rate. *Lat. root.* *Re-use.* We use to tax, and to rate, metaphorically, in a similar manner. To tax a man with a crime, is to lay it to his charge, to charge him with it, to accuse him of it. To rate a man for his offences, to tax, to charge him with them, to repeat the charge, to reproach him with, to scold him for them. See **RATE**.

But when Antonio afterwards came to the knowledge thereof, and that this fraud and condescension was bewailed and detected by the language and speech of the voices, he fell into a furious fit of cholera, and all to bewail the foretold ruin.

Holland. Plutarch, v. l. fol. 162.

BERATTLE, be and rattle. The Dutch have *raten*, but whence it does not appear. See **HATTLE**.

As then: He did all berattle him. Whence appears that a syllable is added to this word (*rattle*).

Wilson. Arts of Rhetorique, p. 100.

But there is, Sir, an army of children . . . these are now the fashion, and so be-ratted the common stages (so they call them,) that many wearing rapiers, are afraid of goose quills, and dare scarce come thither.

Shakespeare. Hamlet, fol. 263.

BERBER, (in the plural *Berber*, pronounced *Berber* by the Moors,) is the name of a people spread over nearly the whole of Northern Africa. From their name the appellation of Barbary is derived, (see **BARBARY**), and they are perhaps the descendants of the ancient Numidians, whose country they now occupy. Their different tribes are scattered over the whole space intervening between the shores of the Atlantic and the confines of Egypt; but the different branches of Mount Atlas are their principal abode; while to the south they are bounded by the Negro states on the edge of the great Sāhā, or Desert. To Leo Africanus and the Arabian writers, we are chiefly indebted for our accounts of this remarkable people. El Idrisi, who wrote in the middle of the twelfth century, places the greater part of the regions inhabited by the *Berber*, in the first part of the third climate. "Their original country, he says, was Palestine (Felestin) and these Sovereign Goliath (Jāhāt) son of Daris, son of Jānā, the parent of the Zenāth of the west." After giving the genealogy of Jānā, he tells us that "when Jāhāt the Berber had been slain by Dāvid (David), the Berbers travelled through the west (El-magrib) till they

BERBER. reached its extreme boundary. There they separated into different tribes: Mezânah, Moghâlah and Durânah settled in the mountains; Lewânah occupied the land of Berkah; a tribe of the Hawârah fixed itself in the mountains of Ne-fânah. Others established themselves farther westwards, and tribes of the Masûdûnah settled with them and cultivated that country. The tribes (Kabâyl) of the Berbers are Zeâstâh, Durânah, Moghâlah, Minkaddar, the Benû Abd rabbihî, Runjûm, Ne-fânah, Ne-fârah, Matmânah, Lamtah, Saohâjah, Hawwârah, Catâmah, Lewânah, Mezânah, Sudrânah, Basâtîn, Med-yânah, Rabûnah, Merâsâh, Kâtah, Kûriyyah, Hatluk, Wellah, Benû Menbûs, Benû Samjûn, Benû Wâreklân, Benû Sedrân, Benû Rehrehî, Wôrâsâ, Zarbûs, &c." He then traces the origina of the Saohâjah and Lam-tânah families, from Ozâh, an Arab of the tribe of Himyâr, who aciently reigned in Yemea (Arabia Felix), and that of the Hawwârah from the same mother, and an Arab father who came out of the Hîjaz (Arabia Deserta), and wandering through the Desert in quest of his strayed asses, like Saul (1 Sam. ix.) found a resting-place and a wife among the Zeâstâh tribe in Ifrîkiyyah (Africa Propria). The latter passage is to be found in the epitome of Idrisî, published under the title of *Geographia Nubiensis*, p. 83. and Hartmann's *Edrisii Africa*, 197. and therefore it is not given here at length; but the preceding ones, containing the enumeration of the Berber tribes, are omitted in the abridgement, and had not been previously published. The descendants of these three brothers, Saohâjah, Lamtânâh or Latat, and Hawwârah, became very numerous and powerful. "They made themselves masters of the other tribes of Berbers, and drove them into the deserts (Es-sâhâh) bordering on the Atlantic (Bahra'l mozmân,) where they still remain, dispersed through its different regions. Their wealth consists in camels of an excellent breed: they are migratory, never continuing long in one place. Both men and women wear woollen gowas, and bind woollen turbans, called carâh, round their heads. Their food consists of camel's milk, and camel's flesh dried in the air and baked. They sometimes obtain grain and raisins from their neighbours, but chiefly raisins; for they are fond of steeping them when bruised in water, and thus forming a clear, cool, and pleasant beverage. There is likewise much honey in their country, and it is the best kind of provision which they have. Their most excellent dish is that called *aulâ*, i. the Berber language: it is made by pounding roasted grain very fine, and mixing it up into a paste with clarified honey; they then store it up in their provision bags, and it becomes a most desirable article of food. If a man eat a handful of it in the morning, and drink some milk afterwards, he may continue his journey through the rest of the day without feeling any want of another meal." Idrisî has many other occasional notices of the Berbers; but the most complete account of them is given by Leo, who lived three centuries later, and was himself a native of Barbary. Africa is divided by him into four parts: Barbary, Numidia, Libya, and Nigritia; the Berberiyah, Bilâdu'l-jerîd (Date-land,) Sâhrâ (desert,) and Bilâdu's-sûdân (Negro-land) of the Arabs. Three of these he assigns to the white, or tawny inhabitants, as the Latin version has it, and he gives some fanciful etymologies of the word Berber, which signifies either, to moulder indistinctly; or "to the Desert! to the Desert!" In that case it would be

inapplicable to the countries on the northern side of Mount Atlas. He then adds, that great uncertainty prevails respecting the real origin of the white inhabitants of Africa, and gives some traditions similar to those of Idrisî, quoted above, which shew that the notion of a mixed and Asiatic origin has been long prevalent among these tribes: it is an opinion which their language and habits seem to corroborate. The principal families or tribes of the Berbers are five; Saohâjah, Masûdûnah, Zeâstâh, Hawwârah, and Ghumârah. The Masûdûnah occupied the western and southern declivities of Mount Atlas (Deren of the Moors) from Hâhâh to Slaves' river. The Ghumârah inhabited the northern side of the same mountains from the Straits of Gibraltar to the coasts of Telesmah, (Mauritania Cæsarea of the Romans.) These two tribes lived apart from the rest, and were more settled, inhabiting towns and villages; while the other three were always encampment, and continually changing their abode. The Zeâstâh, Hawwârah, and Saohâjah, he says, were generally stationed in the country round Tâmisâh (Temesse,) and we may add throughout the whole of North Africa; for all the oases in the Desert are peopled by Berbers, as we shall hereafter see. The subdivisions of these tribes amounted, to Leo's time, to 600, and they were, like the nomade Arabs, from whom they trace their descent, continually at war with each other.

The appellation which they give themselves is Amzigh or Tamazigh, and their language they call Akwâ Amazigh, (Aquel amazigh, i. Leo, 18.) but the Arabs name them Shîlâh or Shuloh, which signifies "sharp swords," and is probably a cick-name. Mr. Jackson maintains (*Morocco*, p. 26.) that the latter belongs exclusively to the southern tribes; but he is probably mistaken in that as well as when he adds, that their language differs entirely from that of the Berbers on the northern side of Atlas. They are often called Kablâhah, Kabâyîlîs, or Jebâllîs, i. e. men who live in tribes, or on the mountains; and Tawârik, from the name of a particular tribe. Leo speaks of these as the inhabitants of Barbary and Bilâdu'l-jerîd, and he afterwards says that the Sâhrâ, or Desert, was divided into five portions, occupied by five different tribes; viz. the Zanaga (Saohâjah,) Guazigh (Wânsikah,) Terga (Tarkah,) Lemta (Lemlah,) and Berdewa (Berdewah.) Of these tribes the Saohâjah, or Zanaghahs, are doubtless that widely extended branch of the Berbers, which reaches to the banks of the Senegal, and gave its name to that river; the Lemtâh, or Lamtânâh, are frequently mentioned by Idrisî; and Tarkah is probably the singular of Tawârik, the name of a large division of this nation, now occupying the deserts and oases to the south of Fezân. 1. The Desert inhabited by the Saohâjah tribe is the tiaz of Leo, extended from the Atlantic to the salt-pits of Teghâz, and was bounded on the north by Sâs, Hâhâh, and Darâh, provinces of Morocco; on the south by Negro kingdoms of Walâtah (Eûwêlsten of Ibn Batûtah) and Tombuctû. From the springs of Aswad, i. e. the black, dreary waste, (Leo, 10.) to those of Arwâ, 150 miles from that city, there was so water for upwards of 900 miles. 2. The Wânsikah tribe to the east of the Saohâjah, reached from Teghâz to the Desert of Khîr, (Haber in our maps) so named from the excellence of its climate, (Leo, 7.)

BERBER. They had Sijlmasab and Tebelbelt on the north, and were separated by the Desert of Ghir from Guber, on the south. This was the road from Telesman to Tombuctu. 3. The next in order were the Tarkah, (or Tawarik) who were bounded on the west by the Desert of Kahr, on the east by that of Ighidi (Ikdidi?) on the north by Tuwat, Tegorarin, and Mezab, and on the south by the deserts round Audaghoist (Agades.) This region was not so parched and barren as the others; and near the place last named much excellent manna was collected. 4. The Lemtaha, or Lamtahnah, followed the Tarkahs, and stretched eastward as far as the deserts of the Berdawah (Berdon); they were to the south of Tehart, Warkalan (Gungula of Leo, and Guerguela of Marmot) and Ghadamis; and to the north of the Negro kingdom of Cana, (Ghania); as it seems too far to the west for Canem.) The Lemtahnah were sworn foes of the Warkalanis, to whose territory they laid claim; and this rendered the passage through their country from Constantine to Nigritia, peculiarly hazardous. 5. To the east of the Lemtahnah were the Berdawah, who reached Agilah eastward, Fezzan and Barkah northward, and Bornu on the south. This tribe was at war with almost all its neighbours, except the inhabitants of Ghadamis, who supplied it with the foreign goods it wanted, bringing them across the Desert, from Fezzan. The remainder of the deserts to the confines of Egypt were inhabited by the Lewtahn Berbers, and tribes of wandering Arabs.

This, like most of Leo's other statements, has been confirmed by a more intimate knowledge of the countries which he describes. Siwah, the oasis of Ammon, the most northern of "those islands in the Desert," as the Arabs call them, is still occupied by a tribe of Berbers, as Mr. Marsden inferred from the meagre specimen of their language furnished by Hornemann, (*Travels*, p. 37. 407. Langlès' French Transl.) This inference, it was observed, is confirmed by the testimony of the Arabian geographers. Santariyyah, which they describe as being inhabited by Berbers, is another name of Siwah, (Browne's *Travels in Egypt*; Rennell's *Geography of Herodotus*.) And Major Rennell's calculations led directly to that conclusion; the correctness of which is established by a passage in Makrizi, who says expressly, that "Santariyyah, a small district, containing about six hundred Berbers, is also named Siwah, and its language, called Siwariyyah, bears a strong resemblance to that of the Zenatnah," one of the principal Berber tribes. How far this widely diffused language extends towards the south, has not yet been ascertained; though it can hardly be doubted that along the western side of the Sahara, it reaches the northern banks of the Senegal, and is spoken on the confines of Bambuk and Bambara. The tribes of Berbers are, however, intermixed with some others of a different origin; for those who carried Alexander Scott across the Western Desert to the Bahr-tayyet or Lake Dhibi, (*Edinburgh Phil. Journal*, iv. 38. 325.) spoke Arabic and not, as it appears, the Shilluk or Berber language (49.); and the Tibbós, in the Eastern Sahara, to judge from the vocabulary and account given by Captain Lyon, (251. 233.) use a dialect which has no affinity with that of their northern and western neighbours. Adelung (*Mithridates*, iii. 43. 45.) has placed them among the Berber tribes, but he was misled by an

untenable conjecture of M. Langlès' (*Voy. de Hornemann*, 145.) The Akiak, Amazigh, or Berber language, has been supposed to bear some affinity to that class called, by the German writers, Semitic; but on a closer examination, it will perhaps be found to be more nearly allied in structure to those of Teutonic origin. The third person plural ends in *en* and *ent*; and *ed* is a termination used in the past tense; but in the mode of forming some of the other persons, this language approaches the Arabic and Hebrew. The plurals of nouns appear to be very irregular, but are in reality almost invariably formed by adding *en*, *in*, or *uen*, and changing the initial vowel into *i*. Thus *asad* finger, makes *sladen* fingers; *thilt*, an eye, *thiltuen*, eyes: these certainly resemble the old Teutonic plurals, of which we have some remains in our own language: e. g. *brother*, pl. *brethren*; *child*, *children*. Another peculiarity deserves to be noticed; the feminines and derivatives from other languages, are formed by prefixing *t* or *th*, and adding *t* or *ut* at the end of the word: thus *akshun* signifies a dog, *takshunt* a bitch; *elghum* a male, and *teighunt* a female camel. This remarkable inflexion is very conspicuous in the names of places throughout North Africa, as Tebelbelt, Tafilalt, Târadant, &c. may not Thabalati, Tamascalint, Tabalati, Telepte, Tadutit, Tirmadi, Teoloeida, Thamusida, and many similar names of towns taken at random from the ancient map of that country, be considered as indicating the long continued prevalence of this idiom? It should be observed, that the Berberah, natives of Berber, on the Nile just above Sennâr, bear no relation, except in name, to the tribes here described. The language used by these Eastern Berbers is that of the Nubians, and does not appear to have any affinity with the dialects of their namesakes in the west.

Leo's account of their manners and customs, evidently the result of his own observations, exactly corresponds with that of Idrisi, three centuries before, and is corroborated by Hornemann and Captain Lynn, who have seen them in our own days. "These five nations, (or tribes)," says Leo, speaking of the inhabitants of the Sahara, "all live in the same manner, without any written laws or regular form of government. Their clothing consists of a coarse woollen cloth, which covers only a very small part of their body. Sometimes they twist a piece of black linen round their head in the fashion of a turban. A large cloak of blue and white striped woollen cloth, imported from Nigritia, is the distinguishing dress of the great. Camels are the only beasts which they use for riding; and their saddle is placed between the neck and the hump. A leathern thong passes through a hole bored in the animal's nose, and serves both for bit and bridle. Mats made of thin rushes form their beds, and their tents are manufactured of camel's hair, or the coarse wool gathered from the sheaths containing the clusters of dates. Their abstinence is almost incredible; bread is a luxury they never enjoy: a draught of camel's milk in the morning, and some dried meat soaked in it at night, with a cup of milk at the close of the meal, is a whole day's allowance. They never look for water as long as they can get milk, and washing is a luxury about which they seldom trouble themselves. They rarely remain more than two or three days in the same place, changing their quarters as soon as the pasture fails. Each tribe has

BERBER.

its Sheikh or patriarch, just as among the wandering Arabs; and here and there a scholar is found who knows enough of the law to determine the cases that arise: these lawyers are usually strangers, for the Berbers of the Desert are the most ignorant of men, being unacquainted not only with every thing like science, but even with the commonest arts of life. Their nudes have the singular custom of veiling their whole face with part of the black cloth which is twisted round their head; and they carefully cover up their mouths after eating, for a most fantastic reason. Their women are fat, thick-set, and distinguished, according to Leo, by those protuberant charms supposed to be peculiar to Hottentot beauties. They receive men with more freedom, and allow more liberties than the Arab women, but are more chaste; which is ascribed by Leo more to the summary justice exercised by their husbands, than to any superiority of virtue in themselves. Of the hospitality of these inhabitants of the waste, he records a remarkable instance, in the treatment of the caravan with which he returned from Nigritia. They were feasted by a Sheikh of the Sanahjaks, in the plains of Arawán, for three days; and the account of it is highly characteristic and amusing, but too long for insertion here. (See African. p. 47; Lersbach's *Juhana*. Leo's *Africa*, 33.)

The Tawárik form a very large portion of this nation, and comprehend almost all the tribes on the confines of Nigritia. They are established at Sokhara, and come in large caravans to Fezzán; Captain Lyon, therefore, had frequent opportunities of observing their habits and character, and his description shews how little they have changed since the time of Leo. "They are," he says, "the finest race of men I ever saw, tall, straight, and handsome, with a certain air of independence and pride, which is very imposing. They are comparatively white, bronzed only by the excessive heat of the climate, and having arms and bodies as fair as those of many Europeans. They cover their faces, as high as the eyes, in the manner of the women on the sea coast. This cloth, which hangs down from the middle of the nose to the breast, is generally of blue glazed cotton, but occasionally of other colours. High red caps are their usual head-dress; but they often let their hair grow, and plait it in long tresses. All wear turbans; most commonly blue ones, as that is the cheapest colour. Blue and white cottons manufactured by themselves or imported from the Súdán, made into wide-sleeved shirts, called *tób*, are their usual dress; but a leather *kafán*, or pelisse, and leather shirts are also much worn. They manufacture these from the skins of antelopes very neatly. Dark blue cotton trousers, like those of the *Cossacks*, and black leather sandals, braced with scarlet thongs, complete their attire. The ornamental needle-work on the inside of the sole is really admirable. They all wear a whip, hanging from a belt, passed over the left shoulder by the right side. Their swords are straight and of great length, and they wield them with much ease and dexterity. From the left wrist is suspended a dagger, with the hilt towards the hand; it has a broad leather ring attached to the scabbard, and through this the hand is passed. No Tawárik is ever seen without this appendage, and a light elegant spear, sometimes entirely of iron, inlaid with brass, others are of wood, but are also highly

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ornamented. These weapons are about six feet in length, and are thrown to a great distance. Longer spears, and a strong lance, are used in time of war. A long gun is also generally carried, and they are considered as sure marksmen. They are excessively superstitious, and literally covered with amulets. Their spears and guns have also their due allowance, and a number are always hidden in the folds of the turban. Some wear large silver cases tied round the head, containing charms against the Devil. Their language is the Berber, or original African tongue, still spoken in the mountains behind Tunis, in some parts of Morocco, and at Sockna, where it is called Ertána. Some of them say it was spoken by Noah, in preference to any other. They never kiss the hand, as other Mohammedans do, not even that of the Sultan himself; but advance, and taking the hand, shake it, and then retire, standing erect, and looking full in the face. No people have more aversion to washing. Even in performing their necessary purifications they avoid water, and make use of sand." (See Alexander's Scott's account, *Edinb. Phil. Journ.* iv. 56.) "Water," they say, "was given to man to drink and cook with, and it does not agree with the skin of a Tawárik who always falls sick after much washing." A few however are above these prejudices, and not so dirty. They are not rigid Moslems, and few know Arabic enough to understand their prayers. Their government is a sort of oligarchy, for the Sultan or Sheikh can do nothing without having consulted the elders of the people. They allow strangers to sit and converse with their wives and daughters, who are seldom known to abuse the liberty allowed to them. They are said to be fine looking women, and inclined to corpulency. Their manner of riding is very singular. They have swift, tall camels, called *mahárl*, with which they perform extraordinary journeys. The saddle is placed on the withers, and confined by a band under the belly. It is very small and difficult to sit, which is done by balancing the feet against the neck of the animal, and bulding a tight rein to steady the head. They manage these creatures with great dexterity, fighting when mounted on them, and firing at marks while at full speed, which is a lung trot, in which the *mahárl* can continue at about nine miles an hour, for many hours together. (Lyon's *Travels in Northern Africa*, 109—116.) Their costume and singular mode of riding are well represented in Captain Lyon's plates, (110. 113. 293.) It appears from their language, that the first inhabitants of the Canary Islands were of the Berber race. (See Jézzeel Jones, de *Lingua Shilbensi* in Chamberlayne's *Oratio Dominice*, Amsterdam, 1715; Shaw's *Travels*, p. 52; Langlès' *Transl. of Herbelot*, 430; Hat's *Marócos*, p. 136; Lyon's *Travels*, 314; Chenier, *Recherches sur les Arabes*; Jackson's *Account of Morocco*, &c.)

BERBERIS, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Hexandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: calyx of six leaves; petals six, having each two glands at the claw; style none; berry two-seeded.

The best known species of this genus, is the *B. vulgaris*, or common Barberr, a native of Britain, as well as of the continent of Europe, part of Asia, and North America. It is a shrub with upright twiggy stems, flowers yellow. The stamina are curious in their formation, and for their elastic property when touched. The berries are oblong, a little curved, red,

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and tipped with the black stigma: they have a pleasant acid taste, containing principally the malic acid, mixed with a considerable proportion of the citric, which can be crystallized from the juice. The juice of these berries may be employed in medicine for the same purposes as that of the lemon. They make an agreeable preserve. The best manner of preserving the juice is to clarify it, and afterwards to put it into bottles, covering the surface with a layer of oil, taking care that the bottles are well corked and kept in a cool situation. *Anacardos Berberis, haccarumque ejus uss. Analecta transalpina*, tom. ii. p. 204—207.

Four other species of this genus are described, they inhabit different parts of the world, but demand no particular notice.

BERBICE, a river of Surinam, in South America, which rises in the mountains, about 100 miles from the coast, and flows into the Atlantic, in the 17th degree of north latitude, and the 58th of west longitude. It is a broad, shallow, and winding stream, with a bar in the sea, five miles from its mouth. It is, however, capable of admitting vessels which draw fifteen or sixteen feet of water to Fort Nassau, about fifty miles above its mouth. The territory along its banks is a low flat district, but is covered with plantations which yield sugar, cotton, coffee, cocoa, and tobacco.

Coloniza-
tion and
Progress.

Beanaica, a district and colony in Guiana, washed by the preceding river, and now in the possession of the British, though formerly belonging to the Dutch, by whom it was first colonised in 1636. In 1678, it was granted as a perpetual fief to the family of Van Piere; but was captured by the French Stollin, in 1719, and a contribution of 300,000 florins levied on the inhabitants. This was ultimately paid by Van Hoorn and Company, and the colony was ceded to them in consequence. While in their possession, its cultivation was greatly extended; but it surrendered to Britain in 1796, and was restored by the peace of 1802. It was afterwards re-conquered, and the possession of it confirmed by an act of Congress, signed the 31st of May, 1815, with the right of trade between the colony and the Netherlands, to be carried on in Dutch vessels.

When Berbice was in the possession of the Dutch, it stretched only along the coast from Abarry Creek on the west, to Devil's Creek on the east; the former of which separated it from Demerara, and the latter from Surinam, a breadth of little more than thirty miles. But when this last colony surrendered to the English in 1799, the territories of Berbice were extended eastward, to the Courantien river; which makes its breadth along the shore nearly fifty miles. Though this additional district seemed to be common to both sea and land, being covered with timber and under-wood, and overflowed by every rising tide, it was soon brought into cultivation by the application of British industry and capital. The woods were cleared, and carriage roads were made, which connected the rivers Berbice and Courantien. The marshes were drained, and cultivation spread not only along the coast, but up the west bank of the stream that formed the eastern boundary of the colony. Before these improvements took place, that part of the country resembled the rest of Guiana. Behind the border of land overflowed by the tide, and covered by mangroves, the country was composed of low, level, swampy savannahs, which extended for a

greater or less breadth, according to the distance of the mountains. This part, though so greatly resembling their native soil, was wholly neglected by the Dutch, who fixed their plantations in the more distant and elevated parts of the colony, particularly on the bank of the rivers Berbice and Canje. This latter river falls into the former about a mile from the sea, and is navigable for colonial schooners for about thirty miles from this point. Some of the states in the upper part of the country extend nearly 300 miles from the mouth of the Berbice. But when the colony came into possession of the English, the part along the coast was regularly surveyed, and laid out into two parallel lines of estates, with a navigable canal between them, for the convenience of conveying their produce to the places whence it could be exported. The river Canje flows behind the second river, both banks of which are cultivated to a considerable height up the river. The line of estates facing the sea are called the coast estates, the second line consists of the canal estates, and those behind are denominated the Canje estates.

In such a latitude, and under such a state of country, the climate is naturally hot and humid. The year is well, and divided into two dry and two wet seasons. The rain begins to fall in light showers about the beginning of April, and continues till the middle of June, when it descends in torrents. In the early part of July these heavy rains begin to decrease, and the long dry season commences in August, and continues till about the end of November. December and January constitute the short rainy season; and February and March the short dry period. The land winds prevail during the rainy seasons, and render them unhealthy. In the dry seasons, the air is refreshed by regular diurnal sea breezes. The insalubrity of the climate, however, consists rather in the excess of moisture than of temperature; for the heat is not usually so great as the latitude alone would indicate. Fahrenheit's thermometer seldom rises above 90°, and in general during May, June, and July, it is a little above 80°. The lowest point to which it descends at any season is 75°. The changes of the weather frequently take place very suddenly. Agriculture, and almost all other kinds of labour in Berbice, are performed by slaves. On an estate which produces an annual average of 140,000 cwt. of coffee, and 10,000 cwt. of coconuts, about 200 slaves are usually employed. The most general and valuable produce is sugar, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, cotton, and arnotia. For a considerable period after the foundation of the colony, this last was exclusively cultivated by the native Indians, who unlearned the seed in juice of lemons, in which the gum of the manna tree had been dissolved, and thus produced the celebrated pigment, or crimson paint, with which the Indians adorn their bodies. The arnotia is now cultivated by the Dutch and English settlers as a dye-stuff. Cotton is the chief product of the coast estates, where it thrives best; but those which are adapted to the growth of sugar are the most valuable. The capital of this colony is New Amsterdam, which we have already described in its proper place.

Mr. Hollingbroke states the population of this colony, Population in 1805, at 2500 whites, 1000 free people of colour, and 40,000 slaves; making a total of 43,500 individuals. If this statement be correct, the number of inhabitants must have experienced a considerable

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BERBICE decrease between that time and the autumn of 1811, for according to the enumeration then made, and contained in the papers printed by order of the House of Commons, in 1815, the population was only,

Whites..... 550
Coloured..... 240
Blacks..... 25,169

Total 25,959

Exports and Imports. The value of the exports and imports of the colony, a few years ago was as follows: viz.

	Exports.	Imports.
In 1809.....	£49,663	£193,663
1810.....	61,785	191,566

From the colony there were also sent the following quantities of produce: viz.

In 1809 {	17,655 cwt. of cocoa.
	1,574,196 lbs. of cotton.
1810 {	39,589 cwt. of cocoa.
	1,656,075 lbs. of cotton.
1813 {	9,084 cwt. of sugar.
	23,039 gallons of rum.

The quantities stated for the last of these periods were those sent to Great Britain alone. Since that time the principal trade has been with the Netherlands; and we are not acquainted with any official documents relative to the precise amount or value of its imports or exports. More particular information may be obtained respecting this colony, by consulting Bancroft's *Essay on the Natural History of Guiana*; Bellingbrooke's *Voyage to Demerara*; Baron Stock's *Account of Surinam*; and Dr. Pinckard's *Notes on the West Indies*.

BERCKHEYA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Syngeneses*, order *Polygamin Frustranea*. Generic character: receptacle favose; seeds villous; pappus paleaceous; calyx of one leaf, covered with imbricated scales.

A genus allied to the Thistle tribe. Twenty-two species are described by Willdenow, all natives of South Africa.

BERCHTOLSGADEN, or **BERCHTOLSGADEN**, a principality and town of the Austrian Empire, encompassed by the archbishopric of Salzburg, but not subject to that see. It is wholly a mountainous region, and contains five or six towns, and more than twenty villages. The chief product is fossil salt, which is generally obtained by digging large cavities, and filling them with water, which when saturated is drawn off, and evaporated. The quantity annually produced at Berchtholsgaden alone amounts to 87,000 quintals. The chief town is of the same name as the province, and contains about 3000 inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in the trade in salt, and the manufacture of ivory, bone, and wooden toys, with which they supply the merchants of Noremberg.

BERE ALSTON, a small hamlet in Devonshire, which sends two members to Parliament. The name is corrupted from *Bere Alston*, William the Conqueror having bestowed it on a branch of that house. Here are lead mines, now of inconsiderable value; but in the reign of Edward I. 1600 weight of silver is said to have been obtained from them in the course of three years.

BERX ROOS, an ancient market town in Dorsetshire, supposed by Stukely to have been the *Ibernum* of the

Romans. On a height about half a mile north-east of the town called Woodbury Hill, is so area of ten acres enclosed by a triple agger and fossa. On this spot so annual fair is held, which need to be one of the greatest in the West of England. Queen Elfrida retired to a seat in this parish after the murder of her son-in-law, Edward the Martyr. King John also appears to have made it his residence. The church is a vicarage, in the patronage of Bachel College, Oxford. Population in 1821, 953. Poor's rates in 1803, £751. 14s. 6d.

BEREAVE, } Be and reave. A. S. *beræfan*, berea-
Heave. } *fan*; Dutch, *roeten*, *roeten*; Ger.
reffen, *raben*, *berauben*; Sw. *refwa*, *berofwa*. To take away.

To take away, to deprive of, to plunder, to despoil, to rob.

& secoure þu þat art gyt in Gæneny leff.

Ne late þu m not midde, ne þer power be ref.

R. Brune, p. 289.

Now whether have I a silver hand or mee?

Quod he, is all my might and minde ago!

Hath iwe bereved me mine eyen sight?

Chaucer. *The Sompsones Tale*, v. 7661.

But age, alas! that all wol envielesse,

Hath me bereft my bewaite and my yith.

Id. *The Wife of Bath's Prologue*, v. 6036.

The patrimoine, and the richesse,

Whiche to Nisester in pure silence,

The first Constantine left,

Pro louti churchie thei bereft.

Geoff. Conf. Am. Fro.

The duke beyage thereof advertised sent word to the French king, decharge to him that in the time of truce (in which, he as his ally and vassal was apprehended) he was spoiled and bereaved of his town of Yongers; beseeching the French king, in that case to see a recompense and amends done.

Id. *King Henry VI* fol. 152.

Pleasure is felt, opinion but conceiv'd,

Honour, a thing without us, not our own;

Whereof we see how many are bereav'd;

Which should have reap'd the glory they had sown;

And many have it, yet unworthy known.

Daniel. *The Complaint of Rosamond*.

Thou trait'rous bed, when first thou didst receive me,

Not single to thy rest I then succeeded:

Double I came, why should I single leave thee?

Why of my better part dost thou bereave me?

F. Fletcher. *Edna*. An *Eclog*.

Still one was left, in whom was all my hope,

My age's comfort, and his country's prop;

Hector, my darling, and my last defence,

Whose life alone their deaths could recompense;

And, to complete my store of countess woe,

Him you have slain—of him bereave me too.

Geoffrey. *Id.* book xxi.

His hair grew stiff with dust and mingled gore,

While streams of sweat distill from every pore;

His eyes, bereft of wonted sleep, display

A sanguine hue, and sicken at the day.

Levins. *The Tiberiad of Statius*, book iii.

Let us here leave him to the conviction he will one day find,—that there is no end to his labour,—that his eyes will never be satisfied with riches, or will say,—For whom do I labour and bereave myself of rest!

Steele. *Sermon* i.

BEREGH, a county on the north side of the Theiss, in Hungary. This district is separated from Galicia by the Carpathian mountains. The population, which includes about 46,000 individuals, consists of Hungarians, Russians, a few Germans, and about 800 Jews. Bazon is also the name of the chief town, which, as well as the county, derived its name from the adjoining castle now in ruins.

BERE-
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BERENICE'S HAIR, *Coma Berenice*, a constellation of the northern hemisphere, containing, in the Berlin catalogue, forty-eight stars; the ancient astronomers only allowed it seven, in a triangular form, near the tail of *Leo*. Berenice was the daughter of Ptolemy Philadelphus and Arsinoë. She was married to her brother Ptolemy Evergetes. When the King was called from home, a few days after his nuptials, by the Asiatic war, Berenice vowed she would cut off her hair, for the beauty of which she was distinguished, if he returned in safety. The vow becoming due, she deposited her hair in the temple of the Zephyrian Venus, which had been built on the promontory of Zephyrium in Cyprus, in honour of Arsinoë. On the following morning the precious offering was missing. To soothe the indignation of the angry monarch, Conon, a Samian mathematician, affirmed, with adroit flattery, that the gods had translated the locks to heaven, and to confirmation he pointed to the cluster of stars which, before unnamed, has since borne the name of Berenice. Hyginus, *Poet. Ast. xxiiv.*; Eratosth. *xii.*; Catullus, *Hymn. ex Collimacho*.

BEREZINA, a river of Russian Lithuania. It rises in White Russia, near Polozk, traverses the government of Minsk, in which it gives its name to a small town upon its banks (forty-four miles north-east from Minsk) and falls into the Dnieper near the town of Straszno. During their retreat from Moscow in the year 1812, the French were defeated with great loss, on the banks of this river.

BEREZOV, a considerable town of Siberia, situated on the river Sosva, a few miles above its confluence with the Ob, and near the Voglika. It is the most northern place in Siberia in which the horse can exist in health and vigour. Here are three stone churches within the town, and a chapel at a short distance from it, to which several miraculous effects are ascribed by the superstition of the inhabitants. Though at a distance of nearly 600 miles north-north-west of Tobolsk, Beretov supplies that capital, as well as many other places, with dried fish in summer, and frozen fish in winter. Most of the inhabitants subsist by hunting, fishing, and their rein-deer. They have also some commerce, chiefly in furs, with the Russian merchants, as well as the surrounding tribes. The majority of them are Cossacks.

BERG, a duchy of Germany, in the circle of Westphalia, and now included in the dominions of Prussia. It is bounded on the north by the duchy of Cleves, on the east by the county of Mark and the duchy of Westphalia, on the south by Westerdal, and on the west by the Rhine. It formerly belonged to Bavaria, but it was assigned to Prussia by the Congress, in 1815; and contains an area of nearly 1800 square miles, with a population of 295,000 individuals. The western part of this duchy is a level and fertile country; but the eastern regions are more mountainous, and covered with wood. They also contain several valuable mineral products, which employ a great number of inhabitants in extracting them, and either converting them into articles for domestic consumption, or preparing them for exportation. The metals are principally iron, copper, lead, and quicksilver; but the great objects of attention are its manufactures, which render it one of the most populous and flourishing districts of Germany. These include iron, steel, linen, woollen, cotton, and silk. This duchy was

possessed by the Electors of Bavaria till 1816, but when the French influence extended over Germany in that year, this part was ceded to the conquerors, and bestowed by Buonaparte upon Murat. When that General was afterwards created King of Naples, the eldest son of Louis Buonaparte was appointed hereditary Grand Duke of Berg, on condition that these dominions should remain under the immediate management of the French government till he came of age to assume the reins of government himself. It was also enlarged by the Prussian part of Munster, the county of Mark, and other districts. It was then divided into the departments of the Rhine and the Roer, the Enns and the Siege; the whole being estimated at 6908 square miles, with 878,000 inhabitants. By the Congress of Vienna this recently created territory was transferred to Prussia, to whom it now belongs.

BERGAMASCO, a district in Upper Italy, which takes its name from the city of Bergamo, and joins the Valtellina on the north, and the Milanese territory on the west. It formerly belonged to the Venetians, but now forms a part of the Austrian Empire. The northern part is mountainous and uncultivated; but the southern region, particularly in the vicinity of the capital, is more level and fertile. Some of the vallies produce good wine; the mountains supply iron, marble, and stone. The population is about 360,000, many of whom are subject to the *goutte*. They manufacture iron, woollen cloth, and tapestry; and besides these, they trade in cattle, marble, and millstones. Bergamasco was conquered with the rest of Lombardy, by the French, in 1796; and for some years constituted an integral part of the Italian republic. It was afterwards included in the kingdom of Italy, and formed portions of the departments of the Serio, and the Adda, and Oglio. The Congress of Vienna assigned it to its present possessors.

BERGAMO, the capital of the preceding district, is situated between the rivers Brembo and Serio, and rises like an amphitheatre on the acclivity of a rocky hill, overlooking the plain below. It is defended by walls, bastions, and ditches, and protected by a castle upon an adjoining eminence, to which there is a covered passage from the city. These defensive works are the more worthy of attention, as they were constructed by some of the most celebrated engineers of the sixteenth century. Bergamo contains thirteen parish churches, and more than twenty convents. The cathedral is a venerable pile, with several good paintings; but the most remarkable edifice is that in which the great annual fair is held, which commences on St. Bartholomew's day, and lasts a fortnight. It is a large stone building, containing more than 6000 booths; and is frequented by a vast concourse of merchants, principally from Italy, Germany, and Switzerland. The chief trade of the city is silk, more than 1300 bales of which, were annually exported to England, Germany, and France, and produced an average value of £150,000. These merchants also import fine cloths from England, France, and Holland; camlets from the Netherlands; and coarse cloths, spices, and drugs, from Germany. The town is partially supplied with grain from the Milanese dominions and other parts of Lombardy. The population of Berguian includes between 25,000 and 30,000 individuals, with whom charity seems to be a prominent feature, as there

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are no fewer than seven hospitals supported in the city. The date of the foundation of this city is lost in the obscurity of remote ages; but it existed under the Romans, and was successively taken by Attila, the Lombards, and Charlemagne. In the twelfth century it suffered greatly from the contentions between the Guelphs and the Gibellines, but was afterwards governed by its own Princes. In 1509 Louis XII. of France seized upon Bergamo, after the defeat of the Viscontis at Agnello, but it was restored about seven years afterwards. Buonaparte took it in 1796, and it was subsequently made the capital of the department of Serio, in the kingdom of Italy. Bergamo is nearly thirty miles north-east of Milan, and in north latitude $45^{\circ}42'$ and east longitude $9^{\circ}38'$.

BERGAMOT, a coarse cloth of wool, cotton, hemp, or hair, first made at Bergamo.

BERGAMOTE, a variety of the *Citrus Medica*, or Lemon, from which is procured the well known perfume termed *Essence of Bergamote*.

BERGANDEI, in Zoology, a name of the *Asas Tudora*, or Shieldrake. See *Asas*.

BERGEN, one of the largest and best built towns in Norway, and the capital of the bishopric and government of Bergenhus. It is situated at the bottom of a deep bay, surrounded with rugged and barren rocks. It stands on an acclivity nearly encompassed by mountains. It is nearly to the same parallel of latitude with St. Petersburg, Stockholm, and Christiania. Most of the houses are composed of wood, which has caused the town to experience frequent ravages by fire. Situation and other local circumstances preclude Bergen from participating in the labours of agriculture, and have caused its inhabitants to turn their attention to commerce and the fisheries. The population is about 15,000, a considerable proportion of whom are employed in this latter branch of industry, particularly in taking and curing cod and herrings, which form one of its principal exports. The quantity of herrings exported at late years has been about 12,000 barrels. Besides fish, iron, copper, pitch, tar, and hides are the chief articles with which ships are freighted at Bergen. The imports are principally grain, wine, salt, hardware, sugar, coffee, and other colonial produce. The rise of commerce in this place may be dated in 1445, when the merchants of the Hanse towns established a factory and warehouses there. The latitude of Bergen is about $60^{\circ}10'N$. and its longitude $7^{\circ}14'E$.

BERGEN is a town in the kingdom of the Netherlands, in North Holland. In the campaign of 1799, this town became a post of some importance, and was strongly contested by the hostile armies. It was taken on the 19th of September by the Russians; but surrendered the following day to the French, by whom the Russian General, Herman, and his men were all made prisoners.

BERGEN, a town in the electorate of Hesse, where a bloody battle was fought on the 13th of April 1759, between the French and allies, in which the former were victorious. It is about three miles north-east of Frankfurt on the Main.

BERGEN, a small town, the capital of the island of Bergen, in the Baltic, now subject to the government of Prussia. It is the residence of the Governor, who is always a native of the island. It is protected by

a castle, and has a convent of noble nuns, with a population of about 1600 individuals, and is about twelve or fourteen miles north-east of Stralsund.

BERGENS, the most western province of Norway, frequently called the bishopric of Bergen. It has the province of Drontheim on the north, Agderhus on the east, Christiansand on the south, and the North Sea on the west. The length is about 180 miles, and breadth eighty. It is divided in fifty-four parishes, but contains few towns besides the capital, above described.

BERGEN-OR-ZOOM, or BAAR-AR-ZOOM, a strong fortress and town in Dutch Brabant, near the Scheldt, with which it has a communication by means of a canal. A garrison was always maintained here by the Dutch government, by whom it was considered as one of their most important bulwarks. It has, therefore, frequently been a point of contest, whenever the Netherlands became the theatre of hostile operations. The Spaniards besieged it in 1596 and 1622 without success; but it was taken by stratagem, in 1747, by the French. It was restored to the Dutch, in a ruinous state, at the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, and its fortifications were afterwards repaired. At the end of January 1795, this and some other Dutch fortresses were given up to the French, by whom it was garrisoned during the remainder of the war. Sir Thomas Graham (the present Lord Lynedoch), at the head of a division of the British army, made an unsuccessful attack upon it on the 8th of March 1814, which was attended with considerable loss. The whole population of the town is nearly 5000, and its distance from Antwerp eighteen miles. Lat. $51^{\circ}32'N$. long. $4^{\circ}8'E$.

BERGERA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Decandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: calyx five-partite; corolla of five petals; stigma turbinate; berry two-seeded.

The only species of this genus is the *B. Koenigii*, a tree found in the East Indies: it is the *Papaya sylvestris* of Rumphius. *Herbarium Amboinense*, tab. 53. fig. 1.

BERGERAC, a town of France, in the department of Dordogne, situated on a beautiful plain, and divided into two parts by that river. The situation of Bergerac, on the principal road from Auvergne and Limousin to Bourdeaux, besides being one of the most convenient passages of the Dordogne, rendered it formerly a place of considerable importance. Its population and prosperity at that time were also much greater than at present. In 1314, the French, under the command of Count de Lillo, were defeated near this place by the English, under the Earl of Derby. The former, however, gained possession of the place in 1371. It was then strongly fortified, and afterwards proved one of the strongholds of the Huguenots. It was therefore exposed to many disasters during what are usually denominated the wars of religion in that country. Louis XIII. reduced it in 1621, and soon afterwards demolished the fortifications. It still continued to be the resort of Protestants; and when the Edict of Nantes was revoked, there were not less than 40,000 Calvinists in Bergerac and its vicinity. This impolitic measure was the death-warrant of its prosperity; and the whole of its inhabitants, at a late enumeration, were 9665. It is still defended by a good castle, and carries on some trade in wine, brandy, corn, chest-

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outs and other products of the surrounding country. Its chief manufactures are a little earthenware, paper, and woollen stuffs. It is forty-eight miles east of Bourdeaux, in latitude $44^{\circ} 51' N.$, and longitude $0^{\circ} 34' E.$ BERGHMOTTE, Saxon *berg* mountain or mine, and *motte*, an assembly. A court held in the English mining counties, to determine controversial matters connected with mining.

BERGIA, *io Balaus*, a genus of plants, class *Decandria*, order *Pentagynia*. Generic character: calyx five-partite; petals five; capsule one, glabrous, five-locular, five-valved; valves petaloid; seeds many.

This genus contains two species, but little known; one a native of the East Indies, the other of the Cape of Good Hope.

BERGMANITE, a fibrous mineral which has lately been considered as a variety of *Scapolite*.

BERGII, a considerable Negro state known by that name in Dár Fúr, but called Mobba by the natives themselves, and Dár Seleh by the eastern, and Wádal by the western Arabs. It lies to the north-west of Dár Fúr, the east of Bagirmah and Metkó n Madagó, and the north of Dár Kullah, Donga, &c. It is one of the tributary states dependent on Borou; and its Sultan, about twenty years ago, made the conquest of Bagirmah, by order of his large-lord the sovereign of that state. The natives are Negroes, and for the most part Mussulmans, living in circular huts made of reeds, with conical roofs, except the king and merchants from Dár Fúr, whose habitations are more solid and have mud walls. Civilisation, as in most parts of Africa, is little advanced. This country is watered by the Mis-selá, a large river which falls into the lake Fitri, in Bagirmah. It is hilly, but has few permanent rivers. The soil is not so fertile as that of Bornó, and nátrón seems to be its principal export; rock-salt, chalk and iron-ore are mentioned among its minerals. Wárah, the capital, is a walled town, three times as large as Bulák, the suburb of Cairo. It is sixty days distant from Birni, the capital of Bahrá, or sixteen according to another and more probable account. The streams of this country were represented to Seetzen as all running westwards, which agrees with the accounts given to Browne in Dár Fúr, and seems to indicate a great elevatio or ridge to the south and west of Dár Fúr, forming a line of separation between the eastern and western waters of Africa. Like all Mohammedan powers in that part of the globe, the inhabitants of Bergu make continual incursions on their Pagan neighbours; but they are said to prefer employing their captives at home, to selling them abroad. A vocabulary of their language, collected by Seetzen, from natives whom he met in Egypt, is to be found in *Fater Proben von Volks Mundarten*, &c. Leipzig, 1816.

(See Von Zach's *Monatliche Correspondenz*, vol. xxi. p. 137. 151; Lyon's *Travels*, 230. 267; Browne's *Travels*; Adelung's *Mithridates*, iii. 234.)

BERGUES ST. WINOE, sometimes written Bazo St. Vinox, a town of France, formerly belonging to French Flanders, now included in the department of the north, between Duokirk and Mont-Cassel, and watered by the river Colme. In 1768, a communication between this place and the sea was opened by a canal navigation, which rendered its maritime commerce considerable, particularly in corn, butter, cheese, and thread. As much of the surrounding country consists of fertile pastures, the former of these articles are

supplied in abundance. This place was the last that held out for the Dutch, in the war of the sixteenth century. It was blockaded and captured by the Prince of Parma in 1585; and taken by the French in 1658, to whom it was confirmed by the peace of the Pyrenees. This town appears to have derived its name from St. Vimx, who built a monastery very near its site in the eighth century, and it now contains a population of about 5000 individuals. It is only five miles south-east of Duokirk, north latitude $50^{\circ} 55'$, and east longitude $2^{\circ} 46'$.

BERIHYME, *he and rhyme*. A. S. *riman*, *ge-riman*; Ger. *rimen*, *numerare*. *Rhym*, *numerus*, *metrum*, *similes habens exitus*. *Omnino*, adds Wachter, *a numero syllabarum*.

To *berhyme*, is to write *rhimes* about, to praise, to flatter in rhyme or song.

Ros. I was woken of the mind dunes out of the wonder, before you came: for look! here what I found on a palm tree; I was never so rind since Pythagoras time.

Shakespeare. *As you Like it*, fol. 196.

I sought no homage from the race that write;

I kept, like Asian monarchs, from their sight.

Poems I heeded, none *berhym'd* so long.

No more than thou, great George! a birthday song.

Pope. *Præface to Satires*.

BERIBERI, a name given to a disease not unfrequent in some parts of the East Indies. The term is derived from an eastern word signifying "sheep," because those who are attacked with the disease, lift up their legs in a manner similar to that of the sheep in walking. The symptoms, as described by authors, are very similar to those which occur in lumbago, sciatica and other rheumatic pains. The disease is supposed to arise from exposure to vicissitudes of temperature, and is most frequent during the rainy season.

The treatment consists of exercise, stimulant baths, and embrocations, sudorific drioka, &c. The authors who have particularly treated of this disease are the following: Tulpius, *Observationes Medicæ*, 1 vol. in 12mo. ed. quarta Amstelodami, 1651, 1652, 1672 et Lugd. Batav. 1739, vide cap. 5. lib. 4; Bontius, *De Medicina Indorum*, 1 vol. in 4to. Lugd. Batav. 1745; *De Paralysia quadam specie quoniam Indigenæ Beriberi vocant*, cap. i. p. 309; Macenry (Ange.) *Observations sur le Beriberi Sitchénique*, 8vo. Paris 1811.

BERKELEY, a small market town in Gloucestershire, about a mile east from the Severn. A religious house existed here in Edward the Confessor's time. The church is a vicarage in the patronage of the Earls of Berkeley. Population, in 1801, 715. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 4s. 2d. 3d. Berkeley Castle, the ancient baronial residence of the family of that name, was founded 8000 after the Conquest. Within its walls Edward II. was murdered cruelly in September 1327. The perpetrators were Sir John Maltravers and Sir Thomas Gournay, with the privy of the Queen and her paramour Mortimer. The barbarous act is thus described by Walsingham, *Ipso prostrato, et sub otio ponderoso detento ne surgeret, dum tortores imponent cornu in ano suo (quod dictu verendum est) et per foramen inanimenter egissent veru in eicera sua*. *Illus*, 127. Thomas le Mire, his privy councillor, who wrote his life, says it was done *non ferro plumbarii intentu ignito*, 603. "His erie," says Holinshed, in a passage of which Gray has made fine use in his *Bard*, "did move many within the castle and town of Bercklel to compassion,

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plainly hearing him utter a wailing noise, as the tormentors were about to murder him, so that dyvers being awakened thereby, (as they themselves confessed,) prayed heartily to God to receive his soul, when they understood by his cry what the matter ment." A dungeon is still shewn, in which the horrible deed is said to have been perpetrated. Berkeley is the birth-place of Dr. Jenner, the discoverer of Vaccination.

BERKSHIRE, one of the inland counties in the southern part of England, encompassed by Surrey, Hampshire, Wiltshire, Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire; the first three limit its southern borders, and the others its northern confines. It stretches from south-east to north-west, and just touches Middlesex in the former, and Gloucestershire in the latter quarter. Its shape is very irregular, particularly on the northern side, which is bounded by the windings of the Thames. Its greatest length from east to west, or from Windsor to Hungerford, is about forty-two miles; but from Sunning hill, near the southern borders of Windsor Forest, to Buscot, near the confines of Gloucestershire, the length exceeds fifty miles. Its extreme breadth, from the vicinity of Oxford to the edge of Hampshire, south of Newbury, is more than twenty-eight miles. A projecting part of Oxfordshire, however, incroaches upon the northern borders so much, that from the Thames at Reading to the nearest part of Hampshire, is not more than seven miles. The whole circuit of this county is estimated at 208 miles, and its superficial area has been differently stated.

Acres.

In the Agricultural Report, at 438,977

In the Returns respecting the Poor's

rates, at 476,170

By Dr. Becke, it is made 469,500

This area, however, is not contained precisely within the limits above specified; for a part of Wiltshire is situated near Reading, and wholly surrounded by Berkshire, while two parishes of Berkshire are situated on the north side of the Thames, and surrounded by Oxfordshire. According to Dr. Becke's estimate, the surface of this country is occupied in the following proportions; viz.

Acres.

Arable land, about 256,000

Meadows and dairy land 72,000

Sheep-walks 35,000

Other dry pastures, parks, &c. 30,000

Wastes, chiefly barren heaths 30,000

Woods, copses, &c. 30,000

Space occupied by buildings, fences,

wood, rivers, &c. 27,500

Total 469,500

Much of the boundaries of Berkshire are highly picturesque. The Thames winds in a varied line along its northern, and a great part of its eastern margin, and is often bordered by hills and woods. On the south the hills of Surrey and Hampshire afford great variety of landscape; and from the eminences near its western extremity, the eye is gratified with many beautiful scenes in the adjacent counties of Wilts, Gloucester, and Oxford. The surface of this county consists of four distinct parts. The first of them is that which is emphatically called the vale of Berkshire, or

Outlines.

General
surface and
soil.

the White Horse vale. This crosses the northern part of the county from east to west, and is bounded on one side by the Thames, and on the other by the White Horse hills, which are a continuation of the Chiltern range. The soil of this part is a grey, calcareous loam, of greater tenacity and fertility than any other district of the county. It is composed of a mixture of vegetable earth and chalk, and is therefore very easily cultivated at all seasons. The second division consists of the range of chalk hills which runs through the middle of the county, and separates the White Horse vale from the vale of Kennet. The most elevated parts of this district form excellent sheep-walks, to which they are generally devoted; being covered with a fine turf, between which and the chalk there is frequently but a thin stratum of soil. In this region, however, there are many tracts of great fertility, chiefly in the vales, where the soil is composed of vegetable mould, mixed with chalk, flint, and gravel. The third of these primary divisions is the vale of Kennet, stretching along the southern part of the county, from Hungerford to Reading. The whole of this distance, which is twenty-five or thirty miles, is through a bed of peat. A slight examination of this district readily suggests the mode in which this peat has been formed. At its lower extremity, the Kennet passes between two hills, where the channel has, in former times, been of greater elevation than the upper part of the vale, which consequently was converted into a lake or morass. As this obstruction was gradually removed, the peat which had been formed by the residuum and the torpidity of the waters, was rendered available for the purposes of agriculture and other uses. The northern slope of this vale is principally composed of a reddish kind of earth, more or less mixed with chalk and flints. In the vale itself, where the peat does not exist, the soil is sometimes gravel, and at others a deep loam, of easy cultivation. On the southern part gravel and clay are met with. In the upper part of the valley this tract is narrow, but it widens as it approaches the east. Much of it is of a ferruginous nature, and on many of the southern hills, the soil is coarse and barren. The fourth division is what is called the forest, commencing on the banks of the Loddon, and extending to the eastern confines of the county. The soil here is a mixture of gravel, clay, and loam, the last prevails most towards the centre, and the others on the south of it; the substratum of nearly the whole of Berkshire is calcareous, at greater or less depths below the surface.

Berkshire is watered by the Thames, the Kennet, Rivers, the Loddon, the Ock, the Lambourn, and the Aubourn, with several other inferior streams. The Thames commences its contact with the county about a mile south of Lechlade, and constitutes its boundary for more than 100 miles, from that point. In its progress, it passes the towns of Abingdon, Wallingford, Reading, Maidenhead, and Windsor, besides several villages, and is navigable to St. John's Bridge, near Lechlade. In all this part of its course, the Thames produces pike, trout, and several kinds of fish common to the other rivers of this county, with carp and tench, which are supposed to be brought thither by floods. The Kennet, after forming the boundary of the county for about two miles, enters it at Hungerford, and is joined by the Lambourn at Newbury. It there becomes navigable, and flows through the vale of Kennet to Reading,

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where it falls into the Thames. The length of its course in Berkshire is about thirty miles. It also yields several kinds of fish, and its trout are much celebrated. The course of the Loddon, within the limits of Berkshire, is only about twelve miles. It rises in Hampshire, and forms the boundary between it and Berks for nearly eight miles; then entering the latter at Swallowfield, it joins the Thames at Wargrave. The Ock falls into the Thames at Abingdon, and produces very fine pike. The Aubourn rises in Berkshire, and after reaching its confines, and forming the separating line between it and Hampshire, it becomes once more an inland stream, and completes a course of nearly twenty miles, by joining with the Kennet.

Canals.

Several canals intersect this county. The Wiltshire and Berkshire canal commences on the banks of the Isis, near Abingdon, and extends through the southern part of the White Horse vale, passing Wantage, to the borders of Wiltshire. The Kennet and Avon canal begins a little above Newbury, and runs nearly parallel to the Kennet, till it enters Wiltshire in the neighbourhood of Hungerford.

Climate.

In all the lower parts of Berkshire, the climate is mild, but on the elevated chalk downs, it is cold and piercing.

Agriculture.

The agriculture is generally considered as good, and is improved in the southern parts by the peat ashes obtained from the vale of the Kennet. Mr. Kirwan considers this peat as composed of a "stratification of fossil trees in all directions, mixed with a reddish or brownish red silty mass, formed of the carbonic particles of vegetables, and united with their astringent juices, and caloric oleaginous faculum." Sir H. Davy's analysis of it gives for its component parts,

Oxide of iron	48
Gypsum	52
Muriat of sulphur and potash	20
	100

Vegetable products.

In its vegetable products, Berkshire resembles the adjacent counties. Wheat and barley are among its principal kinds of grain, and both are of the best quality. The flour that is sent to the London market from the neighbourhood of Reading, is scarcely inferior to that brought from Essex and Kent. The quantity with which the metropolis is annually supplied, is from twenty to thirty thousand quarters. Berkshire malt is likewise equal to repute. Reading, Newbury, and Wallingford are the chief malting places; and the quantity made in a season at the last, is about 15,000 quarters, which is principally sent either to London or Bristol. Fine grazing farms are met with in the White Horse vale; and large quantities of rich cheese are annually made there. Numerous flocks of sheep are kept upon the upland tracts of the county; but these are chiefly of the Dorsetshire and Wiltshire breeds, with the South Down. The yearly produce of wool has been estimated at about 4100 packs. The Berkshire swine have long been noted, and are now widely diffused over many other parts of the kingdom. This county presents five mineralogical specimens of interest. Oyster-shells are sometimes found in the strata of sand near Reading; and fullers' earth has likewise been discovered near the same place. Landed property is more divided in Berkshire than in many other counties. Scarcely an estate exceeds the annual value of

Minerals.

£10,000, and very few are above half that amount. Lease or copy-hold land is not common, and the farms are in general of a moderate size.

In ancient times, Berkshire constituted the whole of the principality inhabited by the *Attrebatii*, a tribe who migrated from Gaul before the Roman conquest. After the division effected by those southern conquerors, it was included in their *Britannia Prima*; and during the Saxon heptarchy, it formed part of the kingdom of the West Saxons. When Alfred, towards the close of the ninth century, divided the kingdom into counties, and other minor districts, this part was denominated *Berrocire*. In the civil and ecclesiastical administration of the county, Berkshire is included in the Oxford circuit, the province of Canterbury, and the diocese of Salisbury. At the time of the Norman survey, the population of Berkshire was estimated between 40,000 and 50,000.

The amount and increase of population at several subsequent periods, were as follows, viz.

Dates.	Inhabitants.	Increase.
1700	74,700	94 per cent. in 50 years.
1750	92,700	
1801	119,800	91½ per cent. in 51 years.
1811	122,300	8 per cent. in 10 years.
1821	134,700	10 per cent. in 10 years.

These numbers are given in the Comparative Tables in page xxxii. of the *Introduction to the Abstract of the Population Returns*, printed in 1822 by order of the House of Commons; but at page 11 of that abstract, the total number of inhabitants in Berkshire is stated at 131,977. The latter is the resident population, and the difference arises from the addition of one-fiftieth for the proportional part of the army and navy. This rate of increase is less than in most other counties of England. It is just equal to that of Westmoreland and the North Riding of Yorkshire; and only exceeds that of Herefordshire and Shropshire. This population, (of Berkshire) in the census, of 1821, was divided as below:—

Males	65,546
Females	66,431
Families chiefly employed in agriculture	14,769
Families chiefly employed in trade, &c.	8,773
All other families	4,158
Average number of persons in each family	4½

Classification of the inhabitants.

From the comparative statement of the ages of persons in this county, taken on the 28th of May, 1821, it appears, that there were then only one male and two females living above 100 years old; which gives a proportion of 16 in ten thousand for the former, and 32 for the latter; or of 24 for both males and females. Some of the other counties, however, exhibit a much greater proportion. There were thirty males and forty-one females, living at the same period, who were between 90 and 100, which evidently shows that the longevity of the women of this county is considerably greater than that of the men; for both these and the preceding numbers bear a much greater ratio to each other than the total number of the males and females in the county. It appears too, from the same return, that here, as well as in all or most other counties, there is a greater number of males than females born; for at the time of the census, the total number of the former below five years old

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Early inhabitants and origin of the present name.

Progressive population.

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was 8,908, and of the latter 8,472, making a difference of about one half per cent.

From the parish register returns for 147 parish churches, and thirteen chapels, there were in the whole of the county in 1890,

Registered Baptisms	{ Males. 2084
	{ Females. 1943
— Burials	{ Males. 1911
	{ Females. 1816
— Marriages 1002

From 1811 to 1820, inclusive, these returns present an average of

Baptisms	{ Males. 1997	} Total 3884
	{ Females. 1857	
Burials	{ Males. 1156	} — 2305
	{ Females. 1149	
Marriages 930	

By adding the unentered baptisms and burials, and comparing these numbers with the total population, we readily obtain the following relative statements, viz.

One baptism in 34	} Individuals.
One burial in 58	
And one marriage in 145	

Topographical division.
Members of Parliament.

Markets.

Berkshire is divided into twenty hundreds, and contains four royal boroughs. It sends nine members to the Imperial Parliament; the county, Reading, Windsor, and Wallingford, each elect two, and Abingdon one. It has also twelve market towns, which are Abingdon, Farringdon, Hungerford, East Hley, Lambourn, Maidenhead, Newbury, Oakingham, Reading, Wallingford, Wantage, and Windsor; several of these are great corn markets; Hley is noted as a sheep market, which is considered as one of the largest in England. It is held on every alternate Wednesday from Easter to Midsummer, and 20,000 sheep are sometimes sold in a single day. The annual average exceeds 250,000. Oakingham is distinguished for its supply of poultry, which is chiefly brought for the London market. Farringdon is noted for its linen and hams.

Manufactures.

This county was formerly one of the chief seats of the clothing manufacture, which, about the middle of the seventeenth century was carried on to a considerable extent in Abingdon, Newbury, and Reading; but this branch of industry has now been discontinued. Paper, however, is made in some parts, and a part of the population of Abingdon is employed in making sackings. The manufacture most worthy of notice is that of copper, at the Temple Mills, in the parish of Bisham. These mills are considered to be the most powerful and complete in the kingdom, and are chiefly employed in rolling sheets of copper, making bolts for ship-building, and hammering copper pans and bottoms for the distilleries. When in full employment, from 600 to 1000 tons of copper, which is chiefly brought from Anglesea, are annually used here. With such a state of manufactures, the commerce of the county must consist principally of an exchange of its agricultural products for such colonial, foreign, and domestic articles as its consumption requires.

Antiquities.

Berkshire affords some specimens of antiquity, and a few historical events that must be briefly noticed. Some of the most remarkable specimens of Saxon

architecture are Avington church, and the nave of Windsor church. The churches of Uffington, Englefield, and Farringdon, and the chapel of Little Farringdon, exhibit some of the best specimens of the early Gothic; and one of the most splendid and complete edifices of the later style of Gothic, is St. George's chapel at Windsor.

The Roman Watling-street enters Berkshire at Streetley, and crosses the county in the direction of Marlborough. Another Roman road enters this county from Hampshire, and passes Reading to Newbury, where it divides into two branches, the one proceeding to Marlborough, and the other to Cirencester. A quadrangular Roman camp is still visible near Wantage, and a fort at Lawrence Waltham; and Cherbury castle, near Deneshwarth, is supposed to have been a fortress of Canute. Uffington castle, near White Horse hill, is thought to be of Danish origin. The magnificent castle of Windsor, so long the favourite residence of the British monarchs, was founded by William the Conqueror. The celebrated White Horse, above Uffington, has been thought by some to belong to Saxon times; but Mr. Lysons thinks it more likely to be of British origin, and to have been made to celebrate the victories of Alfred over the Danes. It is formed by cutting off the turf from the face of a steep chalk hill, and may be seen at the distance of several miles in some directions, though now much obliterated by the grass growing upon the surface.

In both the Roman and Saxon times, Berkshire seems to have been a scene of conflicts; and during the civil war of the seventeenth century, it was frequently the theatre on which the contending parties tried their strength. The first battle of Newbury, in which Lord Falkland lost his life, was fought in September, 1643. In the October of the following year, a second battle was fought near the same place, in which both parties claimed the victory.

For more minute information relative to this county, the reader may consult Mavor's *Agricultural Report of Berkshire*; Lysons's *Magna Britannia; Beauties of England and Wales*; Smith's *Map of the Strata of England, and Memoir*; and various other works of a more local nature.

BERLIN, the capital of the Prussian monarchy, is situated in the province of Brandenburg, on the river Spree. Though not one of the largest, Berlin is indisputably one of the handsomest cities of Europe. It comprises several distinct towns, seated on both banks of the river, and formed of wide, clean, and straight streets, with houses generally four or five stories high, either composed of stone or stuccoed to resemble it. Contrasting Berlin with Hamburg, Dr. Neale says, "none of the offensive peculiarities in the appearance of the latter city are here visible; the traveller, in the course of sixty miles, seems to have borrowed the wings of Time, and outstripping the slow and gradual progression of the arts for four centuries, finds him, on a sudden, placed as it were in the midst of an Italian city, surrounded with wide and dry streets, spacious squares, avenues, bridges, porticoes, palaces, triumphal arches, statues, and cupolas; and instead of the jutting abutments of mean brick buildings, beholds on all sides the ample proportions of stately edifices—the triumph of human industry over the sterility of nature, a modern Palmyra raised by the wand of an enchanter amidst

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the hyperborean deserts of Brandenburg." As Berlin stands on a dry sandy soil, heavy rains are soon absorbed, and the atmosphere is generally dry and pure; but the changes of temperature are frequently great and sudden. Many of the streets are shaded with lime trees; and the foot paths are generally separated from the carriage ways, by posts and chains. The city is surrounded with slight walls and palisades, and is entered by fifteen gates. The most noted of these is Brandenburg gate, which consists of an open colonnade of six handsome Doric columns, each of them forty-four feet high, and five in diameter, leaving five intervening and spacious apertures. This gate opens an access from one of the most magnificent streets in Europe to a beautiful park, which was formerly enclosed for the chase, but is now devoted to the health and amusement of the citizens. Berlin contains many handsome churches, palaces, and other public buildings. Among these are the magnificent Cathedral, the Royal Castle, the University, the building appropriated to the Academy of Sciences, and the Italian Opera-house. Several noble squares, as well as the Royal Arsenal, likewise deserve the notice of strangers. It is not, however, for its buildings alone that Berlin is noted, its institutions claim equal regard. There are societies for the encouragement of arts, sciences, and literature. The Academy of Sciences and Belle Lettres has obtained a deserved reputation. There is also an Observatory, a Military Academy, and some charitable institutions. The population of Berlin is about 180,000, independently of the military, who are seldom less than 30,000. About one-fourth of the population of this city is employed in various manufactures, particularly silk, linen, cotton, lace, jewellery, porcelain, and several metallic articles. Berlin was taken by the Austrians and Russians in 1760; and was occupied by the Russians after the battle of Jena, in 1806. Lat. 52° 34' 45" N. long. 13° 32' E.

BERLIN, a peculiar kind of coach. It has been claimed by the Italians, who give the name of *Berlino* to a sort of pillory used for the exposure of criminals: but Beckmann in his *History of Inventions*, (l. 130.) refers the title to the German city in which it was first used. According to this writer, Philip de Chiera a Colonel and quarter-master-general, in the service of Frederick William, who died at Berlin, in 1673, invented the carriage to contain two persons on occasion of a mission to France, on which he was despatched by his Royal master.

BERMONDSEY, a village of Surrey, bordering on the river Thames. It is largely inhabited by tanners, woolstaplers, fell-mongers, leather-dressers, and parchment-makers. A Cistercian priory was founded here in 1082. Within its walls, Katharine, Queen of Henry V. died in 1436; and in 1486, Elizabeth, Queen of Edward IV. was sentenced to forfeit all her lands and goods, and to be confined in this priory for life. Here she soon after died. Little of this building now remains, but its site is known by the name of the Abbey-house. The church is a rectory. Population in 1821, 25,335.

BERMUDAS, or SOMERS' ISLANDS, a group of islands and islets, situated in the Atlantic Ocean, between two and three hundred leagues from the coast of America, and nearly the same distance from the nearest of the West Indies. They lie in the 33rd degree of north latitude, and the 64th of west longitude, and were

first discovered, in 1587, by John Bermudas, a Spaniard. He, however, merely saw them at a distance, and gave them his name; but he neither landed nor gained any information respecting them. Soon after this, Henry May, an Englishman, was shipwrecked upon one of the largest of these islands; and as it abounded with cedar, he contrived with the assistance of the materials he obtained from the wreck, to build a small vessel, with which he returned to England, and was the first person who gave any account of the group. They were found to be wholly uninhabited; nor does May's account appear to have excited much interest in their favour. In 1572, about forty-five years after their first discovery, the King of Spain made a grant of them to one of his subjects; but even this did not produce any attempt at colonization. Thirty-seven years afterwards, as Sir George Somers, Sir Thomas Gates, and Captain Newport were on their voyage to Virginia, as deputy governors, they were cast upon the Bermudas; and it is from the first of these gentlemen that they are sometimes called Somers' Islands. Instead of acting in concert, when thrown upon these uninhabited shores, each built a small cedar vessel, in which he arrived separately at his destination. Sir George Somers, however, soon returned to this group in quest of provisions for the colony in Virginia, and died there shortly after his arrival. Deprived of their leader, the crew, instead of returning with hogs, which had now bred in considerable numbers, for the settlers in Virginia, reached England in their small barks, and circulated a most favourable report of the beauty and fertility of the Bermudas. This brought them into such repute, that the Virginia Company, who claimed the property, as having been taken possession of by their agents, sold them in 150 shares, and James I. granted the purchasers a charter. Three English seamen, who had deserted from Sir George Somers, and remained on the island, constituted the original inhabitants; but in 1612, this new Association by which they had been purchased, fitted out a vessel, and sent sixty planters to the Bermudas under the government of a Mr. Richard Moore. On the arrival of this colony, they found the three deserters had collected a considerable quantity of ambergris, which they were about to convey to the coast of America in an open boat; this they seized, and with cedar, tobacco, and some other articles, were soon enabled to transmit a profitable return to the proprietors. This infant colony soon fortified the island with a few block houses, in the best way they could. They also planned the town of St. George, acutely as it now stands, and they appear to have proceeded in other respects with much judgment and prudence. In 1616, Mr. Moore was succeeded in the government of this new colony by Captain Tucker, who seems to have followed up the beneficial plans adopted by his predecessor, to have maintained good discipline among the planters, and to have promoted cultivation, particularly that of tobacco. About three years afterwards, Captain Butler took the command, and was accompanied by 500 new settlers, which made the whole number of English residents then in the Bermudas about 3000. A new constitution was also established soon after this period, resembling, as much as circumstances would permit, that of the mother country. Many of the English nobility had now purchased estates and plantations in the Bermudas, and it became fashionable to visit these

BERMUDAS.

First inhabitants.

Situation,
discovery,
and name.

BERMUDAS.

Salubrity of climate.

Intended college.

Supposed deterioration of climate.

Number of islands.

islands from motives of curiosity and amusement. Exaggerated accounts were spread relative to the salubrity of the climate; and many removed thither from the West Indies, for the restoration of their health, and others from the more northern colonies, to enjoy their fortunes in this scene of peaceful retirement. Nor were the civil wars in England a less prolific source of population to the Bermudas, than the favourable reports of its climate; for when Cromwell usurped the government, a number of Royalists sought refuge in this secluded spot. Among these, the poet Walter, after he was condemned by the Parliament, spent several months of 1643 in these islands, which he has described in his poems, in terms as glowing as those employed by the ancients in depicting their Hesperides. These flattering accounts of the serenity of the climate, and the urbanity of the inhabitants, induced the ingenious and benevolent Bishop Berkeley to form a plan for founding a college there, for the double purpose of propagating Christianity among the American Indians, and affording the British youth of these transatlantic settlements an opportunity of obtaining an education, which might ultimately render them instrumental in promoting the same great work. In 1725, he published a proposal for this purpose in London, which after some time was approved by the government, and subsequently brought into the House of Commons by Sir Robert Walpole. It received the consent of Parliament, and a charter was granted by his Majesty for the establishment of a college, to be called St. Paul's College, in Bermudas, which was to consist of a president and nine fellows, who were bound to maintain and educate the children of American Indians at £10 a year each. To promote this philanthropic purpose, the Parliament passed a vote for £30,000. In 1728 Berkeley sailed to America to carry his benevolent intentions into effect; but after waiting there for a considerable time, the money was never paid, and the scheme was necessarily abandoned.

When the results of more sober experience had banished these illusions, the advantages presented by these islands were not found to be so numerous as were at first represented. During the last half-century, they appear to have increased very little either in value or population. The export of cedar was one of the great objects of the first settlers; and the destruction of the forests, with which many parts of the Bermudas were covered, has been considered as one cause which has rendered the climate less temperate than formerly. The shelter which they afforded caused many delicate plants to grow more freely than they do at present; and the soil is thought to be less productive now than it was two centuries ago. The number of islands in this group is about 400, which are crowded into a space of a few square leagues. Very few of them, however, are inhabited; and the remainder are mere inlets and rocks. Among the principal of these islands are St. George, St. David's, Cooper, Ireland, Somerset, Long Island, and Bird Island. St. George is the largest, and is about sixteen miles long and two broad. The chief town is of the same name, and the population of the whole island is not much above 3000. This is the only town. St. David's and Cooper have villages, and the rest only a few detached farms. The whole population of the Archipelago has lately been estimated at 10,200, nearly half of whom are slaves.

Mr. Edwards computes the area of the whole assemblage at ten or twelve thousand acres, not more than one ninth or tenth of which is cultivated; much of the rest being rugged, mountainous districts, covered with forests of cedar and palmetto trees. These, however, are often interspersed with fertile plains, particularly near the coast. St. George has several forts, and is defended by two castles; but the whole group is so encompassed by rocks, that it is difficult for a vessel, even of ten tons burthen, to enter any of the harbours without an experienced pilot. The climate of the Bermudas is almost a constant spring, except for a few months in summer, when the heat is oppressive. The rigours of winter are never felt. The trees constantly retain their verdure, and the birds sing and breed all the year; but tempests of thunder and lightning are sometimes experienced, and hurricanes are occasionally tremendous.

In such a climate, the vegetable productions necessarily participate, in some measure, in the nature of those of the West Indies. The cultivated districts are chiefly appropriated to the growth of Indian corn, palse, tobacco, cotton, fruit, and several kinds of vegetables. Of the first, there are two crops a year, the one being reaped in July, the other in December. The numerous woods supply abundance of timber (chiefly cedar) for ship-building, which, with navigation, constitute the principal occupation of the inhabitants. The palmetto, as well as the cedar, is also employed for building, and its leaves are generally used for covering houses. Among the fruit trees are found the orange, lemon, olive, and pear. A species of red wood is also peculiar to these islands, the fruit of which nourishes an insect which is sometimes used as a substitute for cochineal. Birds are numerous, and fish abound on the coast, but all species of venomous reptiles are unknown. One of the chief mineral productions is a soft white stone, which is not only easily wrought and is used for building on the islands themselves, but is exported to the West Indies. The Bermudians have been noted for the correctness of their moral conduct, the gentle treatment of their slaves, and their general benevolence. The women are thought handsome, but are much addicted to dress. The prevailing form of religion is that of the Church of England. The government is conducted by a Governor, Council, and Assembly; and a royal dock-yard and naval arsenal have lately been established for refitting the King's ships, belonging to the North American station. This has consequently increased both the trade and population of the Archipelago. Edwards's *History of the West Indies*, and Myers's *Modern Geography*, 1822.

BERNE (or Basle according to the German mode of spelling) the second in rank, and first in importance among the cantons of Switzerland. Previous to the French revolution this canton, both in extent and population, constituted nearly a third part of the whole country of Switzerland; but Buonaparte erected the Pays de Vaud into an independent state, and thus deprived Berne of the most profitable portion of its territory. The congress at Vienna, indeed, in the year 1815, professed to bestow on it something like an equivalent in the *évéché*; but the inhabitants of this latter district are so little assimilated, either in religion or manners, to their new masters, that the unusual union has given satisfaction to neither side, and the Bernois yet look with eyes of unceasing regret towards

BERMUDAS.

BERNE.

Soil and products.

Character of the inhabitants.

BERNE

those fair Baillages on the lake, which are lost to them for ever. It was from the Pays de Vaud that the state derived a large portion of its revenues, and assumed no slight dignity towards the other members of the confederacy, affecting almost the consequence of a maritime power. Addison mentions that he observed a proclamation posted up within the canton, with this magnificent preface, "Whereas we have been informed of several abuses committed within our ports and harbours on the lake," &c. The Vaudois, however, exult in their newly acquired independence, and represent themselves as having been ever treated by their late masters as a conquered country, though in effect the yoke of Berne was by no means a severe one. Mr. Burke's assertion, that this republic was the happiest, most prosperous, and best governed country upon the earth, is certainly to be regarded with suspicion, when we find that the use of torture here had not then been abolished; but, except in feeling themselves emancipated from the control of a superior state, the Vaudois have little reason to plume themselves on the change; they have passed from indulgent masters to a state of turbulent contention, and have certainly lost in dignity more than they have acquired in independence.

It was not till the year 1352 that Berne first acceded to the Helvetic Confederacy, and although the forest cantons are earlier members of that body, yet such, even at that period, was the importance and dignity of their new confederate, that she was immediately admitted as the second in rank among the cantons, a dignity which she has ever subsequently retained. Berne, at an early period of the Reformation, withdrew from the Church of Rome, and by secularizing the revenues of the ecclesiastical establishments, which were numerous and opulent, materially enriched her public treasury. The change of faith was probably attended by few popular excesses, as many ancient monastic buildings, now diverted to different purposes, meet the traveller's eye in all parts of the canton, and seem to have suffered no other injuries than those of time. The acquisition of the Pays de Vaud, by conquest, from the house of Savoy, is the most brilliant event in the Bernese history, as its recent loss is considered the most disastrous. It is not in the petty warfare of inconsiderable states that the general historian can find a theme of interest; and although the struggles in which this government has been engaged, with the neighbouring cantons of Fribourg and Soleure have often given birth to splendid acts of individual prowess, the operations have ever been on too confined a scale to allow the general reader to take much interest in their details. In the year 1797, the French directory, eager on every side for territorial aggrandizement, and in the case of Berne, stimulated by the hope of more extensive plunder than any other similar state could hold out, directed its attention towards this little republic, and as a preliminary to its subjugation, seized on the town of Berne. The intrigues of Mengaud (a name afterwards well known to the English as the Prefect of Calais during the peace of Amiens) induced the Vaudois to rise and proclaim their own independence. A new government was erected at Lausanne, under the auspices of France, and the Pays de Vaud claimed admission into the Helvetic body as an independent community. Soleure and Fribourg, however, rallied round

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the standard of the ancient cauto, and the command of the united forces of these confederate states was intrusted to a noble, as distinguished for his personal merit as for the splendour of his ancestry. D'Erlach, a name associated in the recollection of every Bernian, with all the proudest achievements in their annals, was unanimously called to the command. The forces of Berne, however respectable in the character and enterprise of their leader, were yet composed of those who were strangers to military service, and who proved themselves, in the event, to be incapable of submitting to regular discipline. Though the plan of offensive operations was arranged by D'Erlach with consummate skill, the execution was of necessity often intrusted to those who were less fitted for organized warfare than for predatory incursions. The government, in the meantime, instead of seconding the efforts of its gallant chief, exhibited a most disheartening picture of vacillation and pusillanimous imbecility. On one day they acceded to a conference with Berne, on the next, overpowered by the clamour for immediate hostilities, they reluctantly gave orders for an attack. "Timid, treacherous, and wavering, a compound (as Mr. Cox has expressed it) of humiliation and spirit, independence and submission," they paralysed the military operations of those, who, if left to themselves, might possibly have offered effectual resistance. The troops, sensible of this vacillation, and suspicious of treachery, soon evinced a spirit of revolt and consternation, and distrust spread through the ranks. In the meanwhile Soleure capitulated, deceived by false intelligence of the actual surrender of Berne. D'Erlach, disheartened and fearful of an attack on his flank, felt compelled to retreat. On the third of March the retiring army exhibited every symptom of mutiny and insubordination; and, on the following morning, in a paroxysm of fury scarcely to be paralleled by any of those acts of enormity which they charged on their invaders, they massacred two of their officers, Stettler and Ryhiner, although the niece of the Avoyer De Steiguer, a lovely young woman, flung herself between the assassins and their victims. In this state of insubordination and weakness, D'Erlach nevertheless prepared to encounter the victorious veterans of France. The populace, however, in the meanwhile had risen at Berne, had compelled their magistrates to abdicate, and had established a provisional government, formed out of such materials as met the approbation of the French authorities. D'Erlach nevertheless gave battle, and the Avoyer De Steiguer fought under him in the ranks: it was not until after the most desperate resistance that they were compelled to yield, and seek safety by flight among the mountains of the Oberland. The Bernese troops, to their infinite disgrace, committed the most horrid excesses in their retreat, and butchered many of their most gallant officers, especially the two Adjutant-generals, Krossenz, and Gmüden. D'Erlach, undaunted by defeat, and inspired with hope of rallying his shattered forces, was hastening in the direction of Thun, when he was recognized by some straggling soldiery at Musingen, seized, bound, and placed in a cart, with the intention of being conveyed a prisoner to the capital; but another desperate hand assailed him in the way, and, amidst reproaches and execrations, massacred him with their bayonets and hatchets. The fall of Berne sealed the fate of Switzerland; and

BERNE. It was from the plunder of the Bernese treasury that France is supposed to have derived the supplies, which fitted out the expedition to Egypt. At the treaty of Lunéville a new division of the whole country was adopted, in compliance with the desire of France, and the severance of the Pays de Vaud from Berne was ratified in perpetuity. The small district of Schwartzsburg was indeed annexed to the canton, but it was spared the insult of being told to consider this as an equivalent. No material change took place until the whole Confederation was recognised at the Congress of Vienna in 1815. It was there arranged that the seat of the supreme government should be alternately at Zurich, Berne, and Lucerne, two years at each, and this arrangement is yet in force. The residence of the diplomatic body still, however, continues in the city of Berne.

The canton of Berne exhibits, in picturesque beauty, more striking objects than are perhaps to be found in any other part of Switzerland: the range of Alps in the Oberland, though inferior in elevation, is more magnificent in its outline than even that of Chamonix itself. The valleys boast a more beautiful verdure and a greater variety of foliage than those of Savoy; and above all the cascades are unrivalled both in beauty and number. The traveller, after enjoying the scenery of the lakes of Thun and of Brienz, may visit the Giesbach, a cascade near the latter town, which has no less than seven successive falls; he may afterwards pursue the course of the Aar, along the valley of Hasli, to the Reichenbach, near Meyringen, which, from the magnificence of the volume of water that thunders down, is fully entitled to its name; and proceeding by Grindelwald to Lauterbrunn, he may enjoy a sight of the Staubbach, which, though inconsiderable as a body of water, precipitates itself above 900 feet at one perpendicular descent. This latter has derived its name (the Cascade of Dust) from the water appearing to be almost lost like dust in the course of its descent, indeed when viewed from Lauterbrunn, it may well be compared to a cloud of smoke, that by some magical change in its nature was brought to descend instead of to mount.

Those interested in works of art will be amply repaid by a visit to the celebrated monument of Madam de Langhans, at Hindelbank, about seven miles from Berne. This is deservedly considered the *chef d'œuvre* of the sculptor Nahl. It is much to be regretted that it is executed in so perishable a material as already to exhibit great signs of decay, although preserved with much care by wooden doors placed over it. It would be unpardonable, in enumerating the objects of curiosity and interest within this canton, not to allude to the seminary of Professor Fellenberg at Hofwyl, whose system of education, both for the poor and the wealthy, has acquired so much celebrity throughout Europe. The buildings, finished in 1823, are more considerable in extent than almost any other public institution in Switzerland, and afford accommodation for upwards of 100 pupils of a superior class, among whom are comprised many foreigners, chiefly Russians, and a few English. The system embraces a larger field than our present limits will allow us to enter into; but the visitor cannot fail to be struck with the general regularity and good order which appear to pervade the establishment.

The prevailing language in the canton of Berne is

the German; it must, however, be admitted that the *Allemann Bernois* is a most corrupt dialect, and that the pronunciation is sometimes so barbarous that an inhabitant of Saxony might have a difficulty in recognising his own tongue. All the public proclamations and acts of government, &c. are in German, so are the inscriptions on the houses and shops. The higher orders, however, universally understand French, and speak the two languages indifferently. The established religion is Calvinism, and this appears to be increasing at present in the rigour of its observances. The government decrees one day (generally in September) for an annual fast, which is observed with a degree of strictness for which it would be difficult to find a parallel elsewhere: the shops, and even the houses are shut: the gates of the towns are closed against travellers during the hours of service, and all classes repair to church habited in the deepest mourning. Religious fanaticism appears generally on the increase, though this is not accompanied by any improvement in the state of morals, which are as lax as in France or in Germany.

Berne is situated towards the west of Switzerland. Its shape is very irregular, being much narrower towards the middle than near each extremity, while the canton of Soleure deeply indents its northern borders. It is bounded by the cantons of Soleure and Argovia on the north, by those of Lucerne, Unterwalden, and Uri on the east, the Valais on the south, and the cantons of Vaud, Fribourg, and Neuchâtel on the west. The whole area is now stated at 3872 square miles; and the population at 233,000, which is about sixty persons to each square mile. This is but a small comparative population, but much of the canton is lost to the industry of man.

Berne has never been celebrated for the extent of its commercial transactions. One of its chief manufactures is linen, about 10,000 pieces of which are annually exported, principally to Lyons. Silk and coloured stockings are also made in the capital, where clock-making likewise engages a number of individuals. Its other exports are horses, cattle, hides, cheese, cotton cloths, and some woollens, but the value is not great.

BEAR, the capital city of the canton just described. The name is vulgarly derived from a traditional legend that Berchtold V. Duke of Züringen, vowed to call his newly founded city after the first animal that he killed in a hunting match, and having killed a Bear, he accordingly called it Berne, the German word for Bear, directing that it should always blazon that animal as its cognizance; and maintain one at the gates of the town. This latter custom is still observed, and several Bears are kept in the fosse near the gate of entrance from Neuchâtel. In one of the annual processions the standard of the canton is borne by a person grotesquely dressed up to imitate a Bear; and the story of Duke Berchtold is represented in paintings round the chamber in which the Grand Council assemble. These pictures, however, cannot boast an earlier date than the beginning of the seventeenth century, and are of no importance as confirmatory of the tradition. Indeed the whole would rather seem a clumsy and Gothic version of the prophecy of Heleas, and the foundation of Alba, on the spot on which Æneas discovered the sow. The vow of the Duke of Züringen is probably a ridiculous

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fection of later times; and it is much more probable, as Berne and Berethold are so near in sound, that the city took its name from its founders.

St. Ursus, however, of the Theban legion, was martyred before the Temple of the Sun at Soleure, and the Emperor Frederick II. erected the order of knighthood of the Bear in his honour, in 1213. This order met annually at the abbey of St. Gall, and continued to subsist until the establishment of the Swiss confederation. The abbey of St. Gall, and the canton of Appenzell both take the Bear as their heraldic ensignance, and it is probable that the origin of all may be referred to the Swiss martyr St. Ursus.

The town of Berne is beautifully situated on the river Aar, which encircles it on three sides; it rises above the river very precipitously. It is a large place, possessing much neatness, but not populous in proportion to its extent, the number of its inhabitants being little more than 13,000. Some of the streets are wide, but they are generally crowded, while many of the houses exhibit much uniformity both in appearance and height. Most of them are built of grey stone, and rest upon arcades, which afford, at all times, a dry and sheltered pathway for foot passengers. The town is intersected by streams, and interspersed with fountains, and the streets are kept remarkably clean. The surrounding country presents rich, varied, and romantic scenery. The Cathedral is a fine Gothic edifice, erected in the fifteenth century, by the same architect who built the Minster at Strasburg. The Church of St. Esprit, the Council-house, the Great Hospital, the New Orphan-house, the Town Library, the Concert-hall, are the other chief buildings. Berne also contains a college, an economical society, a cabinet of medals, and an arsenal. Berne stands about 1710 feet above the level of the sea, and is nearly fifty miles distant from Basle, the same from Zurich, and seventy-five from Geneva. Its latitude is $46^{\circ} 57'$ north, and longitude $7^{\circ} 26'$ east.

BERNACLE, in Zoology, the vulgar name of the *Asar Erythropus*.

BERNARD, ST., two mountains in Switzerland, called the GRAY and LITTLE St. Bernard. The former constitutes one of the elevated summits of what the ancients called *Alpes Pennine*, or the Pennine Alps, and rises about 11,000 feet above the level of the sea. It is situated between the Valais and the duchy of Aosta, in Piedmont, at the source of the Durance and the Daria. Its summits are crowned with perpetual snow, and an opening which separates the two principal points, constitutes one of the chief passages from Switzerland to Italy that can be traversed at all seasons of the year, though during the greater part of it the journey is attended with great difficulty and danger. It was by this pass that Hannibal has been supposed by some to have conducted the Carthaginian army into Italy; and it was by the same route that Buonaparte led his troops to the plains of Lombardy before the battle of Marengo. The highest part of the pass is stated to be 6038 feet above the level of the sea; and here a monastery of a peculiar constitution has existed for nearly nine centuries. It was founded, with the most benevolent views, by Bernard of Menthon. In his time the authority of the Pope was rapidly rising in power, and increasing in renown, and pilgrims poured into Rome in all directions. Bernard, who had devoted himself to the austerities of an ecclesiasti-

cal life, then resided at Aosta, a small town at the foot of the Alps, and was frequently engaged in missions for converting the Pagan inhabitants of these upper regions. In these excursions he laboured, with deep compassion, the sufferings of the French and German devotees, in traversing this passage towards the object of their superstitious veneration.

To alleviate these hardships, as far as human power could accomplish it, he founded this monastery, for which he obtained several important privileges from different Popes; while the object of the establishment was obviously so benevolent and praiseworthy that it soon rose into popularity, and acquired extensive possessions. The object of the monks, besides instructing the inhabitants of the mountains, is to afford assistance and support to all travellers who stand in need of their aid, without distinction of age, sex, or religion. They entertain all travellers who choose to stay to refresh themselves and their horses for three days, without remuneration. When the weather is bad, both the monks and their servants, assisted by dogs of a peculiar breed and training, frequently traverse all parts of the mountains, to rescue such as have lost their way, or to support those who may be sinking beneath the severity of the climate, or who are unable to withstand the fury of the storm. When every trace of the road has been defaced by a recent fall of snow, the sagacity of the dogs will point out the path to the guides; and even when the traveller has been overwhelmed by the snowy deluge, and lies sunk beneath the rising mass, these animals will frequently discover him, and conduct the guides to his rescue. These noble and arduous duties have been discharged with such indefatigable perseverance and humanity, that it is impossible justly to withhold from them the highest meed of praise. Unfortunately for this noble institution, the revolutions of Europe have deprived it of the greatest part of its possessions, and thus have paralysed the arm of benevolence that was so constantly stretched forth to alleviate misery; so that the contrivances of the benevolent are now thankfully received by this charitable fraternity, in aid of their laudable designs. The highest summit of this mountain is called *Felan*, and is about latitude $45^{\circ} 48' N$, and longitude $7^{\circ} 2' E$.

LITTLE ST. BERNARD is situated south-west of the former mountain, and on the opposite side of Mont Blanc. It forms a part of what the ancients called *Alpes Graie*, which separate the duchy of Aosta from Savoy, and derived its name from the same source as the former mountain. The pass lies over this into Savoy, and there was a monastery or hospital erected upon it, for the same purpose as that reared by the same individual upon Great St. Bernard. But the latter pass is much less frequented than the former; and the summit of the mountain is less than 7200 feet in elevation. In our life of HANNIBAL (*Hist. Division*, ix. 77b) will be found the reasons for believing that the Carthaginians passed into Italy over the Little St. Bernard.

BERNBURG, a part of the principality of Anhalt in Germany, comprising about 3.0 square miles, and 36,000 inhabitants, or 109 persons to each square mile. It consists of the upper and lower principalitys, and the Bernburg part of Zerbst; and produces an annual revenue of nearly £35,000. Much of the country is fertile, and yields considerable quantities of

BERN-
SARLA.
BERN-
BURG.

BERN-BURG. wine and fruit, except the included part of the Harz district, where the chief wealth is in mines, which have long been celebrated for their riches.

BERNEBO. a small town in Germany, and the capital of the preceding district. It stands on the banks of the Saale, the opposite parts of the town being united by a bridge across that river. It is defended by a castle, crowning a steep rock, and encompassed with ditches. The population does not exceed 3000 individuals; but various manufactures are carried on there, among which are those of earthenware, starch, powder, glass bottles, and iron. It is about twenty miles west of Dessau, and nearly the same distance south of Magdeburg. Lat. $51^{\circ} 50' N.$ and long. $11^{\circ} 52' E.$

BERNERAY, a small island in the Hebrides, about five miles in circumference, and capable of being rendered productive by good cultivation. The centre contains a small lake which abounds in eels. It also contains a wood of yew trees, which it is supposed was anciently a sacred grove, and consequently that the island itself was appropriated to religious purposes. The remains of two chapels which were dedicated to St. Asaph, and St. Columba, are also visible. Berneray is situated in the 58th degree of north latitude, and the 8th of west longitude.

BERNIER'S ISLAND is situated near the mouth of Shark's Bay, off the west coast of New Holland, and was so called by the French expedition of discovery, fitted out in 1801. It is only a small island, and is in a great measure surrounded by coral reefs, amidst which the waves dash with great violence, and render the approach to the shore dangerous. The island is chiefly composed of alternated beds of sand and limestone, interspersed with shells, which are sometimes met with at a considerable height above the sea. A species of calcareous stone is also found in some places, which admits of a good polish. The vegetation of this island is scanty, the chief production being a species of cypripedium, the long roots of which cover the ground like a net work. The sea on the coasts was found to contain various kinds of fish; a few cormorants and sea eagles were seen; and a beautiful species of kangaroo was thought to be peculiar to this and two other adjacent isles. Different species of lizards were also discovered, one of which was between four and five feet in length. Bernier's Island is situated in the 25° of south latitude.

BERIOBOD, *be* and *rob*. *A. S. berioþ; Dutch, roeben; Ger. rauben; Fr. robber; It. rubare.* See **BARRAVE.**

To take away, to deprive of, to plunder, to despoil, to bereave.

The when her well of tears she wasted had,
She said, Ah! dearest Lord! what evil star
On you hath frowned, and poured his influence bad,
That of your self ye thus be robbed are,
And this misdeeming how your souls looks duth warrs?

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book i. c. viii.

BEROE, in Zoology, a genus of the class Radiata, order Placida. Generic character: body free, gelatinous, transparent, oval or globose, externally with ciliated longitudinal ribs; an aperture at the base resembling a mouth.

The aperture at the base is considered by Lamarck, in opposition to the opinion of other naturalists, who assign to it the office of a mouth, as merely the concavity of the inferior disc of the animal, and the mouth

is, according to him, situated at the bottom of the cavity.

BERCEA, in *Ancient Geography*, a town of Macedonia, at the foot of Mount Bermus. Paul and Silas fled to this city from Thessalonica, and speak in commendation of the spirit of its inhabitants. The modern name is Cerna-veria.

BERRE, a small town in France, in the department of the mouths of the Rhone, and arrondissement of Aix, situated on the borders of the lake of Martigues or Berre, where it is entered by the river Arc. The waters of this lake are discharged into the Mediterranean by a canal of the same name. This place was once considered as one of the strongest fortresses in Provence. It was taken, in 1691, by the Savoyards under Duke Charles Emanuel, who defied all the efforts of Henry IV. to dislodge him, till the peace of Vervins, seven years afterwards. It is about sixteen miles north-west of Marseilles, in north latitude $43^{\circ} 28'$ and east longitude $5^{\circ} 9'$.

BERRI, or **BARAV**, a province in the centre of France, bounded on the north by Sologne, and Gaiinois-Orléannois, on the south by la Marche, on the east by Nivernois and Bourbonnois, and on the west by Touraine and Poitou. Under the early kings of France, Berri was governed by Counts, as it had previously been under the Romans and Goths. These ultimately rendered the dignity hereditary, which was at first but personal, and then took the title of Counts of Bourges, and subsequently of Viscounts, till Eudes-Arpin sold it to Philip I. in the year 1100. King John created it into a duchy in 1360, in favour of his third son, and it has ever since given a title to one of the royal family of France. Berri is fertile in corn, wine, and pasturage, but particularly in timber. Its wood is much esteemed, and considerable quantities of cloth are made in the province. The most noted rivers are the Cher and the Indre. The Cher divides the province into Upper and Lower, the former so its east, and the latter on its west bank. Berri is now divided into the departments of Cher and Indre, the capital of the one being Bourges, and that of the other Chateauroux.

BERRY, *v.* } *A. S. beria, berga; Ger. ber; Sw.*
Barav, n. J. ber. From the *A. S. baran*, to bear, to bring forth. *Wintering*, which occurs in *Mat. vii. 16.*, is rendered by Sommer, vine-berries, grapes.

Gaillard he was, as goldfinch in the shawe,
Broune as a berry, a proper short fellow.

Chaucer. The Cooks Tale, v. 4365.

One of hem was a tre
That beareth a fruit of saunor wicks
Full croked was that foule stick,
And knottie here and there also,
And blacke as berry, or any alo.

Id. Bismont of the Rest, fol. 120.

I mean the lower kind now
By thy pretenceful fury,
Which will prove like, thou shalt find how,
Unto a tree of bolly,
That barke and berry bears alwayes,
The one, harden frore, the other swete.

Faustina dactylis, in Chat. ii. 414.

Was not I planted of thine owne hand,
To be the primrose of all thy land,
With flourishing blossoms, to furnish the prime,
And shalvet herbes in summer time?

Spenser. Shepherd's Calendar, February, fol. 6.

That feed the thrush, (whatsoever some suppose)
Afford the smaller minstrels no supply.

Cueper. Task, book v.

BEROE

BERRY.

BERRY.
—
BERVIE.

BERRY ISLANDS, a small group among the Bahama Islands, situated north-west of New Providence, and on the south side of the channel, which communicates with the Gulf of Florida. They lie in the 26th degree of north latitude, and about the 79th of west longitude; but are very small, and have been little either visited or described.

BERRY POMEROY, a vicarage in the county of Devon. Patron, the Duke of Somerset. Population, in 1831, 1255. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 4s. 3d. *id.* 690. 4s. 6d. one mile and three quarters east from Totness. This village is remarkable for the magnificent ruins of Berry Pomeroys castle, originally in the possession of the Pomeroys family, which came over with the Conqueror; but transferred to that of Seymour, in which it still remains, in the reign of Edward VI. The Protector Somerset added to it largely, but left it unfinished. It was dismantled during the civil wars of Charles I. reign.

BERSCHEDE, a seaport of the Austrian Empire in Istria, and on the coast of the Adriatic. It stands on an elevated rock, about twelve miles south of Fiume, has a convenient harbour, and is noted for its trade in wine and oil. Latitude 45° 27' N. and longitude 14° 35' E.

BERTHIER, a flourishing village in Lower Canada, on the northern bank of the river St. Lawrence, and about half way between Montreal and Trois Rivières. From its situation on the great road along which the regular stages travel, between Montreal and Quebec, it has become a place of considerable trade, and a depot from which British manufactures are dispersed over the neighbouring country, which is populous and flourishing. It is therefore an increasing place, both in extent and importance, and contains many good dwellings, besides store-houses and granaries, from which large quantities of grain are annually exported.

BERTHOUD, a county and bailliage in the canton of Berne in Switzerland. It contains six parishes, and a town of the same name, which is tolerably well built, and the chief place in the district. It is the residence of the bailli, and has a church with a tall spire, a town-house, and two hospitals. It possesses various privileges, and has a separate government, consisting of a Great Council of thirty, and a small one of twelve. It is also distinguished for two baths in its vicinity, which are much frequented. Berthoud is about ten miles north-east of Berne, in latitude 47° 3' N. and longitude 7° 28' E.

BERTIERA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: corolla quinquefid; stigma bilamellated; berry bilocular, many-seeded.

The only species of this genus, is the *B. Guianensis*, a shrub inhabiting Cayenne. Aublet. *Histoire des Plantes de la Guiane Française*, p. 180. tab. 69.

BERTIOGA, a seaport of Brazil, about five leagues south of St. Sebastian, with a good harbour, well sheltered from all winds. The town is small; but the inhabitants are more industrious and enterprising than in many other places of these dominions, and are chiefly engaged in the whale fishery. From its being so completely screened by the heights in its vicinity, the climate is sometimes very hot and suffocating to Europeans.

BERVIE or **INTERALVIE**, a royal borough and parish of Scotland, in the Kincardineshire, situated near the mouth of the small river Bervie, which forms a port on the

east coast for fishing boats. It unites with Aberdeen, Arbroath, Brechin, and Montrose, in sending a member to the Imperial Parliament. Bervie is said to owe this distinction to the reception which David II. met with from the inhabitants in 1349, when driven in there by distress of weather. The first machine for spinning flax erected in Scotland, was employed at Bervie, and the same manufacture still occupies a considerable number of its inhabitants, who, at the enumeration of 1811, were 937, but in 1821 they amounted to 1092. Of these, 706 resided within the borough, 225 in the village of Gourden, and the remaining 101 in the country. Bervie is situated about eighty miles north-east of Edinburgh.

BERWICKSHIRE, one of the counties of Scotland, situated in the south-east part of that country, and bounded on the north by the county of Haddington, on the east by the German Ocean or British Sea, on the west by Mid Lothian, and on the south by Roxburghshire and the river Tweed, which separates it from England. It extends about thirty miles from east to west, and twenty from north to south. Its mean dimensions have been stated at 26 and 17 miles, and its superficial cootoots at 446 square miles, or 265,440 English acres. Of this, more than one-third is either cultivated or capable of cultivation, and about 185,000 acres are composed of hills and pasturage. The whole county consists naturally of two grand divisions, which are usually denominated Lammernuir and Merse; the former embracing the upland tracts, and the latter the low grounds. Lammernuir is, therefore, but thinly peopled, while the population of Merse is much more dense. The resident inhabitants, at the time of the enumeration in 1821, were 33,385, which gives very nearly seventy-five persons for each square mile, as the medium population for the whole county. This number included 15,976 males, and 17,409 females; so that the two sexes bore to each other the proportion of ten to eleven nearly, or the females exceeded the males by one in eleven more numerous than the females; but after that period the females maintained the uniform ascendancy. From 30 to 40, the proportion was 41 to 51, or nearly as 4 to 5; between 50 to 90, they were as 5 to 6; and from 90 to 100, as 8 to 11. There was only one person then living upwards of 100, and that was a female. The population of this county, particularly in the lower parts of it, is chiefly spread over its surface, in detached dwellings, as there are not any large towns, and but few villages of any extent.

By comparing the number of inhabitants at the three periods when the different censuses were taken, we shall perceive that the increase has been much less in this county than in many others, both in England and Scotland. There were,

		Inhabitants.		
In 1801	31,600	..	Increase 1 per cent.
1811	31,800	..	Increase 7 per cent.
1821	34,100		

The resident population of Berwickshire was comprised of 7165 families, of which 3334 were employed in agriculture, and 1923 in trade and manufactures. The proportion of these classes is, therefore, very nearly as 3 to 2. The number of families not included in either class, was very nearly equal to that of the latter. By dividing the whole population by the number of fami-

BERVIE.
—
BERWICKSHIRE.

Situation, boundaries and extent.

Population.

Increase of population.

Employment, &c.

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lies, we obtain rather more than 4½ persons on an average for each family, and as there were 5503 houses occupied by these 7165 families, it is a little more than one family and a fifth for each house.

Surface.

The mountainous district of Berwickshire may be considered as commencing at St. Abb's Head, on the north-west part of the county, where it meets East-Lethian, and continues thence till it passes into Mid-Lethian on the north-west. That part of the range which belongs to Berwickshire, is in several places between 1000 and 1500 feet above the level of the adjacent sea. But the declivity which faces the lower part of the country is generally gradual, and intersected by vallies, through which the streams descend from the upper parts of the ridge. This declivity, therefore, affords much good pasturage, and some small patches of arable land; though the whole upper part of the range is uncommonly bleak and barren. As the unbroken nature of the mountains affords scarcely any shelter, both the climate and soil are more propitious to vegetation than the elevation alone would lead us to expect. The difference is striking between them and the hills round the Cheviot, on the opposite side of the Tweed. From the northern bank of this river, the country gradually rises to the upper districts; and though to an eye situated upon one of these elevations, and surveying it from above, the low country appears to be an extensive plain, inclining towards the south, and surrounded on the other sides by ranges of hills, on a closer inspection it presents a considerable inequality of surface. The whole of this low district has been estimated at 170 square miles, and most of it consists of a fertile soil, well inclosed and cultivated, sheltered by thriving plantations, and abounding with seats and pleasure grounds, and still more with excellent farm-houses. Few tracts, indeed, of equal extent in Great Britain, present a scene of more peaceful industry and rural prosperity than this. It is also watered by several streams, which descend from the upper parts of the country to the ocean, or mingle their waters with each other. The principal of these are the Tweed, the Whitewater, the Blackwater, the Leader, the Eden, and the Eye. The first only is of much importance, and that rather from the immense quantities of salmon it produces, than for the assistance it affords to internal navigation. It flows along the southern borders, and separates them first from Roxburghshire, and then from England, till it falls into the German Ocean a little below the town of Berwick, where it forms a good harbour. It has long been celebrated in the pastoral songs of Scotland.

Much of Berwickshire is destitute of wood, though plantations have lately been made in some of the most favourable places in the elevated tracts, which will ultimately lessen this defect. At least 100,000 acres of this upland district is converted into coarse sheep pastures, which support a few hardy mountain sheep; but the whole of it is destitute of any valuable mineral product. A little limestone has been found in some places, but for want of coal it cannot be much used. Shell and clay marl have also been met with in small quantities in the lower parts; and sandstone on the banks of the Tweed. A strong mineral spring near Dunse, was some time ago in high repute, but has now been nearly neglected for several years. The coast is almost entirely abrupt and rocky, and admits of only one or two ports by which such articles as are essential to

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the support of the population can be imported, or the produce of the county conveyed to distant parts. Yet, under all these disadvantages, Berwickshire is peculiarly an agricultural county, and to such perfection has this art been carried in the lower tracts, that it has frequently been held up as an example both to England and the other counties of Scotland. The value of this example is certainly heightened, when it is considered that there are few districts in Britain at all accessible to cultivation, which are more unfavourably situated; yet nearly the whole of Merse is cultivated upon the most improved system of a skilful combination of the management of arable land with that of live stock and pasturage. The leading feature of this husbandry in all the south-east part of Scotland, is the alternation of corn and green crops; and the Berwickshire farmers, by an invariable adoption of this practice, have rendered it better adapted to their soil and climate, by reserving their cultivated herbage for two or more years, by which means more than half the arable land of the district is always pastured by sheep and cattle. In all the lower parts of the county, the sheep are of the improved Leicestershire breed; and from the richness of the food thus provided for them, and the care with which they are managed, excellent specimens of that breed are very common. The cattle are chiefly of the short horned kind, which have been introduced from the north of England, and the advantages of which are so evident, that they are fast spreading over all the lower parts of the south-east of Scotland, notwithstanding the prejudice that was long entertained in favour of their native stock. The farms in the district of Merse are of all sizes from 40 to 1000 acres; a circumstance which has no doubt contributed more to the progress of agriculture than is generally supposed, by the opportunity it affords for the industrious, the ingenious, and the persevering husbandman to commence upon a scale commensurate with his capital, and to enlarge his operations as he can realize the means of prosecuting them with success. The greatest number of farms, however, are from 400 to 600 acres. All the farm-houses, out-buildings, and even cottages, that have been recently erected, strongly indicate the prosperity which has attended this branch of human industry, and are of the most substantial kind, uniting convenience with durability, and contributing greatly to the beauty of the landscape. The farms, as in most other parts of Scotland, are generally held on leases, and nineteen years is the most common period. In 1795, the whole rental of the county was £119,000; but as assessed to the property tax in 1811, it was £240,156; so that the value of property had more than doubled in the space of sixteen years.

Berwickshire is almost wholly an agricultural county, and scarcely any manufactures of importance are carried on, Paper being almost the only article that is exported. It has also Bleach-fields, Breweries, Corn-mills, and other small establishments for the supply of home consumption. The commerce is, consequently, restricted, both in its nature and extent, being necessarily confined to the export of raw produce, and the import of coals, lime, timber, iron, groceries, and other articles requisite for the supply of local wants. The corn and cattle exported are of considerable value; the first chiefly through the medium of Berwick; the latter are sent to Edinburgh, as well

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Agriculture

Sheep and
cattle.Size of
farms.

Rental.

Manufactures
and commerce

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Early in-
habitant,
as-
tiquities,
&c.

as to Morpeth and other English markets. Berwick is one of the five counties of Scotland, in which the Poor's rates were levied upon the rental of the lands and houses in the same manner as in England, but it never rose to more than a fifth or a sixth of the amount which it reached in most of the English counties.

This county is supposed to have been early inhabited by the ancient British tribe of *Otadini*, and several hill-forts are still visible, which are ascribed to their construction. It afterwards formed part of the Roman province of *Valentia*, and the vestiges of some Roman camps may still be perceived, though they have chiefly disappeared before the progress of cultivation and improvement. In the later periods of its history, it became the scene of many sanguinary conflicts between the Scots and English, and was long subject to all the incursive depredations of the border districts. One of the most prominent remains of antiquity is that called *Herrisdale*, which may be traced in an oblique direction through the greater part of the country, from a hill-fort in Harrodlands in Lauderdale, to the banks of the Whitadder, or Whitewater, near the Tweed, a distance of more than twenty miles. Its direction is straight, and it appears to have been originally thrown up as a protection against the sudden incursions of some of the barbarous tribes by which this district was liable to be plundered. The chief remains of antiquity are the monastery of Coldingham, and Dryburgh Abbey. One of the most remarkable artificial curiosities is Pease bridge, thrown over a deep glen in the north-east angle of the county, on the road from Berwick to Edinburgh. This glen has been celebrated in the history of Scotland, as one of the natural bulwarks of the county in that quarter; and the bridge consists of four arches, placed in a romantic situation, and rising 123 feet above the small stream that occupies the bottom of the glen.

More minute particulars respecting this county may be obtained from the *Statistical Account of Scotland*, the *Agricultural Reports of Berwickshire*, and *Chalmers's Caledonia*.

BERWICK UPON TWEED, a town and county in itself, on the north side of the river Tweed, within half a mile of its mouth. From its situation on the borders, Berwick has often been an object of dispute between the Scotch and English. After repeated alternations of masters, Henry II. received it from his prisoner William of Scotland, after his defeat at Alnwick, as a pledge for the execution of the rigorous treaty which had been exacted from him; and on the release of the captive monarch from confinement, its perpetual cession was secured. This was the first great ascendant obtained by England over Scotland. In the reign of Richard I. it was restored; and it was afterwards cruelly ravaged as a hostile town by his successor John. In 1192, the decree in favour of Balliol was pronounced by Edward I. in the great hall of the castle of Berwick; and in the following year, when war had broken out against the Prince whom they had thus raised to the throne, Berwick was taken by assault. Sir William Wallace soon after captured the town by surprise, but the castle held out until it was relieved. Within eight years, half the body of this hero, after his execution on Tower hill, was exposed on the bridge which had witnessed this victory. The Countess of Buchan, who had crowned Robert Bruce at Scone, was confined during seven years in the castle of Ber-

wick. Tradition relates that she was shut up in a wooden cage shaped like a crown. Berwick was the residence of Edward II. and his queen during the winter of 1310; and two years after Robert Bruce successfully attempted it by a night attack. In 1318, it was betrayed into his hands, and the English did not again recover it until after the battle of Halidon Hill in 1333. Edward III. paid frequent visits to Berwick, and held a tournament there in the Easter of 1341; but during his absence in France in 1353, the town once more was surprised and captured, and the castle again defended itself till it was relieved by the king in person. Twice again, before the reign of Henry IV. it fell into the possession of the Scots; and in Hotspur's rebellion it was garrisoned by retainers of the Northumberland family. The chroniclers affirm that the first cannon shot fired in England, was then directed against this fortress, and that its garrison, panic struck, immediately surrendered. This statement of Speed and Walsingham, who add that the shot was of large size, and demolished great part of one tower, was confirmed in 1811, by the discovery of an iron ball, weighing ninety-six pounds, in the ruins of a part of the wall, closely flanked by a tower. The Scots held it from 1459 to 1462, when the English finally won, and since have preserved it. By a treaty between Edward VI. and Mary Queen of Scotland, it was declared a free town, independent on either kingdom. James I. on his accession to the English throne, confirmed and enhanced its privileges.

Berwick is surrounded by walls, still mounted with cannon, though its fortifications are decaying. Of the castle little remains. A stone bridge of fifteen arches, finished in the time of Charles I. connects it with the southern shore of the Tweed. The religion established in it is that of the church of England, and the vicarage is in the patronage of the Dean and Chapter of Durham. The Borough sends two members to Parliament. Corn, pork, and eggs are exported from it; and the London market is supplied by its salmon fishery, which employs 70 boats and 300 men. The fish is packed in ice, and thus sent up fresh. The distance from London is 336 miles N. W.: from Edinburgh, 54 S. E. Population, in 1821, 8723.

BERWICK, NORTH, a town and parish of Scotland, in the county of Haddington, situated on the south shore of the Frith of Forth. It was made a royal burgh by James VI. and joins with Haddington, Dunbar, Lander and Jedburgh, in returning one member to Parliament. The harbour is small, and the chief trade is exportation of grain produced in the surrounding district. A little south of the town is the conical mountain called North Berwick Law, and nearly two miles east are the remains of Tantallon castle, which formerly belonged to the family of Douglas. The population of the parish in 1821, was 1624, about half of which resides in the town, and the rest in the country part of the parish. North Berwick is 52 miles east of Edinburgh.

BERWICK, a post town of the United States of North America, on the east bank of the Salmon-fall river, in the district of Maine. It is a pleasant town with an Academy, and some trade. There is a landing place at the falls of the river, and also a considerable village, which was considered as part of Berwick till 1814, when they were separated. The joint population of both is stated at nearly 4500.

BER-
WICK.

BERYL. BERYL, Lat. *beryllus*; Gr. *βήρυλλος*, which, says Vossius, we have received from the East.

And I amused a long while
Upon this wall of beryl
That shone lighter than a glass
And made well more than it was.
Chaucer. *The House of Fame*, book iii. fol. 281. c. l.

The trojan we'll stick here and there,
And sea-green colour'd beryl,
And turkies, which who haps to bear
Is often kept from peril.
Dryden. *Nymphal. ix.*

What rings of eastern price his fingers hold!
Gold decks the fingers, beryl decks the gold!
Paradise. *Gift of Poetry. Solomon.*

BERYL, one of the precious gems, included in *Mineralogy*, under the species *Emerald*; and distinguishable from the emerald principally by its colour.

The colours of the Beryl are pale greyish green, and blue, and yellow, of various shades; it has also been found rose red, and it sometimes occurs perfectly limpid and colourless.

The pale green variety is better known by the name of aqua-marine, derived from the resemblance of its colour to that of sea water.

Large and fine specimens of the aqua-marine are brought from Brazil; but the finest Beryls are found in Siberia and at Danaria, on the Chinese frontier.

"A BERYL," observes the sagacious Aubrey, in his *Miscellanies*, "is a kind of crystal that hath a weak tincture of red." In this magicians see visions. "There are certain formulae of prayer to be used before they make the inspection, which they term a Call. In a manuscript of Dr. Erasmus of Lambeth, (which Mr. Elias Ashmole had,) is a discourse of this and the prayer; also there is a Call which Dr. Napier did use. James Harrington (author of *Oceano*), told me that the Earl of Deoigh, then ambassador at Venice, did tell him, that one did shew him three several times in a glass, things past and to come. When Sir Marmaduke Langdale was in Italy, he went to one of these Magi, who did shew him a glass where he saw himself kneeling before a crucifix. He was then a Protestant; afterwards he became a Roman Catholic. He told Mr. Thomas Henshaw, R.S.S. this himself."

Aubrey gives also a drawing of a consecrated Beryl, "now in the possession of Sir Edward Harley, knight of the Bath, which he keeps in his closet at Brampton-Bryan in Herefordshire, amongst his caskets, which I saw there. It came first from Norfolk; a minister had it there, and a Call was to be used with it. Afterwards a miller had it, and both did work great cures with it (if curable,) and so the Beryl they did see either the receipt in writing, or else the herb. To this minister the spirits or angels would appear openly, and because the miller (who was his familiar friend) one day happened to see them, he gave him the aforesaid Beryl and Call. By these angels the minister was forewarned of his death. This account I had from Mr. Ashmole. Afterwards the Beryl came into somebody's hand in London, who did tell strange things by it; inasmuch that at last he was questioned for it, and it was taken away by authority (it was about 1645.) This Beryl is a perfect sphere, the diameter of it I guess to be something more than an inch; it is set in a ring, or circle of silver, resembling the meridian of a globe:

the stem of it is about ten inches high, all gilt. At the four quarters of it are the names of four angels, viz. Uriel, Raphael, Michael, Gabriel. On the top is a cross-patee. Sam Boissardus hath writ a book *De Divisione per Crystallum*. A clothier's wife of Pembroke in Herefordshire, desired Dr. Sherborne, (one of the canons of the church of Hereford and rector of Pembroke,) to look over her husband's writings after his decease: among other things he found a Call for a crystal. The clothier had his clothes often stolen from the racks, and at last obtained this trick to discover the thieves. So when he lost his clothes, he went out about midnight with his crystal and Call, and a little boy, or little maid with him, (for they say it must be a pure virgin,) to look in this crystal to see the likeness of the person that committed the theft. The doctor did burn the Call 1671."

BES or BESSAS, a Roman weight of eight ounces, or two-thirds of the *as*, or pound; also a land measure, containing two-thirds of the *jagerum*, or acre; also a measure of capacity, containing two-thirds of the *sextarius*, or pint.

BESAINTE, be and saint. Lat. *sacrus*; Fr. *saint*; Sp. and It. *santo*, sacred, holy.

To besaint, as in the instances below, is used contemptuously of the Catholic custom of conferring the title of "Saint."

And as absurd, no doubt, is many men's canonizing, securing and besainting themselves in this life, upon every slight premature persuasion that they are in Christ.

Hammond's Works, vol. iv. *Sermon viii.*

And so as Tertullian objects to the heathens, expatiating with them why they did not desire Theophrastus and Cato, as well as Jure and Hercules, Quot potiores viros apud infelices reliquias? they leave many an honest man in hell, than some of those whom their favour or faction hath besainted. Id. vol. iv. *Sermon ix.*

BESANCON, a large, ancient, and well built city of France, the capital of French Comté. It is divided into two parts by the river Doubs, the latter of which is usually called the city, the less the Battons, which are connected by a handsome bridge thrown across the river. Both nature and art have conspired to render Besancon a strong place. It was fortified by Louis XIV. and it is also protected by a citadel standing upon a steep rock, as well as by a wall flanked with towers. It is entered by six gates, and contains several fine streets, and excellent houses built of free-stone, and covered with slates, supplied by the mountains, among which it is embosomed. The Metropolitan Church, the Governor's Palace, the Foundling Hospital, and the Town-house, are the modern buildings which chiefly attract the attention of the stranger. Besancon, however, is not only a handsome modern town, but is memorable from its antiquity, and interesting from its associations. As early as the invasion of Gaul by the Romans, it was considered as an important place, and successively received the names of *Civitas Sequanorum*, *Chrysopolis*, and *Viontium*. From the last, the present appellation appears to have been derived. Cesar took it from the Sequani, and made it a depot for arms. It suffered greatly in the wars which subverted the Roman Empire, and it was nearly destroyed, first by the Germans, and afterwards by the Huns; but it was rebuilt in the time of the Burgundians, and made an imperial city. Besancon still exhibits several vestiges of those early times. The

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BESCH-
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remains of Roman architecture are yet visible near the church of Notre Dame, in the relics of the triumphal arch, raised by the Emperor Aurelian, in the year 274. It passed to the Spaniards by the peace of Westphalia, but was taken by the French in 1674, and confirmed to that power by the peace of Nimeguen. Before the revolution, it was the seat of a Governor-general, a Parliament, an Intendant, an Archbishop, and several provincial officers. The Metropolitan was a Prince of the Roman Empire, until the peace of Ryswick subjected him to the authority of France. His diocese now extends over the departments of Doubs, the Upper Saône, and the Jura, and his suffragans are the bishops of Autun, Metz, Strasbourg, Nancy, and Dijon. As the capital of the department of Doubs, Besançon is the seat of a Prefect, and other functionaries, as well as the station of a royal tribunal, both of law and commerce. It is also the headquarters of the sixth military division, and has a celebrated school of artillery, and a manufacture of arms. The University was dissolved at the revolution, but has since been re-established as a Lyceum and College. It has also Academies of Sciences and Painting, with a Literary and Military Institution, and a good Library, containing some valuable manuscripts. Clocks and watches are extensively made at Besançon, besides which, here are manufactures of woollen, linen, leather, stockings, and hats. A good trade is likewise carried on in corn, wine, iron, and a few other articles. The environs of the town are highly picturesque, and at a short distance there are hot baths, which are much frequented. A late French work states the population at 28,172 individuals. Besançon is 235 miles south-east of Paris, in latitude 47° 14' N., and longitude 6° 3' E.

BESANT, BEZANT, BIZANT, or BYZANT, a golden coin struck at Constantinople during the existence of the Western Empire, and current for many ages throughout Europe. Dr. Henry (iv. 275.) estimates its value at nine shillings and fourpence halfpenny of our present money. But it probably varied. The gold offered at the altar by the King of England on the festivals of the Epiphany and the Purification, is called BESANT.

BEANT, in *Heralry*, is the blazoning of this coin, introduced into coat armour during the Holy wars.

BESCORN, be and *acorn*. Fr. *escorne*; It. *acorno*, *achenire*, which Menage thinks are from the Latin *spernere*. See TO SCORN.

Then was he *bescorned*, that only should have been honoured in all things and of all things.

Chaucer. The Persones Tale, v. li. p. 299.

BESCATTER, be and scatter. A. S. "*Ascudian*, to separate, to sever or put apart, to shed or spread abroad, to disperse or scatter." Somner.

Her goodly locks adorne her backe did flowe
Vnto her waste, with flowers *bescattered*,
The which ambrosiall odours forth did throwe
To all about, and all her shoulders spread
As a new spring.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book iv. can. 11.

BESCHITAN, a mountain of Asia, forming the most northern part of the Caucasian chain. It is sometimes called the Five Mountains, and is chiefly covered with wood towards the base, which becomes more scanty in ascending the acclivity, till it totally

disappears. The summit is only a few yards in diameter, which gives the whole some resemblance to a pyramid. This top was formerly crowned with a pyramidal structure of hewn stone, which was demolished by lightning about the commencement of the present century. On the approach of rain, this mountain is said to be completely enveloped in fog, and when the clouds are gradually precipitated, the weather becomes serene. A hot spring issues from the side of Beschtan, with a temperature of 156°, which is supposed to be an efficacious remedy in many diseases. This part of the Caucasian range appears to have been mentioned by Ptolemy, under the appellation of *Hippie*, or Horse Mountains, and very fine horses are still bred there by a tribe of Caucasians. These are included in the Russian government of Caucasus, having submitted to the Czar Ivan Wasilievitch, in 1555. It will, however, readily be conceived, that this is rather a nominal than a real subjection, an observation which indeed applies to the whole of the Caucasian tribes. The mountain is about thirty miles from Georgievsk, the capital of the Russian government; and near it, not far from its northern base, is the village of Kars, where the missionaries belonging to the Scottish Missionary Society, have for some years laboured in disseminating the truth among the Pagans and Mohammedans of these regions.

BESCRATCH, be and scratch. Ger. *kratzen*; Dutch, *kratten*, or *kratsen*; Fr. *grater*; It. *grattare*. In some editions of Chaucer, *bescrachis*: in others only *scrachis* Romance of the Rose.

Of whom he asked, whence he lately came,
And whither now he travelled so fast,
For, sore he was, and running through that same
Thick forest, was *bescratched*, and both his feet nigh lame.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book iii. can. 5.

BESCRAWL, be and scrawl. Skinner thinks, is contracted from *scrabble*: from the Dutch *krabbelen*, *multe literas pingere*: *incipit scribere*. To make bad letters, to write carelessly, foolishly. Perhaps from the French *escriuaille*, scribbled.

So far is it from the ken of these wretched projectors of ours,
that *bescrawl* their pamphlets every day with new forms of government for our church.

Milton. Reason of Church Government, fol. 41. v. l.

BESCREEN, be and screen. Fr. *ecran*. Sørenius remarks the affinity of the Swed. *skur*, which three thinks may be from the Ger. *schauren*, to cover, to protect.

To cover, hide, conceal.

Jeh. What man art thou, that thus *bescree*n'st in night,
So shroud'st on my counsell?

Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet, fol. 59.

BESCRIBBLE, be and scribble. Lat. *scribillare*; Fr. *escripaille*. "Scribbled, scurvy penned, bauldly written." Cotgrave.

And that power which Christ never took from the master of the family, but rectified only to a right and wary use at home; that power the undiscerning exarist hath improperly usurped in his court-jest, and *bescriddled* with a thousand trifling imperfections, which yet have fill'd the life of man with serious trouble and calamity. *Milton. Doctrine, &c. of Divorce, v. l. fol. 138.*

BESCUMBER, be and scumber. Scotch, *scomer*. The Dutch *schuymer*, from *schuyden*, *depurpose*, is used as we use the noun, *scum*: ac. the scum of the

BESCH-
TAN
—
BESCH-
DER

BESUM. earth; those who do all mean, base, dirty acts or offices. And from this—the verb *skumer*, or *scumer*, may have been formed. To do any dirty act; to dirty; to scatter dirt or filth.

BESECH.

Our name is in mind for th' untrussing a poet;
I slip by his name; for most men doe know it:
A criticke, that all the world beseechers
With satyricall humour, and lyrical numbers.
Ben Jonson. Poetaster, fol. 340.

Whose kirts was't, you know'd too? Mistress Bands?
And Wane's stockings? Who? Did Blocks beseecher
Statutes while subtle, w'th the parchment lace there?
Id. The Staple of News, fol. 72.

BESCUTCHEON, be and scutcheon. It, scuccione, escuccione; Fr. *cascan*, from the Lat. *scutsum*, from the Gr. *Skuteros*, a hide, or skin, i. e. the material of which shields were first made.

The last grave top of the last age,
In a superb feather'd hearse,
Bescutcheon'd and besetg'd with veils.

Churchill. The Ghost, book iv.

BESE'E, } Be and see. Goth. *saihan*; A. S. *besan*. } *seon*, *bescon*; Dutch, *zien*; Ger. *sehen*.
To see, to look at. The past participle, *beseye* or *besen*, seems to have been used as the Latin, *specatus*, observed, examined, chosen.

& muche of is owe folc bigan vor to be.
Sire, quoth the knigt, thus most the bi se.
R. Gloucester, p. 526.

A good suster yet I preie,
Tell me why ye be so beseye,
And with these haltes thus begone.

Gower. Conf. Am. book iv. fol. 71.

And seide, I have synned blamynge rightful blood: and thei
siden what to us, besee thee.

Wiclif. Matthew, chap. 27.

But Arrous was so wo besie
With thoughtes, which vpon him runne,
That he all by the brode sonne
To bedde goth, not for to rest.

But for to thinke vpon the beate.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 171.

On the 3d day of May she made her entry into Lode riding on
a white palfrey (which ye Quene of England had sent for her)
behynde Syr Thomas Partriche knight, & w'th great company of lordes
& ladyes.

Hall. King Henry VIII. fol. 108.

All ladies and damoyselles were frownslye borne according
to their degrees, except Alys, Countesse of Salisbury, for she went
as simply as she myght, to the intent that the Kyng shoulde not
seeke his regards on her.

Freibart. Cronycle, v. l. C. 89.

BESE'ECH, v. } Goth. *soecjan*; A. S. *secan*, *gese-*
can; Dutch, *soeken*; Ger. *suchen*;
BESE'CHEN, n. } Swed. *sika*. To seek.
BESE'CHER, } To seek or search after,
BESE'KE. } inquire, to require, to ask, to
petition for, to beg, to solicit.

her vor ych speche þe, here half my load myd me,
An ych, as þy partnyer, half Engeland myd þe.
R. Gloucester, p. 349.

When kyng R. herde þe Cristen had mil't þyn,
Fulre soth be him assurde, wepand with his iwe,
"To Criste for we herke, þat he gye me þat grace,
þe Cristendom to eke, þe Saracen to chace."
R. Brunne, p. 176.

For while fortune is þy frend, freere wolle þe lorje
And fastne þe in here fraterne, þat þe þy seche
To here poor provincial.
Piers Plouman. Pisan, p. 291.

Edmunds sent his messengers, of þes þan besoke,
Inqurir sent bode agyn, þat þen wille he noch.
R. Brunne, p. 22.

And þat wille he hem no wo. þat wrought hym al þat tenne
Bote mykylliche a' mouthle. mercy he þe myghte
To have pyle on þat puple. þat paynede hym to dyffe.
Piers Plouman. Pisan, p. 21.

Then art so wise, it needeth thise nought teche,
Go, save our lives, and that I thee besche.
Chaucer. The Millers Tale, v. 3599.

She sayde; lord, to whom fortune hath yeven,
Victorie, and as a conquerour to liuen,
Nought greveth as your plarie and your honour:
But we besche you of mercie and socour
Have mercie on our we and our distresse.
Id. The Knight's Tale, p. 917.

But tell me, if I wist what she were
For whom that she al monumente willeth
Durst thou that I told it in her ere
Thy wo, with thou darst not thyselfe for feere
And her besought, on the to han some rooth.
Id. Troilus, book i. fol. 156.

I wote not fadre what ye meane.
But this I woids you beseeche,
That ye me by some wey teche
What is to ben an hypocrite.
Gower. Conf. Am. book i. fol. 11.

How thei for every member haddan
A souly god, to whom thei spraddan
Her armes, and of helpe besoughten.
Id. B. book v. fol. 92.

Therefore bretheren I beseech þe bi the mercie of God, that
the ghyue gloure bodie a lyving sacrifice hooli playnlyng to God
and gloure seruyng reasonable.

Wiclif. Romayne, chap. xii.

I beseech you therefore bretheren, by the mercifullnes of God,
that ye make your bodys a quynke sacrifice, holy and acceptable
vnto God.

Bible, 1551.

Bi al preier and beseyching preie ghe al tyne in agyrt.

Wiclif. Eptocle, chap. vi.

Then made I my prayre to the God of heuyn, & sayd vnto the
kyng; yf it please the kyng, and yf thy seruante be fauored in thy
syghte, I beseech the wende me into Jude vnto the cytie of my
fathers buriall, that I may buyd it.

Bible, 1551. Nehemiah, cap. ii.

He knoweth well yought, what is profitable for you although
you make nothing: But yet he fourth to be called vpon with
such manner of intercession, he heuote to be entreated, and (as
it wer) enforced, with goodly beseechings.

Udall. Philippians, cap. iv. fol. 10.

The very sonne of God a priest for euermore, ready at all times
and mete to make intercession for vs for that neither death can
take hym away, neither any iofortune let hym, to be a conueniente
and perite beseecher for vs.

Id. Hebrews, cap. vii.

Denothence' and Tully's fame and speech,
Each one that studies rieth'rich, will beseech
At Pallus' hands.

Beumont. Journal, Sat. x.

Ma. Good madam, hear the suit that Edith urges,
With such exclamation beseecher; not remain
So strictly bound to sorrow for your son.

Beumont and Fletcher. The Bloody Brother, act iv. sc. 2.

They who were within besieged, seeing no other hope of suc-
cour, sent their embassadors to the council, beseeching his helpe,
and making pittifull moone, how they with their wives and children
were shut up within the fortresse, and looked every hour for death,
either by famine or the sword.

Holland. Livia, fol. 991.

Let me now beseech you in the name of the Lord Jesus Christ,
whose servants ye are now to be, that from this day forward ye
look vpon him as your great master; and lay out yourselves wholly
in the service he calls you to.

Beveridge. Sermon iii.

BESEECH.

BESEECH.
—
BESEEM.

At this she shriek'd aloud; the mournful train
Echo'd her grief, and groveling on the plain,
With groans, and hands upstaid, to move his mind,
Besought his pity to their helpless kind.
Dryden. Fainston and Arcite.

Whereas this unwonted patience? this weak doubt?
Thou tame beseeching of rejected peace?
This meek forbearance? this unactive fear,
To generous Britons never known before?

Thomson. Britannia.

Observe now I beseech you, the implacable spirit of this fellow,
who was not ashamed thus to confess himself capable of insulting
the unfortunate. *Melmoth. Piny's Letters, book i. let. v.*

Thou art the Prince of Peace, breathe upon us brotherly love
Thou art the God, have pity on thy humble beseechers.

The Whole Duty of Man. Private Devotions.

"The servant therefore fell down and worshipped him," pro-
strated himself at his master's feet, and in the most moving terms
besought him, saying, "have patience with me, and I will pay thee
all."
Parsons. Lecture xli.

BESE'EM, } Be and seem. Ger. *scheinen*, *deceere*,
BESE'EMINO, R. } see Ger. *sehen*; Dutch, *zien*, to
BESE'EMLY. } see. Skinner

To look, to appear; sc. like itself, as it ought to
appear; i. e. apt, fit, becoming, convenient, suitable,
proper.

So faire with his response, so faithfull he besee'd
Boje cries & bosoms, his words all yet quornd.

R. Brome, p. 307.

& if he wills forgiu battaile, he to wills I stand,
& battaile betwene vs wills not be comend.

Id. p. 51.

A bachelor ojer a housewife, best hym by sweete
And for he do) put herer) hym, calld his here a frere.

Perry Plowman, p. 160.

That other was nothing to see
But vnderneath such a lapp
He had so for hym selfe shape,
That lower as ever it hym seemed,
The miter, with the dismeade
He had through supplication.

Gower. Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 44.

Bismark it a woman, not hidid on the head to prie to God?
Wiclif. Corynth. ch. ii.

Of right he present must pain & eke torment
The pale death beseechd not to be short.

Chaucer. Romance of Love, fol. 923.

So said, her richest smock, which to her wrist
For a beseeching bracket she had ty'd,
(A special wren it was as ever kin'd)
The fussy lips of Curthes) she apply'd
To the king's heart. *Cresson. Steps to the Temple.*

A worthy matter, sayth one, Sir Thomas Elyot is become a
phision, and wryeth in phisik, which beseechd not a knyght, he
might have been much better occupied.

Sir Thomas Elyot. Chastel of Heulth. The Presume.

The dales and lower grounds have some little banks lying to the
same, and rivers withall, covering unto the woods, yea and places
more meet and beseeching for men to inhabit.

Holland. Livres, fol. 414.

— There, where the field
Was deepest stain'd with gore, on Hochstet's plain,
The theatre of thy glory, once was rais'd
A woe-worn trophy, by the imperial hand;
Extorted gratitude! which now the rage
Of native impet, burning ill
A regal breast, has level'd to the ground.

Lyttleton. Bismark.

See to their owns they bye with merry glie,
And in beseeching order sinner there.

Schneidman. Schneidman.

She gave him but a tear: his manly form,
His virtues, ev'n the courage that preserv'd
Her life, beseech'd no sentiment to wake
Warmer than gratitude.

Mason. The English Garden, book xiv.

BESET, be and set. Goth. *setzen*; A. S. *settan*;
Dutch, *setten*, *besetten*; Ger. *setzen*, *besetzen*; Sw.
setta, *besätta*.

To put, to place, to station, to fix; to put in order,
to arrange; to place or station in order, on all sides;
to surround, and thus to stop, or block up, to block-
ade, to besiege.

For Ioh an myd my son on ech half by set,
And gef ich hem my son ever come how you be bet.

R. Gloucester, p. 113.

He bysette hem vante ynon, so put atte laste Jere
he bysoopen and ojer prece, just of laude were.

Id. p. 177.

Bere hit to be bishop, and bidde hym of his grace
To by setten hit hym selfe, as best he for by soule.

Perry Plowman, p. 105.

Therefore the love of every thing that is not best in God, ne
does principally for Goddes sake, although that a man love it lesse
than God, yet is it venial sine.

Chaucer. The Parson's Tale, v. li. p. 302.

He was glad, and said, "Friend so decre
Now fare a right, for Jove's name in heaven,
Love hath bested this will, be of good cheer."

Id. Troilus, book i. fol. 935.

Tho was the great mercuriall on knode,
That he, which was so wise a knight,
His life upon so rough a wight
Besette wode in iopardie:
And many it holden for folle.

Gower. Conf. Am. book i.

Fyrt the features of her face,
In which nature had all grace
Of womanlike beaute better,
So that it might not be bette. *Id. B. book vii.*

For the roots of alle vyces is couetise which summes courtynge
ariden for the feith and biertheden hem with manie newen.

Wiclif. Tyng. ch. vi.

The Greeks towards the palace rushed fast,
And covered with engines the gates last.

Surrey. Ecce, book ii.

The rest, that saw wish how the ill success
Of single fight, durst not like fortune try;
But round beset her with their numerous pism:
Before, beside, behind, they on her fly.

F. Fletcher. The Purple Island, c. ii.

And if the beating of one house to robbe it, he lustily deemed
worthy death, what shall we thinke of them that besiege whole
cities for desire of spoile?

Sir John Church. The Heart of Scotland.

And kill him [L. Sticlen] they did, but to their own cost: for
while he was in his own defence, some of those that laid for
his mischance, died for it, and lay along about him for compa-
ny: for being a right stout and strong man of his hands, he stood it
courageously; and notwithstanding he was beset round about, he
defended himself very manfully.

Holland. Livres, fol. 116.

— The hare
Though timorous of heart, and hard sent
By death in various forms, dark moves, and dogs,
And mere unquitting men, the garden muck,
Urg'd on by kearless want.

Thomson. Winter.

The one was Aurora with fingers of roes, and her feet dewy,
attir'd in grey: the other was Vesper in a robe of azure best
with drops of gold.

Spectator, No. 425.

No man lives so long, who lives to die with spirit, and suffer
with resignation, what Providence pleases to command or inflict;
but indeed they are sharp incommodities which heart old age.

Burke. A Letter to a Noble Lord.

BESEEM.
—
BESET.

BESEW. BESEW, be and sew. Goth. *siajan*; A. S. *siajan*; Swe. *sy*; Lat. *suo*. "Nan man ne siewath (Goth. *siajath*) siewe scyp to eadum reafe." No man sewith a patch of new cloth to so old cloth. Wiclif, *Mark* ii. 21.

And when he sewe, and redde fonde
This cotte made, well enghed,
The dead bodie was sewed
In cloth of golde, and leue therein.
Gower. *Conf. Am.* book viii. fol. 180.

BESHIADE, be and shade. Goth. *skaiden*; A. S. *scaden*. To distinguish, disjoin, divide or sever, to shrede. Somoer. Ger. *schieden*; Dutch, *schieden*; Swe. *skygga*. A shade, is (something, any thing,) secluded, separated, retired; that by which we are separated from weather, sun, &c.

For he is with the grounde beshaded,
So that the moone in somerke faled,
And maie not fully shine cleere.
Gower. *Conf. Am.* book vi.

BESHINE, be and shine. Goth. *schinan*; A. S. *scinan*; Ger. *schinen*; Dutch, *schinen*; Swa. *skyna*. To give light or brightness to, to enlighten.

He had a wyf,
That he lord as hertlich as his own lyf,
[She] was as fair a creature as sun might beshine.
History of Beryn. *Urry's*, p. 683.

When the sun is set, it beshineth not the world, I will see that then, and not before, the flesh will cease to pain us.

Golden Buds, p. 3.

BESHREW, be and shrew. A. S. *syrcwan*, *syrcwan*, *syrcwan*, to vex, to molest, to cause mischief to. Beshrew thee! *Besrew*, the imperative of *beshrewian*, i. e. be thou, *syrc*, *syrc*, i. e. vexed, or oustest thou be vexed, molested, mischieved, aggrieved in some manner. Tooke ii. 310.

Now eltes free, I wol beshewe thy face,
(Quod this Sompnour) and I beshewe me,
But if I telle tales two or three
Of ferra, or I come to Sidreborne,
That I shal make this herte for to morne:
For wel I wot thy patience is rom.

Chaucer. *The Wif of Bathes Prologue*, v. 6416.

That false traitourous untrewe
Was like that slowe horse of bewe,
That in the Apocalips is shewed,
That signifieth to folke bekwoured,
That been all full of treacherie,
And pale, through hypocresie.

Id. *The Boonour of the Rose*, fol. 158.

So that the pricke bracherie,
Hid under the false hypocresie
Was then all openly shewed,
That many a man than hath bekwoured.

Gower. *Conf. Am.* book i. fol. 14.

For then were I all bekwoured,
And worthy to be put abacke,
With all the sorrowe vpon my backe,
That any man ordaine couthe.

Id. *Id.* book iii. fol. 50.

Upon this birde he took his cireasie
That there he was none white tofore,
Euen afterwarde eyle blake therefore
He was transformed, as it sheweth.
And many a man yet him bekwoured.

Id. *Id.* book iii. fol. 52.

Moreover we say, God helpe you, I have done my charitie for this day, do we not take it for almes? And the man is ever chiding and out of charitie, and I beshrew him seking my charitie, that we take it for patience.

Tyndall's *Workes*, fol. 253.

I have not much to give, the paine are easy,—
Moor's will reward your piety, and thank it.
When I am dead; for sure I must not live
I hope I cannot.

Cat. Now, beshewe thy sadness,
Then turn't not to much woman.
Ford. *The Broken Heart*, act iii. sc. 3.

Descend; so help me Jove as you shall find
That Reynard comes of no dissembling kind.
"Nay," quoth the cock, "but I beshrew as both,
If I believe a wain upon his oath."

Dryden. *The Cock and the Fox*.

Beshewe the number pencil I said I, vauntingly,—for I envy not its power, which paints the evil of life with so hard and deceitly a colouring.
Stearns. *Sentimental Journey*.

BESHUT, be and shut. A. S. *sektan*, *sektan*; (Dutch, *schieten*; Ger. *schatten*.) To throw, to cast forth. To shot or shet the door, means to throw or cast the door to. There he beshut; i. e. there he shut up; with the doors, &c. shut, or throw, or cast to. See Tooke, ii. 130 and 141.

But who was glad now, who as trow ye?
But Troulen, that stode and might it as
Throughout a litel window in a stow
Ther he beshet, sixh midnight was in new
Unwist of every wight, but of Pandore.

Chaucer. *Troilus*, book iii. fol. 170.

BESIDE, { be and side. A. S. *side*; Dutch, *side*; Bes'ides. { Ger. *seit*; Swe. *side*.

By the side; distinguished from behind and before; and thus, not directly opposite or contrary to, but declining, beoding, deviating from, to the right hand or the left, from the straight forward course.—Placed or added to the side, and thus—in addition to.—Put or placed to the side, out of the direct straight forward course; out of the right line. "Talketh like a man besides himself," ac. out of the right course of himself, of his mind; out of his mind.

Fylfene þousant hore y wyre þer were ægeyn hym, & mo,
Of þe lond of France, and of oþer londes is gite.

B. Gloucester, p. 92.

And mette hem after mydnight, þe frete of Seyn Jon,
And a gret batayle surtyte bygode þe town of Swerbyn.

Id. p. 302.

Of werkes þat ich wel dade, witnesse ich take
And eygen to such. þat eytten me by syde.

Piers Plouman, *Vision*, p. 89.

These beise also nomme (as men sake)
That folowen Simon at helis,
Whose curt goth vpon whelke
Of conieite and worldis pride,
And holy church goth beside.

Gower. *Conf. Am.* Pro.

Of Norfolk was this reue, of which I tell
Beside a town, now clypen Baldewell.
Tucked he was, as is a frewe shoute,
And ever he rode the hinderest of the route.

Chaucer. *Prologue*, v. 621.

In that day Jherus gladdeth out of the house and saith biddis the
see.
Wiclif. *Matthew*, ch. xiii.

The same day went Jesus out of the house and into by the sea
side.
Bible, 1551

But this Varro, even before he stood for the consulship, and all the while he was a sallow therefore, and now likewise, that he is consul, before that he seeth campe or encum in field, is horseman, and talketh like a man besides himself.

Holland. *Lucius*, fol. 458.

BE-
SHREW
—
BESIDE

BESIDE. We might not to suffer any of those many days (troubled by his goodness) to flow beside us, void of the signal expressions of our grateful thankfulness to him. *Harvey. Sermon xiv. v. 1.*

— BE-SILVER. That man that does not know those things which are of use and necessity for him to know is but an ignorant man, whatever he may know beside. *Villemet. Sermon 1.*

There, and a thousand things beside,
Did we commit a poet's pride,
Some gay, some serious, might be said,
But ten to one they'd not be read.

Churchill. The Ghost, book iii.

Where full in view Augusta's spires are seen
With flow'ry lawns, and waving woods between,
As humble habitation rose, beside
Where Thames meandering rolls his ample tide.

Falconer. Shipwreck, can. 1.

Our example may induce many others to exert a similar generosity; and beside this there are persons in certain situations who are expected to be charitable, and who should give proofs to the world that they are so. *Porteus. Lecture vii.*

BESIEGE, v. *Be and siege.* Fr. *sieger, assieger*; It. *assediare*; Sp. *sitior*. To sit down; as before a town, a fortress, or any thing we wish to take, to capture.

To Beset; to set, place, or station, as an armed force before, around; to surround with an armed force.

He out without of France his siege-born son,
And he his men so fast, just say to gronde him brought.

R. Gloucester, p. 15.

How that she was besieged, and slain,
Let him unto my master Petrarch go,
That wrackly youth of this, I undertake.

Chaucer. The Manes Tale, v. 14330.

Where he took a prey of inestimable riches and cattle, which might have sufficed him for the *besiege* of Sagitta, whereof he went to impart liberally to the king, and his company.

Hackluyt. Voy. de Atchard, li. 15.

The Frenchmen, their approaches that easy,
By countermine do meet with them below;
And as opposed in the works they lie,
Up the besieged the besiegers blow.

Drexler. Battle of Agincourt.

They within had broken through the east wall, and made a plain passage by an iron gate to the sea, which greatly relieved the besieged, and abated the besiegers; for then they saw that they could not stop them of victuals.

Knox. History of Reformation, fol. 73.

Each person setting before their eyes *besiegement*, hunger, and the arrogant enemy having them in his bad to work by pleasure upon the.

Goldring. Justice, fol. 31.

Those of the Castle I bridled with as hard *besieging*, and forced the perjured earle to exile, neither yet permitted I him in all this life to returne to that which he hadde lost.

Stowe. William the Conqueror, Ann. 1087.

But there is one gentleman who *besieges* me as close as the French did Bouchain. His gravity makes him work as Gout, and his regular approaches denote a good engineer.

Spectator, No. 534.

The moment a oodlesome returns from his travels, a Cælian arrives from Jamaica, or a dowager from her country seat, I strike for a subscription. I first *besiege* their hearts with flattery, and then pour in my proposals at the breach.

Goldsmith. The Vicar of Wakefield, chap. 28.

BESILVER, be and silver. Goth. *silabur*; A. S. *seolfer, seolfor, silfer*; Dutch, *silber*; Ger. *silber*; Swe. *silfver*. Of unknown etymology.

Nat lovely Ida might with this compare,
Though many streams his banks *besilvered*,
Though Xanthus with his golden sands be bare.

G. Fletcher. Christ's Triumph on Earth.

BESIT, be and sit. "Me ill besits," "it sits ill upon me," does not become me.

Me ill besits that in dew-drooping arms,
And honours suit my vowed days doe speed,
Veto thy bounteous bytes, and pleasing charmes,
With which weakst men thou wilt, to attend.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book ii. c. vii.

BESLAVE, be and slave. Ger. *schlæ*; Dutch, *slaf*; Swe. *slaf*; Fr. *esclave*; It. *schiaro*; Sp. *esclavo*; Low Lat. *scilavus*. "I am of opinion," says Vossius, "that among the Germans those originally received this name, whom of the brave nation of the Slavi they had reduced to servitude, and that the signification was thence extended to the captives, or servants of any other nation." *De Fitiis, l. ii. c. 17.* The word is written with the *c, slave*, in our old writers.

To subject, or as we now say, enslave himself—to a bewitching beauty.

He that hath once fixed his heart upon the face of an harlot, and hath bestowed himself in a bewitching beauty, casts off at once, all fear of God, respect to laws, shame of the world, regard of his estate, care of wife, children, friends, reputation, patrimony, body, soul.

Hall. Cont. John Baptist beheaded.

BESLAVEN, be and slave or slubber. Dutch, *slabberen*. Perhaps from the Latin *salvere*.

For 40 shillings; a fit reward for one of your rascally poets, that *beslaven* all the paper he comes by, and furnishes the chandler with wast papers to wrap candles in.

The Return from Peruana, act i. sc. 3.

BESLERIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Didynamia*, order *Angiospermia*. Generic character: calyx five-partite; berry subglobose, many-seeded.

This genus contains several species, natives chiefly of Guiana and the West Indies. Aublet. *Histoire des Plantes de la Guiane Française.*

BESLIME, be and slime. A. S. *slim*; Dutch, *slim*; Ger. *schleim*; all of which, in Skinner's opinion, are from the Lat. *limus*; in that of Junius from the Gr. *λίμυς, palus, stagnum*.

You would not argue him to arrogance;
How ere that common spawne of ignorance,
Our trio of writers, may bewine his fame,
And give his action that whitewash name.

Ben Jonson. Poetaster, fol. 243.

BESLUBBER, be and slubber, slobber, slaver. Dutch, *slabberen*. Perhaps from the Latin *salies*. See *BESLAVEN*.

Thou canst *slubber* at thy slubbered wit to slumbered eyes.

Pierre Planchon. Vision, p. 110.

BEAD. Yea, and to tickle our noses with *beadspear*, to make them bleed, and then to *beslubber* our garments with it, and swear that it was the blood of true men.

Shakespeare. Henry IV. First Part, fol. 58.

BESLURRY, be and slurry. Dutch, *slorij*, filthy. Lye says that it is from the Isl. *slor*, *slurium sordis*.

And being in this piteous case,
And all *beslubbered* head and face,
On runs he in this wondrous chase,
As here and there he rambles.

Drexler. Nymphidia.

BESMEAR, be and smear. A. S. *smearan*, *smearian*, *smearian*; Dutch, *smieren*, *besmeeren*; Ger. *schmeiren* Swe. *smörja*, *besmörja*—*ungere, illincere*.

To cover with any greasy, slimy, dirty matter. To soil, to dnuh.

If torments rise and pleasure race,
If face becomes with often streams.

Turberville. The Lower confessions, &c.

BE-
SMEAR.
—
BESNOW.

They also brought of misadventure sad
Tokens and signs, seem'd too apparent true,
Rissolved armour frust and lackt they had,
Oft pierc'd through, with blood *besmeared* new,
Paisefax. Gullery of Bologne, book vii. st. 48.

The drenching hag by changes of my cheare
Perceiv'd my thought, and drown'd in sleepe night,
With wicked herbes and oysters made did *besmeare*
My body all, through charmes and magick might;
That all my senses wereaund caught.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book i. can. 3.

Not marble, nor gilded monuments
Of princes, shall outlive this powerful rhyme;
But you shall shine more bright in these contents
Than unwearied stone, *besmeared* with dittish time.
Shakespeare. Sonnet iv.

— Before them stalk'd,
Far aere, the demon of decouring flame;
Rapine, and uncharity, all with blood *besmeared*,
Without or ear, or eye, or feeling heart.
Thomson. Liberty, part 5.

Came superstition, fierce and fell,
An insipid detested, e'en in hell;
Her eye insinuat'd, her face all o'er
Foully *besmeared* with human gore,
O'er heaps of mingled skulls she rode.
Charliff. The Ghost, book iv.

BESMIRCH, *be* and *smirch*. To smirch, Mr. Steevens says, is to soil, to obscure. The word is not found in Junius or Skinner. Perhaps it is corrupted from *A. S. smitan, besmiten, besmiten, besmiten, besmiten*; To smut, Dutch, *besmiten*; Ger. *schmutzen*.

And as fair Helens face,
Did Greece dames *besmirch*,
So did my dear excret in sight,
All virgin in the church.
The Brides Bachelors, in *Perry*, v. 3.

— Perhaps he loons you now,
And now so soyle nor castell doth *besmirch*
The virtue of his face.
Shakespeare. Hamlet, fol. 155.

Tell the countess,
We are but warriors for the working day;
Our gayness and our gift are all *besmirt*
With rainie marching in a painefull field.
Id. Henry F. fol. 87.

BESMOOTH, *be* and *smooth*. *A. S. smethian*. To make smooth, plain or even. Somner. Dutch, *smidighen*.

— And hail
An altar there, at which the graces bathe,
And with immortal haloes *besmooth* her skin;
Fit for the bliss, immortals soles in.
Cicero. Homer's Odyssey, book viii. fol. 115.

BESMUT, *be* and *mut*. Chancer writes it *besmote*. See *Skinner*; and in *Junius smottred*.

Of fustian he wove a gipoo,
All *besmuted* with his halbergon,
For he was late yonge fro his viage;
And wrote for to do his pilgrimage.
Chancer. The Prologue, v. 75.

BESNOW, *be* and *now*. Goth. *snais*; *A. S. snisan*; Dutch, *schneuen*; Ger. *schneien*. All which *Junius* derives from the Gr. *Νιψω*. Upon which *Serenus* remarks that it is scarcely credible that a people situated at the north should not have this word till they received it from the Greeks.

VOL. XVIII.

Ypoecris is a branche of pryde, and most among clerics
And yiknot in Latin to lethelike doing beg
That were *by snow* al whit snow, and *whites* whit fane.
Piers Plowman, p. 278.

BESNOW.
—
BESORT.

That weren pale and fole hewed
And as a banche, which is *besnowed*,
Ther herdes weren hore and white.
Gower. Conf. Am. book i.

So smooth lye of hym they made
The presenters every daie bene sowed,
He was with yestes all *besnowed*.
Id. B. book vi.

Virgins of equal birth, of equal years,
Whose virtues held with thine as smothering stride,
Shall draw thy picture, and record thy life:
One shall emphere thine eyes, another shall
Impair thy teeth, a third thy white and small
Hand shall *besnow*, a fourth incrudine
Thy rosy cheek. *Carver. To the Lady Anne Hey*.

BESNUFFED, *be* and *snuff*. To cover with *snuff*;
i. e. something *snuffed*, or *snuffed*. *A. S. snoffa*; Ger.
schnauffen; Dutch, *snaffen*.

She draws her words, and waddles is her pace;
Unwashed her hands, and much *besnuffed* her face.
Young. Sat. 6.

BESOM. "Geclensod mid *besomum*." *Matt.* xii. 44.
Ger. and Dutch, *besom*. Perhaps, says *Wachter*, from
(Ger.) *butzen*, *mandare*, to cleanse, as *Martin* con-
jectures.

Thence he saith I schal turue agen into myn hous fro whence
I went out, and he cometh and fyndeth it void and clennd out with
besoms and maid fair. *Wiclif. Matthew*, ch. xii.

And I will sweep them out with the *besome* of destruction,
saith the Lord of Hostes. *Isaiah*, lxxiii. ch. 14.

Amongst the rest the *Lamarke* there stood,
For *huswife's besoms* only knowne most good.
Brown. Britannia's Pastoral, book i. st. 2.

Against that time, or not much before, the very *besoms*
wherewith the noblesse enria used to be swept, were scarce to
bloome and beare blossoms: and this portended, that some
persons of most consumable and base condition, were to be
raised unto high degrees of rule and authoritie.
Holland. Amicus, fol. 232.

He [a minister] might be permitted to broom his *besom*
without remorse, and brush down every part of the furniture,
without sparing a single corner, however sacred by long pre-
scriptions. *Goldsmith. Citizens of the World*, li. 109.

BESORE, *be* and *sore*. *A. S. syrean, syrean*,
syrean, to vex, to molest, to cause mischief to.
Tookey, ii. 207.

So him they led into the courts of day,
Where never war, nor wounds abide him more,
But in that house eternal peace doth play,
Acquitting the souls that new beare
Their way to bear'n through their own blood did score.
G. Fletcher. Christ's Triumph after Death.

BESORT. Fr. and It. *sorte*; It. *azzorare*; Fr.
azzorte, from the Latin *sort*. To sort, is to arrange
and dispose into distinct classes or kinds. *Skinner*.
Besort seems to be used by *Shakespeare* as we now
use *consort*.

— Be thou *desir'd*
By her, that else will take the thing she begs,
A little to disquietus your traine,
And the remainder that shall still depend,
To be such men as may *besort* your age,
Which know themselves and you.
Shakespeare. Lear, fol. 289.

BESORT.

BES-
PAN-
GLE.

[1] do undertake
This present warms against the Ottomans.
Most humbly therefore beseeching to your state,
I crave a disposition for my wife
Due reference of place, and exhibition,
With such accommodation and consent
As becometh with her breeding.

Shakespeare. *Othello*, fol. 314.

BESOT, } Be and sot. Ger. sot; Fr. sot,
BESOTTEOLY, } and A. S. sot; which Sommer ex-
BESOTTEDNESS. } plains, *hebes, stultus, fatuus, excors*.
Can it be from sudden, sot, sot; one who soddens him-
self *se* with drinking? Such a man we also call a
sotter. Therastis calls Ajax "a soddens-witted lord."
See SOGGER.

What forsoe the fools to lose
His heavenly yoke life?
Was cause that he besotted was
Of Agamemnon's wife.

Turkville. *The Lover to Cupid*, &c.

They sought to apprehend Jesus; Why, who did hinder them?
Was he not there among them? Was there not enough of them
to do it? Yes, there was; but yet they only stand gazing at him,
like men besotted, till he escaped away from them.

Hephia. *Sermon* ix. fol. 442.

After ten or twelve years prosperous war and contention with
tyranny, barely and besottedly to run their necks again into the
yoke which they have broken, and prostrate all the fruits of their
victory for saught at the feet of the vanquished.

Milton. *The ready and easy way*, &c. l. 591.

For God, when men sin outrageously, and will not be ad-
monish'd, gives over chastising them, perhaps by pestilence, fire,
sword, or famine, which may all turn out to their good, and takes up
his severest punishments, hardness, besottedness of heart, and
idolatry, to their final perdition.

Id. *Of True Religion*, &c. li. 127.

Or fools besotted with their crimes,
That know not how to shift betimes,
That neither have the hearts to stay
Nor wit enough to run away.

Baile. *Hudibras*, part iii. can. 2.

Pyrrho, as he affected not to believe his senses, affected also to
be free from all passions and emotions: for when Anaxarchus,
his master and fellow-traveller, happened to fall into a ditch,
that worthy sceptic passed on without once looking behind him;
for which indifference his besotted master is said to have held him
in great admiration.

Beattie. *On Truth*, part iii. ch. ii.

RESOURS, be and sow. A. S. *surigan, acere*,
acrescere, to wax sower or sharp. Sommer. Ger. *saur*;
Dutch, *suer*; Sw. *saur*; Fr. *saur*.

How should we shiver, and loath, and detest this old leaven
that so besours all our actions; this heathenism of unregenerate
carnal nature, which makes our best works so unchristian.

Hennard. *Works*, v. iv. *Sermon* xv.

BESPANGLE, be and spangle. Dutch, *spanghe*;
Ger. *spange*. Any thing shining. See Tookie, l. 547.

For now the last day's evening dew
Evens to the full itself doth show,
Each bough with pearl bespangling.

Drayton. *Nymphal* 3.

Thou ever glorious, most excellent,
God various, in names, in essence one,
High art installed on a golden throne,
Out-stretching heaven's wide bespangling vault,
Transcending all the circles of our thought.

Draconard. *Flowers of Zion*.

A golden star, it shot through liquid air,
And drew behind a radiant trail of hair,
Not Bercuire's locks first rose so bright,
The heaven bespangled with diabolical light.

Pope. *The Rape of the Lock*, can. 5.

Its [the Opah Doria's] general color was a vivid transparent
scarlet varnish over burnished gold, bespangled with oval silver
spots of various sizes.

Præmont. *British Zoology*.

BESPATTER, be and spatter. A. S. *spætan*. To BESPAT-
ter, to spatter or sputter.

We may keep our consciences clear both from crimes and from
faults also, while we labour to cleanse them from their defilements,
and to rub out and wash away those spots with which at any time
we are occasionally bespattered.

Hephia. *Sermon* xxi. fol. 669.

BESPAWL, be and speak. A. S. *spætan*. To spit
Spættian. To spattle; to spawl.

They bespatted hym and hypotized hym.

Bale. *Acts of English Potaries*.

Old Proteus hath been known to leave his finny herd,
And in their sight to spunge his foam-bespangled beard.
Dryden. *Poly-Otium*, Song ii.

See how this remonstrant would invent himself conditionally
with all the rheum of the town, that he might have sufficient to
bespawl his brethren.

Milum. *Animad. upon Remonstr. Defence*, 55.

BESPE'AK, } Be and speak. A. S. *spæcan, spre-*
BESPEAKEN. } *can*; Dutch, *spreeken*; Ger. *spreechen*;
which Wachter seems inclined to derive from *spæcan*,
to break, *trampere, quod loqui sit trampere in verba*.

To speak; to utter, or give utterance to words; to
announce; to make known; to pronounce; to de-
clare. To speak, *sc.* a wish, an order; as to bespeak
any thing of a tradesman. In this application Skinner
calls it a most elegant word; and without parallel in
any language known to him.

So just yet came out an wode, as it was bespoken,
An o'z bound of Briston, her fellows var to soroke.

R. Gloucester, vol. i. p. 211.

And mythe he com þe prydde, best of ech on,

As it was er bespoken, to wuch he melle trule.

Id. vol. ii. p. 554.

And whan that they have y etin

And wanhin have their honden,

The thou shall bespoken them all,

To bring the out of honden.

Piers impugned to Chaucer. *The Cook Tale*.

This answer given, Argante wilde drew aw,

Treaching for ire, and waiting pale for rage,
Nor could he hold, his wraithen crest so far,
But thus (inflam'd) bespoken the captain sage:
Who scorneth peace, shall have his fill of war.

Fairfax. *Geoffrey of Boulogne*, book ii. st. 88.

Bid yonder man come home to me and dine
(Quoth I) bespoken him reverently (you see)
Scorne not his habit, little count thou tell
How rich a mind in those meaner rags doth dwell.

Murray for Magistrate, p. 536.

They mean not with love to the bespoken of the work, but with
a love and delight in the work itself. *Abney Weston*, p. 31.

What will you say to him in a dying hour, who scarce ever had
one serious thought of him all your life? Can you have the face
at that time to bespoken him in this manner? Lord, now the
world and my lusts have left me, and I feel myself ready to sink
into eternal perdition, I lay hold upon thy mercy to deliver my
soul from going down into the pit.

Tulstom. *Sermon* lii.

It has been my misfortune, Sir, very innocently to rejoice in a
plentiful fortune, of which I am master, to bespoken a fine chariot,
to give direction for two or three handsome sweet boxes, and as
many suits of fine cloaths.

Spicerius, No. 320.

A preface, therefore, which is but a bespoken of favour, is
altogether useless.

Dryden. *The Hind and the Panther*. Preface.

— Ah, answer not the strain!
Thy wasted wealth, thy widow's sighs,
Thy half-repentant ruminations
Bespeak thy cause unlament, thy counsels vain.

Mason. *Ode* ix.

BESPEAK.
—
BESPOOT.

There dwelt a sage call'd Discipline. His head,
Not yet by time completely silver'd o'er,
Bespoke him past the bowels of fresh youth,
But strong for service still, and unimpair'd.

Cowper. *Task*, book II.

BESPECKLE, be and speckle. Dutch *spickelen*;
from *spicken*, to spit. Spot is the matter spitten, spate
or spitted. So speckle, from the Dutch.

Her chaite and modest wail, surrounded with celestial beams,
they over-lard with wondrous tresses, and in a shining train bespек'd
her with all the gaudy ornaments of a whore.

Milton. *Of Reformation in England*, l. 5.

BESPENT, be and spend; past participle spent.
A. S. *spendan*, *spendan*; Dutch and Ger. *spenden*;
Fr. *spender*; It. *spendere*; Sp. *despender*. All, says
Wachter, from the Latin *pensio*, to weigh.

To weigh out; to give out; to distribute; to
bestow.

— — — — — No man nor God
Could let his eye on it: a weight so odd
His art shew'd to be. All his craft bespent
About the bed: he found, as if he went
To well-built Lemnos.

Chapman. *Homér's Odyssey*, book viii. fol. 117.

BESPET, } Be and spit. A. S. *spetan*, *spittan*;
Dane's r. } Swe. *spotta*. To spit.

Then was his visage, that ought to be desired to be seen of all
mankind (in which gleaze angels desire to look) villainously bespet.

Chaucer. *The Prioress's Tale*, v. li. p. 229.

And they smitten his head with a reed, and bespetten him and
thou knotted and wrenched him.

Wiclif. *Mark*, ch. xv.

And they smote him on y^e head with a reed, and spate upon
him, and knotted down and wrenched hym.

Bible, 1551.

And so therewith Jesus (at Pilates commandment) cummeth
forth as he was apparelled, bound, scourged and beate, bespotted,
crowned with a crown of thorne, and wearing the purp^rin
garment. And Pilate presented hym, saying: Beholde the man
is here.

Udell. *John*, ch. xix.

BESPICE. Fr. *espices*; It. *specie*; Sp. *especies*;
Dutch, *specerij*; Ger. *specerey*; that is, myra Wachter,
various species, sc. of aromatics. Junius and Skinner
are to the same purport.

Sibylla out of her furious and enraged mouth, as Heracitus
saith, uttering forth and resounding words without mirth,
and provoking no laughter, nor gloriously painted and set out, nor
pleasantly perfumed and bespiced, hath couched with her voice a
thousand years, by the streams of Apollon, speaking to her.

Holland. *Platarch*, fol. 569.

— — — — — And thou

His cup-bearer, whom I from meeter forme
Hauē bene'd, and rear'd to worship, who mayest see
Plainely, as becoms seas earth, and earth sees becoms,
How I am gull'd, might'it be-spice a cup,

To giue mine enemy a larding drink.

Shakespeare. *Winter Tale*, fol. 280.

BESPOOT, be and spot. A. S. *spetan*, *spittan*, to
spit. Spot; i. e. the matter spitten, spate, spitted, is
the past participle; and upon this participle the verb,
to spot, to bespot, is formed.

Bespotted all with shields of red and black,
It sweepeth all the land behind him furve,
And of three furlongs doth but little lack.

Spenser. *Faerie Queene*, book i. can. II.

Thy blameful lines, bespotted so with sin,
Mine eye would close, ere they to read begin:
But I to wash no ladies go about,
For ill so hard set on is hard got out.

Dryden. *Horatius Epistles*.

BESPREAD, be and spread. A. S. *spredan*; Ger.
spreiten; Dutch, *spreiden*; Swe. *sprida*. To spread.

BE-
SPREAD.
—
BESPRIN-
KLE.

There came of armed knights such a rout
That they bespread the large field about.
Chaucer. *The Foure and the Leafe*, fol. 367. can. 8

For he his kirtell foudle also,
And eke her mantell both two
Bespred vpon the bed alioth.

Gower. *Conf. Am.* book v. fol. 122.

At peep of day, when, in her crimson pride,
The morn bespreads with mists all the way,
Where Fluebus' couch, with radiost course must glide,
The hermit bends his humble knees to pray.

Thomas Lodge, in *Killa*, vol. ii.

But oh! what terrors must distract the soul
Constituted of that mortal crime, a hole;
Or should one pond of powder less bespred
Those monkey-tails that wag behind their head!

Pope. *Imit. Donne's Sat.* 4.

— — — — — The chief
In perturbation of indignant wrath
Was striking e'er the carpet, which bespred
His rich pavilion's floor.

Glover. *Athenist*, book xxi.

BESPRENT. To besprinkle. For the etymology
see BESPRINKLE.

He exchequer'd scide, just not a child's scyte,
Just were y^e gyle with oute fuler, & just me y^e hider bogtie,
And slow y^e, and mid be jode besprege wel here ston.

R. Gloucester, p. 128.

To play ran I all-desprent with leures,
To prapen her on cruelty me awreth,
But or I might with any word out bewtie,
Or tell her any of my paines smart,
I found her dead, and buried in an berre.

Poems inscribed to Chaucer. *The Foure of Courtier*.

[He] besprende better thilke boik and al the peple & scide this
is the blood of the testament that God comaunde to giue. Also
he besprende with blood the tabernacle and alle the vberth of the
scryue in lyk maner.

Wiclif. *Ebereris*, ch. ix.

And first within the porch and lawes of hell
Sate deep remorse of conscience, all besprent
With teares.

Mirror for Magistrates, p. 26.

So fairest Phosphor, the bright morning star,
But newly wash'd in the green element,
Before the drowzy night is half aware,
Shooting his flaming locks with dew besprent,
Springs lively up into the orient.

G. Fletcher. *Christ's Triumph after Death*.

His eyes were red, and all forthward;

His face besprent with teares;

It seemed to-day had him long hatcht,

In mingles of his dispaire.

Harpast. *Complaint of Phylida*, in *Chaucer*, v. li.

But who is he, in closet close y pent,
Of sober face, with learned dust besprent?
Right well mine eyes arede the myster wight,
On parchment scraps y-fet, and Worme light.

Pope. *The Dunciad*, book iii.

They crow'd: when on the tuneful stage
Advanc'd a band, of aspect sage;
His silver tresses, thin besprent,
To age a graceful reverence lent.

Warren. *The Great of King Arthur*.

BESPRINKLE. A. S. *sprengan*, *sprengan*, *sprengere*,
spregere; Ger. *sprengen*, *sprengen*; Dutch, *sprengelen*,
sprengelen, *sprengelen*; Swe. *sprenga*. To scatter,
to asperse.

He with his hands vnto the vntoos the booties;
Whose sacred filletes all besprinkled were
With filth of gory blood, and venin rank.

Survey. *Enail*, book ii.

**BESPRIN-
KLE.** This victorious horse man hath upon his white vesture be-
sprinkled with blood, which is his innocent ruddish crushed.

**BESSARA-
BIA.**

Besides them both, upon the soiled grass
The dead cone of an armed knight was spread,
Whose armour all with blood besprinkled was.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book ii, can. 1.

And hailing cast herself about his neck emburied with blood,
kept still the blood, and her apparel besprinkled with it, remaining
a widow, drown'd in continual griefe.

Greneway. Twelfth, fol. 249.

But in her temple's last recess enclod'd
On Delon's lay the sacred head reposed,
Him close she curtains round with vapours blue,
And soft besprinkles with Cimmerian dew.

Pope. The Dunciad, book iii.

And thou, sweet moon! canst tell a softer tale;
To thee the maid, thy likeness, fair and pale,
In pensive contemplation oft applies,
When parted from her lov'd and loving aways,
And looks on you with tear-besprinkled eyes.

Jeays. Ode.

BESPUT, be and spurt. A. S. *spytan*; Dutch,
spuyten; Ger. *sprozen*; Swe. *spitta*, *germinare*.
To spurt or spout; to shoot or cast forth.

Now hoply he had a fine at the Lacedaemonians and gave them
a blow with his pen, because in the train and consequence of the
story, they came so just under it, but the city of the Corinthians,
which was clean out of his way, he hath notwithstanding taken it
with him and bespotted and dashed at be passed by, with a most
grivous slander and heavy imputation.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 1004.

I suppose, and more than suppose, it will be nothing disagreeing
from Christian mechanics, to handle such a one in a rougher accent
and to send home his haughtiness well bespotted with his own
booby water.

Milton. Animad. upon Remond. Defence, l. 76.

BESRODNAYA SLOBODA, a village of Asiatic
Russia, situated between the rivers Voiga and Akh-
touban, near the shore of the Caspian Sea, and chiefly
remarkable for an unsuccessful attempt made by the
Russian government to cultivate silk in its vicinity.
The Empress Elizabeth established a settlement there
for that purpose, and invited Armenian and other
foreigners to assist in the process. Catharine pre-
pared instructions for the government of the colony,
and about 1300 families were collected on the banks
of the Akhtouban, and were to enjoy certain privileges
and immunities. An inflexible dislike to the occu-
pation, however, was soon manifested by most of the
settlers, and the quantity of silk annually declined in
consequence, till at last the cultivators destroyed the
worms by sprinkling them with salt, and then set
fire to the long grass about the mulberry trees. The
culture of silk was therefore from that time abandoned
at Besrodnoaya.

BESSARABIA, or **BASSARABIA**, a province of the
Russian Empire, comprehending the part of Moldavia
ceded by the Porte at the peace of Bukharest in 1812,
and Bessarabia Proper, (called Bôjaky by the Turks;
the Budzick of our older maps) between 45° and 46°
N. lat., 28° and 31° E. long. containing about 8900
square miles. It is bounded on the south by the
Pruth and the Danube, on the west by a small river
called Rukino, on the north by the Dnestr, and on
the east by the Black Sea. It is divided into two
parts: 1. The Moldavian division, containing seven
triatins, or circles (Khotini, (Khotim or Choczim)
Serdika, Orkhôf, Fultshl, Khotoroltchan, Codra, and
Gretchan. 2. Bessarabia Proper, subdivided into the

Bender, Kanasharian, and Ismâil-Tomarovian circles. **BESSARA-
BIA.**

The soil, naturally fruitful, is watered by several
smaller streams as well as the large ones already
named; especially in the Moldavian division. Much
of Bessarabia Proper consists of lagoons and marshes
intersected by numerous creeks, and was the Scythian
Desert of the ancients. The population has been
estimated at 300,000; but is probably much below
that number, as the country has been almost de-
populated by the desolating wars between the
neighbouring potentates. Moldavians, Bulgarians,
of the Greek faith, called Philipones, Armenians,
Jews, Tatars, and Serrians constitute the bulk of its
inhabitants; and to these may be added Gipsies, a
numerous race in this part of Europe. The peasantry
of this country are wretchedly oppressed by the
government and the Boyars, as in the rest of the two
provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia. Butter, fat and
milk, with occasionally a few bales of boiled millet,
form the principal articles of their diet, and an
acidulated beverage, called *braga*, prepared from the
flour of millet, serves to correct the greasiness of
their usual fare. Almost every cottage has a loom, in
which the women weave linen and cotton cloths.
The soil belongs to the crown and the Nobles (Boyars);
and the labourers are in a state of partial vassalage,
paying part of their rent in personal service. More
grain and wine than is required for home consumption
is grown, and tallow, hides, butter, wax, and honey are
produced in considerable quantities. Before the last war,
live cattle were sent for sale into Bulgaria and Rum-ili:
Salt is manufactured in the lakes of Ak-kirmân,
shagrin at Ismâil; these, except tanning and candle-
making, are the only manufactures carried on. The
government raises a considerable revenue from the
fisheries, the salt works, and cattle bred on the steppes
belonging to the crown, which are all royal mono-
polies, as likewise from duties on the sale of spirits,
on houses, vineyards, flocks, and bees; altogether
amounting to 3,000,000 piastres (£150,000.) An
account of the principal towns of the Moldavian
province will be found under the head of **MOLDAVIA**.
Those of Bessarabia Proper are,

Tâtâr-bunâr, Kilî, and Ak-kirmân, on the coast, all Tatar-
of them, particularly the first, possessing considerable bunâr-
salt-works, formed in the neighbouring lagoons. The
first is a day's journey (about 30 miles) to the north-
east of Ismâil, and has a castle built by Candân
Pâsha.

Kilî (the *Celia* of the Romans) at a short distance
to the N. E. of Ismâil, on the northern mouth of the
Danube, called from it Kilî-bôghâd, is the *Lycostomum*
of the ancients, and was one of the fortresses
retained by the Turks when the Krim Tâtars got
possession of the rest of Bessarabia. Opposite to it,
at the mouth of the river, is the Isle of Serpents,
anciently *Leuc*, celebrated for a temple and tomb of
Asclepius.

Ak-kirmân, (i. e. the white fortress, having the *Ackierman*,
same meaning as most of its other names, *Appro-
castro*, *Cazate-sulo*, *Bely-grod*, or *Belgorodsk*) on
the mouth of the Dnestr, or rather on a lagoon
formed by that river, and called *Dnestr-limân*, or
Lacul Ovidiului (i. e. Ovid's lake) lat. 46° 12' N. long.
30° 49' E. It is the *Alba Julia* of the Romans, and
Oxia of the Greeks. The fortress was formerly very
strong; but the town suffered greatly in the late

BESSARA. wars between Turkey and Russia. Salt and wine are the principal articles of trade; but the neighbourhood at a small distance from the town is an uncultivated steppe or waste.

BIA.
BEST.
Imail. Ismail, or Ismail-prichid (Ismail's ferry) on the Danube, about 300 miles from Constantinople. It formerly contained about 40,000 inhabitants, chiefly Christians, but it is now much decayed. The fortifications were considered as very strong by the Turks. It is well known for the obstinate defence which it offered against the Russian arms in 1790. Having successfully withstood a siege during the whole summer, it was taken by assault on the 10th of December. Suvoroff distinguished this concluding exploit against the Turks by a horrible carnage. Between 4000 and 5000 of his own men fell, and no less than 35,000 of the enemy were put to the sword.

Bender. Bender, or Tigine, is a fortress on the right bank of the Danube, about 30 leagues from its mouth. It was in the neighbouring village of Warnitz that Charles XII. of Sweden was taken prisoner by the Turks.

Kauscher, or Kueschar. Kauscher (Kuschen in Arrowsmith's map) was the capital of the country while it belonged to the Khans of Krim Tatar. It is a small town a little to the south of Bender.

(See Daniel and Gregory's *Географическое Невреженье*, Vienn. 1791, p. 331. Cantemir's *Ottoman Emp.* 132. 187. Sulzer's *Geschichte des Transalpinischen Ducien*, Wien, 1781. Sumarokow's *Reise durch die Krimm und Besarabien in Jahre, 1799*, Leipzig, 1802. *Topogr. histor. Beschreibung der Moldau und der Walachei*, Wien, 1810. Wolf's *Beschreib. der Moldau, Herrmannstadt*, 1805.)

BEST, adj. } Goth. *batista*; A. S. *betest*, *best*;
BEST, adv. } the best, the choicest, the chiefest.
BESTNESS. } From A. S. *beterian*, *betrian*; to excel,
to surpass; and *beterian*, from *betas*, to beat, to make better, to correct, repair, amend. Dutch, *beste*; Ger. *best*; Swe. *beste*. Used as the irregular superlative of good.

And be som with hym tuelse men þe beste þat with hym were.

R. Glouceter, p. 14.

He biȝet hem þe best lawes, þat euerre were yfoude.

Id. p. 386.

To giden gan þei mete,

A hȝet & a sondaun of alle þe beste

Have here my trouthe, to-morwe I will not faille,

Withoute weting of any wight,

That bere I wol be fouden as a knyght,

And bringen harmis right yough for þose;

And chese the beste, and leve the werre for me.

Chaucer. *The Knight's Tale*, v. 1612.

Gret chere made our hoste us everich on,

And to the souper sette he us anon;

And served us with vitaille of the beste.

Strong was the win, and wel to drinke us beste.

Id. *Prologue to the Knight's Tale*, v. 749.

Either he shall blind the eyes of your enemies and diminish theyr tyrannous power, or else when he hath suffered them to do their best, he shall cause even the very earth to open his mouth, and swallow them up.

Psalmist's Works, fol. 82.

We tell the also that al the best that the best man may do, is yet no more thā his duty for everye man is of his dutye bounden to labour for heauen, and to serve & please God as muche as he maye.

St. Thomas More's Works, fol. 362.

Many from Harfewe carry'd tick and lense,

Fitt for apitals and the surgeons care,

Then with theyr swordes on us to win them fame.

Unshod and without stockings are the best,

And those by water miserably oppress.

Drayton. *The Battle of Agincourt*.

Generally the *bestness* of a thing (that we may so call it) is best discerned by the necessary use.

Bishop Morton. *Episcopacy Asserted*, sec. 4.

I argue thus: the world agrees

That he writes well, who writes with ease:

Then he, by sequel logical,

Writes best, who never thinks at all.

Prior. *Epin. to F. Shephard, Exp.*

Eucrates is the best natur'd of all men; but that natural softness has effects quite contrary to itself; and for want of due bounds to his benevolence, while he has a will to be a friend to all, he has the power of being such to none.

Tatler, No. 176.

The lingering disorder of a friend of mine gave me occasion lately to reflect, that we are always in the best moral disposition, when afflicted with sickness.

Melmoth. *Pliny*, book vii. letter 28.

Now goes the mighty thief prowling abroad

For plunder; much sollicitous how best

He may compensate for a day of sloth

By works of darkness and nocturnal wrong.

Cooper. *Tash*, book iv.

BESTAIN, be and stain. Chaucer uses *distain*, which Skinner thinks is from the French *destaindre*, q. d. *distingere*, to take away the taint (*lincturam*) to vitiate or spoil the colour.

Which made him read his milk-white locks,

And tressen from his head,

And all with blood besot his cheeks,

With age and beauty spread.

King Lear, &c. in Percy, v. 1.

The cause why thus I lend him in my hand,

His skin with blood and tears so sore *bestain'd*,

Is that thou maist the better vnderstand,

How hardly fortune hath for vs ordain'd,

In whom her love and hate be whole contain'd.

Mirror for Magistrates, fol. 360.

And what manner of men were the Romans? in good faith no better but a sort of rugged shepherds, which bring not about to get the wines for the dishonesty of their beginning, were fain to ruinish them by open force, and, to be short, which builded their city with most cruel and unnatural murder, and bestained the foundations of theyr wallies with brother blood.

Arthur Golding. *Justine*, fol. 117.

BESTEAD, be and stead. Goth. *stads*; A. S. *stede*; Dutch, *steede*; Ger. *stalt*; Swe. *stad*. Place. To be in *stead*; to be in place; to be placed, situated, circumstanced; well or ill. To put or stand in *stead*, good or bad.

For soth þe þrid eschele fulle hard was biſted,

þe tempters lik a dele failed & þien ſed.

R. Brune, p. 150.

For were a manne for her *bestede*,

þe would ben right sore adradle.

Chaucer. *The Remount of the Hawk*, fol. 122. c. i.

Have ye not seen sometime a pale face

(Among a press) of him that hath ben lad

Toward his death, when so he getteth no grace,

And swich a colour in his face hath had,

Then mighten know him that was to *bested*.

Id. *The Man of Lawes Tale*, v. 5055.

She said, that she shall not be glad,

Till that she se hym so *bested*,

That be no more make amant.

Geoffrey. *Conf. Am.* book i. fol. 22.

For though I be my selven strange,

Eadir maketh myn hent chaunge,

That I am sorrowfully *bestede*

Of that I see another gladd.

Id. B. book ii. fol. 28.

Rowland, for shame, awake thy drowsy Muse,

Time plays the hunt's-up to thy sleepy head;

Why ly'st thou here, whilst we are ill *bested*,

Fool little awake!

Drayton. *Eclage III.*

BESTEAD. In this ship was great store of *dre Newland fish*, commonly called with us *Porce John*, whereof afterwards (being thus found a lawful price) there was distribution made into all the ships of the fleet, the same being so new and good as it did very greatly bestead us in the whole course of our voyage.

Sir Francis Drake. West India Voyage.

He who looks so deformedly and distastefully, who to outward sight is so ill bestead, and so pitifully accounted, hath latent in him much of admirable beauty and glory.

Bacon. Sermon xxxi. vol. I.

BESTIALIZE,

BESTIAL, adj.

BESTIAL, n.

BESTIALITY.

BESTIALITY.

To bring or reduce to the state

or condition of a beast. See

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Thus formation, incest, rape, and even bestiality, were sanctified by the amours of Jupiter, Pallas, Mars, Venus, and Apollo.

Goldsmith. Essay xiv.

BESTICK, be and stick. A. S. *sticca*; Dutch, *sticken*; Ger. *stechen*; Swe. *sticka*. To stick, pierce, or thrust through.

Truth shall retire

Bestuck with slanderous darts, and works of Faith

Rarely be found: so shall the world go on,

To good malignant, to bad men benigne.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book xii.

BESTILLED, be and still. Dutch, *stillen*; Ger. *stillen*; Swe. *stilla*; A. S. *stillan*, *gestillan*. To make quiet, or still; to calm; to tranquillize.

The choral Muses drop! their harps untwung,

The lutes and laurel wreaths neglected fall!

Commerce *bestill'd* her many-nation'd tongue,

Whilom so busy in her bustling hall.

Campanella. An Elegiac Ode.

BESTIR, be and stir. A. S. *stýran*; Dutch, *stieren*; Ger. *stören*. To stir, or steer, to move.

Butterfly the, gods Adam, and

No let him none yde,

And we shall tell largely

How many here there be.

Chaucer. The Cooks Tale of Gower.

So left he both shield and spear,

As he that might hym not bestee,

And helde hym in chamber close.

Gower. Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 45.

The first precedents of evil must be carefully avoided, if we care to keep a constant order in good. Prudence cannot better bestir us self, than in keeping mischief from home.

Hall. Cont. Alcamur Preating.

A stupid habit is only fit for the conversation of ordinary people: men of wit require one that will give them play, and bestir himself in the absurd part of his behavior.

Spectator, No. 47.

BESTORM, be and storm. A. S. *stýrmian*, *agilare*, *farere*; Dutch, *stormen*, *bestormen*; Ger. *stürmen*, *bestürmen*; Swe. *storma*, *bestorma*. To toss or drive about, to agitate, to rage, to rave.

Yield not in storms of state to that foliote

Which from the people does to rulers grow;

For 't (fortune's) will should not for threatening strike;

In boats *bestorm'd* all check at those that rove.

Devenant. Gundersen, book iii. can. 6.

Religion! providence! an after-state!

Here is firm footing; here is solid rock!

This can support us; all is sea besides;

Sinks under us; *bestorms*, and then devours.

Young. The Complaint, N. 4.

BESTOW, Dutch, *stouwen*; Swe. *stoufa*; A. S. *stow*, *locus*; "Whence," says **BESTOW**, "I've," "to stow, or bestow; collocare, sine in loco ponere." To the same purport Sommer.

To put, lay, or place, to confer, to give, to grant.

For by my truth, I have on mine array,

And not in waste, *bestowed* it every del.

And for I have *bestowed* it so well

For year honour, for Godden sake I say,

As both not write, but let us laugh and play.

Chaucer. The Shipman's Tale, v. 13348.

The lead after Saturne growth,

And Jupiter the braver increase.

Gower. Conf. Am. book iv. fol. 77.

I will therefore bestow my labour & diligence, throw this little preface or prologue, to prepare a way in thy mouth, so farre forth as God shall give me grace.

Zyndall's Works, fol. 39.

BESTIA-

LIZE.

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BESTOW. If thou ask me what his commendementes are as touching the bestowing of thy goods? I answer his commendementes are that thou bestow them in works of mercy, and that shall he have to thy charge at the days of iudgement. *Frith's Works*, fol. 89.

BE-STREAK.

Ye ought not to exteme meane, that supply the Apostles office, but as craves would that stewards and bestowers of other mens goods, should be regarded. *Udall's Corin.* ch. iv.

And then to whom there be no no poore men left that ye maye bestow your money upon, go to them good Christianes in Gods name and bestowe the remanent wherupon ye will.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 673.

Britaine, you stay too long,

Quickly aboard bestow you,

And with a merry gale

Swell your stretch'd sail.

Drayton. Ode to the Virginian Voyage.

The several names of God, which the writer De Mundo bestoweth in, to prove him Polyonymous, are first of all such as the Thunderer and Lightning, the Giver of Rain, the Bestower of Fruit. *Cudworth's Intel. Syst.* fol. 482.

BELL. Good Euphones,

Where bestoweth

Are ill conduct'd, as to unworthy men,

That turn them to be a use, for bestow'd,

For wanting judgment how, and on whom to place them

Is partly guilty.

Beaumont and Fletcher. Queens of Corinth, act i. sc. 2.

Almighty God, though he really does, and cannot otherwise do, yet will not seem to bestow his favours altogether gratis, but to expect some competent return, some small use and income from them. *Barrow. Sermon viii.* v. 1.

Nor frigid caution checks thy free design,

Nor stops thy stream of eloquence divine:

For thine the privilege, on few bestow'd,

To feel, to think, to speak, for public good.

Warton. On the Death of King George II.

BESTRAUGHT. Minshew has *bestraught*, from the Latin; distracted in mind. See **DISTRACT** and **DISTRACHT**.

In joy yet makes our mirth abound

In woe yet cheres our heavy spirit;

Be-strawghed betwixt relief hath founde,

By musickes pleasant sweet deligions.

Song in the Lute, in Percy, v. 1.

O Goodness none, in such case canst thou sleep?

No yet, bestow'd, the dangers dost foresee

That compass thee? or heave the faire wishes blow?

Surrey. Sonnet, book iv.

Now tears had drownded further speech

Till she as one bestow'd

Did rise that with a knife the babe

Should to her bed be brought.

Warner. Albion's England, book i. can. 2.

Some among them, of the baser sort, having their wits and senses dulled by continual drunkenness (which Cato by his sentence hath defin'd to be a voluntarie kind of furie) are ravish'd and bestow'd with wild and wandering cogitations.

Holland. Amatasus, fol. 51.

The ordinary custome and behavior of such foolish and bestow'd persons sufficiently convinced, that they are past themselves, and have lost the discourse of reason.

Id. Plutarch, fol. 783.

BESTREAK, be and streak. Dutch, *streek, strieken*; Ger. *streich, streichen*; Swe. *strek*; A. S. *strican, astrican*, to strike. "Strice," says Somner, "a line, a stroke or streke with a pen or the like." Wachter thinks that all, as well as the Latin *striga*, are from the German *streich*; (A. S. *strican*, to stretch) because a line is the production of a point into length.

Besides, as presents for my soul's delight

Two bestrousen kids I keep bestreak'd with white,

Nourish'd with ewe, now purchased without pain,

An ewe's full udder twice a day they drain.

Beattie. Pastoral II.

BESTREW, be and strew. A. S. *strewian*; Dutch,

stropen; Ger. *strewen*; Swe. *strew*.

To stray, to scatter, to spread, to disperse.

Shew him all of ye house

Shew him all to grounds, just here will he see you down

So he'll bestrew, just he'll see it was to be.

R. Gloucester, p. 561.

Good-morning to this primrose too!

Good-morrow to each maid,

That will with flowers the tomb bestrew

Wherein my love is laid.

The Mock-Maid's Song, by Herrick in Ellis, v. 3.

It is not long, the way's bestrew'd with flow'rs,

With shouts to echoing bow'ns and mountains roll'd,

Since, as in triumph, I there did behold

In royal pomp approach proud Sion's tow'rs:

Drummond. On the Virgin Mary.

The water odorous,

In which they wash, what to the rites was vow'd,

Arcus (in a caldron, all bestrew'd

With herbs and flowers) serv'd in form th' holy room

Where all were drest.

Chapman. Homer's Odyssey, fol. 44.

When twice twelve times the reaper's sweeping hand,

With level'd harvests has bestrew'd the land;

On Sam'd St. Hubert's feast, his winding horn

Shall cheer the joyful sound, and wake the morn.

Gay. Sceleratus. The Birth of the Spirit.

Pale pannels o'er his corpse were plac'd,

Which pluck'd before their time to waste

Bestrew'd the boy, like him to waste

And wither in their prime. *Cullax. Song.*

BESTRIDE, be and stride. A. S. *stridan, streedan*; to spread. "Bestriden hær, equum ascendere." To bestride a horse. Lye.

To spread abroad; to separate, to stretch asunder. Generally applied to the legs.

And hyside he by strideth

And rapide hym to ryde. he righte way to Jerin.

Fiers Flinckman. Facion, p. 325.

His goods stode he al bestrode.

Chaucer. The Hine of Sir Thopas, v. 13831.

If sound of harp thine ear delighted as

And censer was that he bestrode thy back,

Then doubtless thou maught well on Brooke bestow

As good a tune to some lion from the rock.

Twickenham. An Epitaph on Maitre Brooke.

Manhood I am—therefore I me delight,

To hunt and hawk, to scourish up and fede,

The grayhounds to the course, the hawk to the Syght,

And to bestride a good and lusty stede.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 3.

BAME. My birth is noble, though the popular blast
Of vanity, as giddy as thy youth,
Hath rav'd thy name up to bestride a cloud,
Or program in the chariot of thy son.

Ford. The Broken Bow, act iii. sc. 2.

Mean time refracted from yon eastern cloud,

Bestriding earth, the grand ethereal bow

Shoots up immense; and every bow unfolds,

In fair proportion running from the red,

To where the violet fades into the sky,

Thomson. Spring.

Bring me the bells, the cattle bring,

And bring the hobby I bestrode;

When, pleas'd in many a sportive ring,

Around the room I jovial rode.

Shenstone. Ode to Memory.

BE-STREAK.

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BESTRUT.

BESTRUT, be and strut. The common word is astrut. Ger. *strotzen, turgere*; *strotzende krawle, mamma turgentes*.

DET.

Swelled out, distended; *st.* so as to stand apart.

It chanced that a bitch wolf having newly whelped her litter, and seeing her pups *bestrut* with milk, and so stiff, by reason that her young ones were dead, that they ailed apart, and were ready to burst, seeking to be eased and to discharge her self thereof; came gently to the babes, stooped down, and seemed to wind about them, put unto them her teats, *desirous* and labouring to be delivered of her milk, as if it had been a second litter.

Holland. Pictorial, fol. 519.

BESTUD, be and stud. "A.S. *studu* a post, a stud, a pillar, a stay or prop." Sommer. A stud appears to be any thing fixed; from *stud*, *stud*; the past part of the verb *To stand*.

And when the golden glorious sun goes down,
Would she put on her star-bestudded crown.

Drayton. Heroical Epistles.

Then they decreed certain presents, that the embassadors should carry unto the king: to wit, two purple souldiers caskets, each of them with a clasp of gold; and as many rich coats embroidered and bestudded with pearls.

Holland. Livres, fol. 752.

BESWADDLED, be and swaddle. Dutch, *swaddel, swachtel*; A.S. *swæthle*, from *swæthan*, *astringere, ligare*; to swathe, to fasten together, to bind.

Hence cradles, see 1. with flapping statelessen spaws,

And infant limbs brown-dotted in the lawn.

Whitehead. Epistle to Dr. Thomson.

BESWIKED, A.S. *swican*, *benican*. To betray, to deceive, to seduce, to offend. Sommer.

Sire, le seyd, ich was ymware to hym as to je.

And gif ych eode hym lygnide, je wurs juo west leus me.

R. Gloucestre, p. 272.

Now is Edward left Berwik for to like,

Je Scottis er risen eft, Ingland to like.

R. Brunne, p. 273.

In womens voice thit slege,
With notes of so great lilyng;
Of such measure, of such musicke,
Whereof the shippes thit *beswike*
That passen by the cootes there.

Gower. Conf. Am. book 1. fol. 11.

BESWYNKE, A.S. *swincan*, to labour, to travel, to take paines. Hence with Chaucer, *swinker*, for a labourer. Sommer.

But loke whon this lorels laboren the erthe

But freten the fruyt that the folke ful icliche *beswynketh*.

Piers Plouhman. Crede, E. ii.

That ilk voice, whiche men call
Of robbery, he taketh no hounde
Of thyng, whiche other men *beswynke*,
He geteth hym clothe, mete, and drinke.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v.

BET, v.

BET, n.

BETTING.

BETTING.

BETTING.

Perhaps from the A.S. *betan*, to
better, to support, *et.* to support an
opinion by risking any thing upon it.

Snat. Dead? See, see: hee drew a good how: and dead? hee
shot a fine shoote. John of Gaunt koud him well, and betted much
money on his head.

Shakespeare. King Henry IV. part ii. fol. 86.

— Then play'st, he bets upon thy part,

Altho' thou lose, yet he will gain by thee.

Ford. The Witch of Atholston, act v. sc. 1.

Nym. You'll pay me the eight shillings

I won of you at betting?

Shakespeare. King Henry V. fol. 73.

C'te. Why what should a man doe?

Ten. Why, nothing; or that, which when 'tis done, is as idle.
Harkes after the next horse-race, or hunting match, lay wagers,
&c.—visit my ladies at night, and be able to give 'hem the char-
acter of every bowler or bettor o' the green.

Ben Jonson. The Silent Women, act 1. sc. 1.

The hoary fool, who many days

Has struggled with continued sorrow,

Renews his hope, and blindly leaps

The desperate leap upon to-morrow.

Prior. Ode to the Hon. C. Montagu.

The god, unhappily engag'd,

By nature rash, by play corag'd;

Complains'd, and sigh'd, and cried and fretted;

Lost every earthly thing he betted.

Id. Copid and Ganymede.

Tho' age thy wiskerd front with wrinkles plough,

And blanch the hoary bosoms of thy brow;

Tho' 'sanguine gamblers' itch, against thy nose,

Thou unconcern'd shalt hear the waging strife.

Cambridge. The Scriverius, book v.

The gambler too, whose wit all high or low,

Of risks his fortune on one desperate throw,

Comes here to murther, having made his bet,

Finds his lost senses out, and pays his debt.

Goldsmith. Epilogue to the Gambler.

BETA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Pen-
taandria, order Digenia. Generic character: Perian-
thium single, secal-inferior, five-cleft, persistent. Seed
single, reniform, imbedded in the fleshy base of the
calyx. (Hooker, *Flor. Scot.*)

This plant has received its name from the Greek
letter β , which it is thought to resemble in shape
while its seed is swelling.

Nomen tum Graeco, cum littera proxima prima
ingitur in cerâ docti mucosae magistri,
Sic et homo pingui ferratæ cuspidis ictu
Deprimitur, folio viridibus, pede candide, flect.

Columella, l. 16.

The best known species of this genus, is the *B. rudi-*
garia or common Beet, a native of the south of Europe,
growing by the sea-shore.

B. vulgaris, flowers crowded, inferior leaves ovate.

The root is long, thick, and tapering, and of a white,
red or yellow colour. The red beet is most frequently
cultivated in this country; it affords a considerable
quantity of sugar. Margnart first procured sugar from
Beet-root, which he presented to the Academy of
Berlin in 1747. Achard of Berlin afterwards procured
it in larger quantities, and at length, at the com-
mencement of the present century, it became an object
of great interest with the chemists of France. For a
description of the mode of preparation, see Huët
de la Croix, *Notice sur la Betterave, considérée prin-*
cipalement sous le rapport des bénéfices que sa culture
doit procurer au cultivateur, 8vo. Paris, 1819. The
Hortus Kewensis describes four other species of this
genus; among these, the *B. maritima*, a native of
Britannia, distinguished botanically from the other spe-
cies by having its flowers in pairs. *English Botany*,
285.

BETAG, be and tag. To tack or tag. Fr. *attacher*,
to knit, bind, connect. For an example, see Be-
setteurson.

BETAILED, be and tail. A.S. *tegl*, which Lye
thinks is from the Gothic, *tagl, crisis*, the hair.

Thus betailed and bebordered, the man of taste fancies he im-
presses in beauty, dresses up his hard-featured face in smiles, and
attempts to look hideously tender.

Goldsmith. Citizen of the World, let. iii.

BET.

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BETHELE, observed, that the Peruvians of Quito and Popayan made use of quick lime, which they mixed with the leaf of the *Erythraean Peruvianum*, a plant possessed of very acid properties. See Peron, *l'agee aux Terres Australes*; Hallé et Nysten, *Dictionnaire des Sciences Medicales*.

BETHABARA, the *House of Passage*, a village in the Holy Land, on the other side Jordan. It is believed by some to be the spot at which the Israelites passed this river under Joshua; by others it is considered only as a common ford. In the New Testament, it is mentioned as one of the places at which the Baptist preached, (*John*, i. 28.)

BETHANY, a village about two miles eastward from Jerusalem, at the foot of the Mount of Olives. It was the residence of Lazarus, and the scene of his miraculous resurrection, (*John*, xi. 18.) It was the place also in which Mary anointed our Saviour's head, (*Mat.* 26.) The name of Bethany extended over the whole tract of ground from the village itself to Bethphage; and this is (*John*, xiv. 1. *Acts*, i. 12.) a circumstance which ought to be borne in mind, in order to prevent any fancied collision between the two accounts of the resurrection given by St. Luke, first in his *Gospel*, and afterwards in the *Acts of the Apostles*. The Bethany mentioned in his *Gospel*, is the district including the part of the Mount of Olives which he mentions in the *Acts*; and therefore each is the same place under a different name. When Dr. Richardson visited Bethany in 1818, he was shewn the ruins of a large house, said to have been that of Lazarus. His tomb also is still exhibited. The village is small and poor, and the cultivation around it is much neglected; but it is described as a pleasant romantic spot, on the shady side of the Mount of Olives, abounding in trees not long grass.

BETHAVEN, the *House of On*, (the sun) or according to others, of *iniquity*, a name given to the city Bethel after the establishment of Jeroboam's idolatry. In the book of *Joshua*, however, (vii. 2.) before the time of Jeroboam, Bethaven and Bethel are distinguished from each other, and the former is stated to be near Al. Michmas was to its east. (*1 Sam.* xiii. 5.) The wilderness of Bethaven is spoken of, (*Josh.* xviii. 12.) and the city is joined by Hosea, (v. 8.) with Gibeah and Rama, in a passage which implies that it was situated in the tribe of Benjamin. If this be so, there must have been a Bethaven distinct from Bethel, which last is known to have been in the tribe of Ephraim.

BETHIEL, the *House of God*, a city in the tribe of Ephraim, about twelve miles north of Jerusalem, near which Jacob saw his vision. (*Gen.* xxviii. 12.) On this occasion, the city adjoining the spot on which he slept, and which before was called *Laz*, received the name of Bethel. Its capture by the Israelites is related, (*Judges*, i. 22.) and its final surrender to Vespaasian is recorded by Josephus (*De Bell.* v. 6.) After the idolatry of Jeroboam, it received in contempt the name of Bethaven. The stone on which Jacob slept at Bethel, was preserved in the second Temple, and the Ark was placed upon it. The ruins of a monastery now mark the spot on which his vision took place, and Dr. Clarke observes that "the nature of the soil is an existing comment upon the record of the stony territory, where he took of the stones of the place, and put them for his pillow."

BETHESDA, the *House of Mercy*, a pool in Jeru-

salem adjoining the sheep market, as the English translation renders the word *shepharath*, or sheep gate, as it should rather be given, which was built by Eliashib and the priests, according to the testimony of Nehemiah (xiii. 4.) St. John (v. 2.) calls this pool *καλυψθη* (*calypsitho* unto). From his account of the miracle performed by our Saviour at this spot, upon the unhappy cripple who for eight and thirty years had needed the benefit of its springs, we collect that, at a certain stated time, the waters were supernaturally agitated, and that they then cured any disease with which the first person who chanced to be immersed was afflicted. Little more information than this is to be found in Holy writ, or in the writings, either of Josephus or the Talmudists. Chrysostom (v. 535.) records a tradition that one person only could be cured within a year; and Jerome (*in locis Heb.*) describes the pool in his time as being coloured red, apparently by some mineral.

The commentators differ as to the mode by which the cure used to be effected; and almost all which can be given upon the subject, must be founded on conjecture. Grutius, Lightfoot and Doddridge reject the visible appearance of the angel, and suppose that his agency was concluded from the agitation observed in the waters, and the marvellous effects subsequent to it. Hammond from Theophylact, imagines that the virtue of the water arose from the warmth imparted to it by washing in it the entrails of the victims. These, he continues, were more numerous at the approach of the Passover, and the waters were then stirred to increase their efficacy, by an officer or messenger. (*Εγγυλας*.) In answer to this theory, Whitty asks, how this healthy virtue, if natural, could be applied to the cure of all diseases? how one only could be cured when many probably entered at the same moment? and why, since numerous victims were slain at other feasts, should the case occur only at the Passover? Lightfoot also shows, that the entrails were washed in a laver in the temple, and not in this pool.

Doddridge also rejects Hammond's reasoning. If he approves our translation *sheep market*, as he thinks the sheep gate was farther from the temple than the received site of the pool. He believes the waters to have been partly mineral and medicinal, to have been used for general bathing, and to have been endued with a miraculous power not long before the ministry of Christ, in which last supposition Lightfoot agrees with him. Doddridge holds that the virtue ceased either after the miracle or the death of Christ; and this will account for the silence of Josephus.

Maunderell, who visited the Holy Land in 1696, describes Bethesda, which to our surprise is not mentioned either by Dr. Clarke or Dr. Richardson. The elder traveller gives its dimensions as 140 paces in length, 40 in breadth and 8 in depth. It was dry, and at its western end were three blind arches, in which he supposes were the five porches occupied by the diseased. The area of the temple was on one side of it, St. Stephen's gate on the other.

BETHINK, *is and think*. Dutch, *denken*; Ger. *denken*. According to Tooke (*ii.* 406.) to think, is to *thing*; and the application of the word thing, seems to extend to whatever causes a sensation or idea.

To think is to have, or cause to have, sensations or ideas; to feel, to perceive, to observe, to consider, to reflect.

BE-
THESDA
-
BE-
THINK.

WE
THINK:BETH-
LEHEM.

Jo ye emperor herde þis, he by gyn hym by þeache,
And þys wyrt toward þe kyng, for deede of þe art, quenche.
A. Gower, p. 58.

And some byþyge, and tolde wat þe bytynke was,
þat þe drago of Werre bytynkeð þe kyng Arture,
And þe beore som foul geant; þat me soude of thame.
Id. p. 203

But at the last his maister him *betought*
Upon a day, when he his paper sought;
Of a proverb, that with this name ward;
We let is rote, yett out of lore,
Than that it rote alle the remenant.

Chaucer. The Cooks Tale, v. 4391.

Slechts ich by þrue
Thaich ich sýtis þys seven ger. Ich shoelde nat wol tellen
The harme þat ich have idon.

Piers Plowman. Floun, p. 93.

The iewe, whiche all voutrouth had,
And went vpon his fete boude
Bethought hym howe he might ride.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 160.

But at the last as I *betought*
Wander I should pane or sought,
I sawe come with a gladde chere
To me, a lusty bachelor.

Chaucer. The Roman of the Rose, fol. 136.

Of which when in they had debated long,
Of *Bethke* castie they themselves *betought*,
A place by nature that was wondrous strong,
And yet far stronger easily might be wrought.

Drayton. The Barons' Wars, book v.

Bethink yourselves beforehand what merces you want, for which
you should pray unto him; and what you have, for which you must
praise God; as also how unworly you are, either to retain what
you have, or to receive what you want.

Beveridge. Sermon 145.

Ah! *bethink* how through thy regions
Midnight horror fearful how'd.
When, like wild men, the Danish legions
Through thy trembling forest grow'd.

Mitch. Bethel ii.

BETHLEHEM, or **BETHLEHEM EPHRAIM**, in order
to distinguish it from Bethlehem in the tribe of
Zabulon, the *House of Bread*, a town of Palestine,
situated about six miles south-east of Jerusalem, and
celebrated as the birth place of our Saviour and of
David. It stands on an eminence formerly entirely
covered with vines and olives, but many of the
later have now been destroyed amidst the feuds
of the inhabitants. The distant view of this town
is imposing; for Mr. Parsons, who visited it in
1821, says, in passing from Bethany through the
beautiful plain, called the valley of Ephraim, "Beth-
lehem, at this distance, assumes an appearance of
splendour far beyond what it actually possesses. The
monastery erected over the manger, stands a little east
of the village. Still further eastward, we saw the
valley where the shepherds heard the angels sing, at
the birth of the Saviour." This convent is a large
massy structure, appearing more like a fortification
than a building dedicated to ecclesiastical purposes;
and contains three religious houses, severally devoted
to Greeks, Franks, and Armenians. The grotto, which
is affirmed to contain the manger in which our Lord
lay, has an altar, a fine picture, and numerous silver
and crystal lamps. A few years ago, the monks, in
this convent, however, amounted only to ten, the
majority of whom were Spaniards. The population of
Bethlehem is now said by the recent traveller, above
referred to, to consist of about 1500 Catholics, 1000
Greeks, a few Armenians, and a few Turks. The

Catholics, Armenians, and Greeks, have each a monas-
tery. Great part of the inhabitants are employed in
making crucifixes and crowns of various kinds of wood,
many of which are set in mother of pearl, and exported
by way of Acre. Every spot in and near this town is
consecrated by tradition; and among other true or
false vestiges are still shown the house of Simeon, the
tomb of Rachael, the wells for the water of which
David longed, the place of the Nativity, the fountains
of Solomon, the cave in which David cut off the skirt
from the robe of Saul, and the wilderness of St. John
the Baptist. The Italian language is in common use
among the inhabitants.

BETHLEHEM, a borough and post town of the
United States of North America, situated on the Lehigh,
in Northampton county, Pennsylvania, and about fifty-
four miles nearly north-west of Philadelphia. It is
regularly built, chiefly of stone, and contains a popu-
lation of about 1500 individuals, who are all Moravians.
They have two schools here, one for boys and another
for girls, which are in high repute. This is one
of the most celebrated settlements of the United
Brethren in America, and is pleasantly situated on a
rising ground between the river and a creek. Besides
the common dwelling-houses, it contains a large
church, and extensive buildings appropriated to the
different classes of the society, particularly to the un-
married men, the young women, and the widows.
Various manufactures are carried on in each, and the
strictest discipline is attended to. The latitude of
Bethlehem is 40° 37' N. and longitude 75° 14' W.

BETHRAL, be and thrall. A. S. *thrall*, *seruus*. *Sere-*
neus suggests from *draga*, *portare*. Ihe prefers A. S.
threan, to chastise, whence *threale*, chastisement; and
thence, he adds, applied to that unhappy race of men,
who seem born in endure stripes.

To *enslave*; we now commonly use to *enthral*.

For, shew it is that did my lord *bethrall*,
My dearest lord, and deep in dungeon lay,
Where he his better daies hath wasted all.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book I. can. 8.

BETHROW, be and throw. A. S. *throwan*, to buri,
to fling, to throw.

To throw, to cast, to cast down, to deject, to lay
prostrate.

A holy fader all his trouthe
That ye may tell, I am be knowe,
That I with huse am so *betthrowe*,
And all my herte is so through souke
That I am verlicke dronke.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vi. fol. 128.

BETHSAIDA, the *House of Hunting* or *Fishing*, a city
near the desert of the same name in Galilee, on the
western shore of the lake Gennesareth. It was the
city in which Andrew and Peter followed their trade
as fishermen. It was also the native place of Philip.
Bethsaida frequently witnessed the miracles, and heard
the preaching of our Saviour; and the stubborn unbel-
ief of its inhabitants, drew down from him a bitter
denunciation of woe. (*Mat. x. 21.*)

BETHULIA, an insulated hill in Palestine, in the
vicinity of Bethlehem, laid out in terraces, and resem-
bling an artificial mount. The top appears to have
been once crowned with a circular fortification, the
remains of which, as well as of other buildings, are
still visible. It is also called the *Mountain of the*
Franks, and is said to have been possessed by them

BETH-
LEHEM.BETH-
ULIA.

BETH-
ULIA.

BETIDE.

Knights of St. John for forty years after they lost Jerusalem, during the Crusades. There is also a village in the neighbourhood of the same name.

BETHUMP, *be* and *thump*, of unknown origin.

Skinner thinks that it is a *sona fictum*.

To beat, to strike; with heavy blows.

Zounds, I was never so brother's with words,

Since I first called my brother's father dead.

Shakespeare. King Lear, fol. 7.

BETHUNE, a town of France, in the department of the Pas de Calais, and formerly one of the chief places in the county of Artois. It is but meanly built, except the market place, which is regular and spacious. It is encompassed by fortifications, which were greatly strengthened by the celebrated Vauban. The population is about 6000, many of whom are employed in the manufacture of linen, from flax grown in the surrounding country, which also yields abundance of corn and good cheese, besides a partial cultivation of vines. Bethune formerly belonged to Flanders, but was annexed to France in the reign of Louis XIV. and was taken in 1710, after a siege of six weeks, by the allied army under the Duke of Marlborough, but was restored at the peace of Utrecht. Lat. 50° 32' N. long. 2° 44' E.

BETIDE, *be* and *tide*. A. S. *tidan*, *contingere, accidere*. To come, to come to pass, to happen, to bechance, to fall to the lot of.—Spenser writes the past participle *beight*.

Ac after mete, þo he adds fete & ydranke wel,

His non en of his prices, þat he Water Tyrel,

And a were of þis men, & sold he longer abyde,

þat he sold to þis gæne, tige wot he byde.

R. Gloucester, p. 418.

& anore him in leste, how so ever hind,

Norwyche he sold he Erabishop secred.

R. Brown, p. 208.

I blame him thus, that he considered nought,

In time coming what might him bende,

But on his last present was all his thought,

And for to hanks and boot on every side.

Chaucer. The Clerk's Tale, v. 7954.

Quoth Conscience to þe kynge, Crist to me for bade

Er ich wude suche a wif, wo me þy tide.

First Plowman. Folsen, p. 46.

Lo this my soone it mad the sterc

Of swowen for to take kepe.

For oft tyme a man adrece

Maie se, what after shall betide.

Gower. Conf. Am. book iv. fol. 86.

Wylliam was thrown from his horse, and in great jeopardy of his life, whereof his son Robert hygge ware, was so moved with pite that he rescued his father, and delured him fro from all danger of his encouers; but how so it bryde of the hygge, truth is in that many of his men were slayne, and his seconde son, Wylliam the rede, now hurte. *Fulgan, v. l. C. 222.*

Why wails we then? why wraile we the gods with plaints,

As if some cull were to her bryght?

Slce raigens a goddesse now among the saluts,

That withone was the salst of shephard's light,

And is installed now in beaume light.

Spenser. Shephard's Calendar, November, fol. 56.

As hapless boy, the father's joy and pride!

Alas, we is us, we cannot help thy woe!

Our pity vain: ill may that swain betide

Whose undeserved spite hath wrong'd thee so.

P. Fletcher. Pilgrimage, act. iii.

Fair morning yet betides the Son of God,

After a dismal night; I heard the rack

As earth and sky would mingle.

Milton. Paradise Regained, book iv.

What should these betide

But that our charity be not too slow?

Count, let us those we can to read his notice.

Thomas. Castle of Solitude, can. 2.

Another lesson seek ye, other proof

Of vanity, and lamentable woe

Briding man? *Jago. Edge-Hill, book iv.*

BETIME, } *Be* and *time*; A. S. *tima*. See TIME.
BETIMES, } *By* time; *st.* good time, early time.

Tchille make þe berymen, by tyme schabille jþorge,

þat þou se asait vor þy lythode noore carye nogt.

R. Gloucester, p. 312.

If he bi tyme had gon þork help of his Gascous,

þer sould haf standen non, Philip no Charlous.

R. Brown, p. 264.

This Pandare took the letter and betime

A morrow to his service palliast short,

And fast he swore, that it was passed prime.

Claudian. Troilus, book ii. p. 245.

If thou wouldst serve resorts unto God by times & make thine hable priar to the Almyghy: if thou wouldst live a pure and godly life; shouldst he not wake up into the immediacy, & grow the, the better of righteousness agayne.

Bible, 1551. Job, cap. viii.

If thou wouldst seek unto God betimes, and make thy supplication to the Almyghy: If thou were pure and upright, surely now he would awake for thee and mind the habitation of thy righteousness prosperous.

Bible. Modern Version.

He that goes out betimes in the morning, is more like to dispatch his journey, than he that lingers till the day be spent.

Math. Cont. Christ among the Doctors, li. 29.

When the first rays their cheering crimson shed,

We'll rise betimes to see the vineyard spread.

Parnell. The Gift of Poetry. Solomon.

"I own young woman," said I, "that there are some virtues upon that mind of your's; but there is still one which I do not see represented; I mean that of rising betimes in the morning."

Goldsmith. Citizens of the World, Letter 45.

BETO'KEN, } *Goth. tæcknyan*; A. S. *tæcknian* &

BETO'KENING. } *Dutch tæckenen, betekenen*; Swed.

betekna. To mark.

To mark, to signify, to designate, to notify, to denote, to show, to declare.

See an example from R. Gloucester under BATHINK.

Sich was þe moeyre of Elnescham (our bataille non it nae)

& þer wyl þam Crist wel wile isaid was,

As he seowed betekeninge græliche & gode.

R. Gloucester, p. 360.

For whilst in trouthe bytenketh, chences is soule.

First Plowman. Credo, E. 2.

This sacrament [matrimony] betokeneth the knitting together of Christ and holy church.

Chaucer. The Parson's Tale, v. ii. p. 361.

How that this world shall borne and wende

Till it be full retro his code.

Whereof the tale tell I shall,

In which is betokened all.

Gower. Conf. Am. ProL

The angel which with both his hands lyfted up into heaven swore by the lyving God was Cryst himself clothed in whyght lyeen which betokened that he should in tyme to come be borne of the pure virgin Marie.

Jago. Expo. Daniel, ch. xii.

For he maketh here as though he founde no fault, but in that the significations of the sacraments be not opened and declared unto the people as though if that were done he were content, and that he mocketh not the sacraments, but the mysteries thereof not the betokeninges thereof.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 374.

BETIDE.

RE-

TOKEN.

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And also set about my berce
Two lamps to burne and not to quient
Which shal beraken and reherce,
That my goodwill was neuer spent.
Faustina's Doctor. The Treatment of the Hawthorne.

We are agreed upon this, that the wordes we speake he tokene.
But a token, onlesse it betokene some thinge, is no token.
Jewel. A Reply to M. Harding, fol. 172.

Also to tolerate those things, whiche doo seeme hytter or
greaues (whereof there be many in the life of man, and in fortune)
in such wyse as thou depart not from the state of satore, neither
from the worship persegelinge into a wyse man, betokeneth a
good courage, and also meete constance.
Sir Thomas Elyot. Governour, p. 194.

This rising fear betokeneth well thy mind,
Those arms are folded for thy bloodshed.
Guy. The Shepherd's Week, Pastoral 1.

This, I say, being a current opinion, the wise men would be apt
enough to conclude, that the predest star betokened the birth of
that prince, of whom (as they might easily have heard) it had been
so very long foretold, "There shall come a star out of Jacob,
and a sceptre shall rise out of Israel." *Porteus. Lecture ii.*

BETONICA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class
Didymnia, order *Gymnospermia*. Generic character:
calyx, teeth neuneune; upper lip of the corolla
ascending, lower three-eleff, its tube cylindrical.

The following is the most remarkable species of this
genus.

B. officinalis (Wood Betany) Interrupted,
middle segment of the upper lip notched.

This plant is not uncommonly found in woods in
England. It was formerly in considerable use in
Medicine: the root is an emetic and purgative, and
may be given in doses of about ten grains.

Several species are described by authors. *English
Botany*, 1142; *Botanical Magazine*, 700.

BETORN, *be and torn*, the past part of the verb to
tear. *Goth. tairan*; *A. S. teran*. To pull or rend
maunder.

Or if sought els but death and blood of man
Mought please thy lust, could' come in Brittain land,
Whose hart betore out of his pasting breast
With thine owne hand, or worke wth death thou wouldest,
Suffice to make a sacrifice to please
That deadly minde and murderous thought in thee,
But he who is the selfsame woman was wrapp'd,
Where thou in dismall hower receivest life.

Ferrex and Porrex. Sackville, act iv. sc. 1.

Dic. By my father's soule, Hodge, if I should now be sworn,
I cannot chuse but say thy breech in foule betorene.
Gower. Gesta's Needle, act v. sc. 2.

BETOSS, *be and toss*. Though the etymology is
not ascertained, the meaning is plain, to throw, to
heave, to agitate. *See Toss.*

Mercutius kinsman, noble Countess Paris,
What said my man, when my betrossed soule
Did not attend him as he rode? I think
He told me Paris should have married Juliet.
Shakespeare. Romeo and Juliet, fol. 75.

Saicho being laid in the midst of the blanket, they began to
toss him aloft, and sport themselves with him, in the manner they
were wont to use dogs at Shirone-side. The outcries of the miser-
ably betrossed Squire were so many and so loud, as they arrived at
last to his Lord's hearing, who standing awhile to listen attentively
what it was, believed that some new extremity did approach, until
he perceived at last that he which cried was his Squire.

Shelton. Don Quixote, book iii. ch. 3.

BETRAP, *be and trap*; *A. S. treppan*; *Ger. and
Dutch, trappen, betreppen*; *Fr. attrappen*.

To catch, apprehend, over-reeb, over-take, take
tardy or in the manner. *Cotgrave.*

So excellent a clurke as was he
And other mo that coude fol well presche
Betrapt wet, for aught that they coude teach.
Chaucer. The Letter of Cupide, fol. 328. can. 3.

And that was lose, as it is happed,
Whiche hath her bettes so betrapped,
That shal by all weies acche,
How that they might wisse a speche.
Gower. Conf. Am. book iii. fol. 55.

And therefore Baldwin warne all states take heed,
How they conspire another to betrap,
Lest mischiefment, light in the miners lap.
Mirour for Magistrates, p. 367.

When this was once sayed among the barnes they were in great
heaviness, for they sawe themselves betrapped every way, and to
be in exceeding great danger. *Grayton. Aug John, Ann. 15.*

BETRAP. The glossarist to Gavin Douglas says,
trappings, phaleræ, ornamenta equestris, used also for
other gorgeous ornaments. From the *Fr. draperie*,
from *drap*, cloth. *See ATTRAP.*

After them followed two other chariots covered with red satin,
and the horses betrapped with the same.
Stowe, Ann. 1553. Queen Mary.

BETRASHED. Skinner says *deceptus, proditus*,
deceived, betrayed; or as R. Brunne writes, *betraist*,
from the *Ger. betriegen*; *Dutch, bedrieghen*. *See
BETRAY.*

And in the water anon was sen
His nose, his mouth, his eyen abene
And he therof was all abashed
His owne shadow had him betrashed.
Chaucer. The Remount of the Rose, fol. 123.

BETRAY, } *Ger. trigen, betrogen*; *Dutch,*
BETRAYE, } *driegen, bedriegen*; *Sw. bedraga, de-*
BETRAYING } *cipere, fallere*. Wachter considers
the *Ger. trug, dolus*, to be the root. Spelman, (*See in
Junius*) derives the word *betray* from the *Fr. trahir*,
Lat. tradere. In the *Vulgate*, we find *tra autem homini
illi per quem filius hominis tradetur*. See the passage
cited from *Wielit*. *Trade* is the word constantly used
in such instances.

To deliver up, (*sc.*) any person or thing in our
power upon trust; treacherously; to disclose (*sc.*)
any thing entrusted to us; to disclose, to discover;
also to deceive, to delude.

For my fader Constantyn first he bi trayde amys,
but suerde hym & al just lond from Jo Picaro y wys.
Seyn my knyght Constance he broghte hym to knyght:
For he wolde hym bi trewe, and to slepe bygite.
R. Glouceter, p. 125.

Listen me, Lord Noote, if it be pi will,
How he betrayed my lord, and my soune falle ill,
Whilom Eilred my lord he him betraie to gove,
& my soune Edmunde forgh treason he slough.
R. Brunne, p. 49.

— And fast on hym cryed
And side war for wanape: but we jo by trappe.
Piers Plouhman. Vision, p. 113.

For who so doth, a traytour is certais:
And taketh feys of that I shal you saim;
Of alle treason, soveraign pestilence
Is, when a right betrayeth innocence.
Chaucer. The Doctor's Tale, v. 12023.

And thus upon her acquiescence
He told her plainly all it stode,
Of Rome howe that the grail blode
Is barbaric was betraied.
Gower. Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 34.

BETRAY. And subtle manners soon go with as it is written of him, but we to that man by whom mannae some shall be betrayed it were good to him if think man hadde not be born.

RE-TROTH.

Wiclif. Mark, chap. xiv.

The scene of man goeth, as it is written of him: but we be to that man by whom mannae some shall be betrayed it were good to him if think man hadde not be born.

Bible, 1551.

Ye have well heard of Thebes the gine,
In the betraying of fair Adriane,
That of her pine kept him for his lane.

Chaucer. The Legend of Good Women, p. 317.

Whiche of the prophetes have not your fathers persecuted? and they have slayne the, which shewed before of the coming of that Jost, of whome ye are now the betrayers and murderers.

Geneva Bible. Acts, chap. vii. 52.

Then love is death, and drives the soules to dwell
In this betraying harbour, which like hell
Gives never lacke key boote, and contains

A thousand frelondes, whips, and restlesse paines.

Beverton. Against Alured Lent.

A singular example of wickedness, a lying to be a forsaker of his own army, and a father to be a betrayer of his own children.

Arthur Golding. Justine, fol. 103.

Valerius Maximus writeth, that hee never intertained any of his libertines at supper except Meane, and him naturalized first, even after the betraying of Sex. Pompeius fleet.

Holland. Sotomates, fol. 72.

There is nothing that more betrays a base, ungenerous spirit, than the giving of secret stabs to a man's reputation.

Spectator, No. 23.

Silence came: and Edwin raised his eyes
In tears, for grief lay heavy at his heart.
"And is it thus in courtly life," he cries,

"That man to man acts a betrayer's part?"

Beattie. The Minstrel, book ii.

BETRIM, be and trim. A. S. *tryman*. To set in order, to arrange, to dispose, to deck.

They lanchen with plumed, and tailed brims
Which spangle April, at thy last betrim.

Shakespeare. Tempest, fol. 14.

RETROTH, he and troth, i. e. truth. Goth. *Betrōtment, I. trawan; A. S. trōtson; Dutch, trouwen, betrouwen; Ger. trauen, betrouen.* To traw.

To affiance, to pledge the truth, to promise or vow to keep the truth, or to be true and faithful, to pledge or bind to the true and faithful performance of. Particularly applied to the promise to enter into the marriage contract.

And the betrothed damsel cried: but there was no man to receive her.

Bible, 1551. Deut. chap. xxi.

There might I see how Ver had every blossom bare:
And eke the new betrothed birds complied how they went.
And in their songs me thought they disclosed nature's care.

Surrey. The Fruitful, &c. of Beattie.

The day that David great Goliath slew,
Not great Goliath's word was more his due
Than Merab: by Saul's public promise she
Was sold then, and betroth'd to victory.

Cowley. The Davideid, book iii.

Sometimes acting out the speeches that pass between them, making as it were thereby the betrothments, otherwise declaring the mutual duties, one of them towards another, but especially that mutual love of the bridegroom to his spouse.

Perpetua of the Canities, (1585) p. 5.

'Tis better than their own betrothment,
Who often do't for worse than nothing.

Baile. The Lady's Answer to the Knight.

I leave
My Argilla, this my dear betroth'd,
To fight my country's battles; but return,
I trust in Mars, more worthy of her love.

Glover. Athenais, book ii.

BETRUST, be and trust. In the example of Hall, *betrustr* appears to be used as we now use *betroth*; and no doubt they are from the same source.—In the other examples, as we now use *entrust*.

To believe firmly, to rely thoroughly upon, to confide in, to have no fears, no suspicions of.

Thus poets, painters, and astronomers,
Have given their gifts this subject to define,
Yet are those there, and with them travellers
Not least betrustr among the wortless nine.
Their wordes and wizes are dreamt not divine.

Gargoyles. The Fracts of Warre.

The king by great advice, refused and rescued all things to be done for the more forwardness of the myde matrimony, and elected and chose the repayment all such sommes of money, as for the occasion of the myde betrustrd marriage was paid, and before hande conjointed & delivered.

Hall. King Edward IV. fol. 247.

As for learning waslike in both of them. The father was a man of more craft and policy, but the same was more to be betrustrd.

Arthur Golding. Justine, fol. 49.

This burges was put in feare of his life; he desired to be let passe for his ranome; how be it he was so handled one wayes and other, that he fell in a burgyne to betray the towne of Juyone, and to leave open a certeyn gate: for he was so well betrustrd in the towne, that he kept the keyes when he was ther.

Fraser. Cromwell, v. i. C. 88.

BETTER, v. A. S. *beterian, betrian*, to excell, to surpass, *n.* *surpass*, and *betrian* from *betan*, to *BETTER, adj.* *bend*, to make better, to correct, *re-BETTER, adv.* *pair*, amend, improve. The adjective is used as the irregular comparative of good.

He este to weper dyster betre truste jo,
And noyels he weide agere to jo: offer with muche wo
And hopede for to fynde of here betre menche and grace.

R. Gloucester, p. 33.

A better priest I trowe that noether son is,
He waited after no pompe nor reverence,
Ne maked him no spiced rousceire,
But Cristen lore, and his apostles twelve,
He taught, but first he followed it himselfe.

Chaucer. Prologue, p. 326.

Ya mecht a betere bande, by hyn jat me made
By tynge bevenne and lullie.

Piers Plowman. Fison, p. 46.

Better ys to be glou, and sone vs fro dycelle,
Jan with our so men lyue in seruage so streite.

R. Brome, v. ii. p. 262.

Yet for as much as ye, my lord so dre,
Has alway showed us favoure and grace,
I dare the better sake of you a space
Of audience, to shewe you request.

Chaucer. The Clerk's Tale, p. 737.

Fyrt the fetures of her face,
In which nature had all grace
Of womanlike beaute beaute,
So that it might not be better.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 171.

And whosoe soial scindone con of these lile that bileren in me it were better to him that a myne stoon were done about his necke and he were cast into the see.

Wiclif. Mark, chap. ix.

Besides that thou shalt here at length see many come to the right way and helps with them, and many things that cannot be altogether mended, yet somewhat bettered and more tolerable, so that all righteousness shall not be quenched.

Tyndale's Works, fol. 192.

BE-TRITH.
BETTER.

BETTER. Christ on every side fending those that are his, turneth the delicate attempts of the others, to the profiting and bettering of the person that is recompensed. *Ussell. Last, chap. v.*

BETULA. But blash not thou therefore, thy better have done so, Who thought they had retained a dose, when they but sought a crew. *Vaccarini Doctor. The Lower Jerusalem, &c.*

Thy brooch anon right wool I to thee fet
She brought it him, and charged him full deeper,
When he it took, and no his breast it set,
But then his ring he should it keep;
Lest he the loose bewails should and weep.

Browne. The Shepherds Pipe, ed. i.

But Jonathan, to whom both hearts were known,
With a concurrence equal to their own
(Joyful that Heaven with his sworn love comply'd
To draw that knot more fast which he had ty'd,
With well-tim'd aid, and with an artful cure,
Restor'd, and better'd soon, the nice affair.

Cowley. The Doves, book iii.

But you must know, that Grace is the improvement and bettering of nature; and Christian graces are the perfections of moral habits, and are but new circumstances, formalities, and degrees.

Taylor. Sermon vii. fol. 68.

For either if they esteem their fellows and companions in government to be their equals, they bear themselves first to grow into terms of dissension; or if they take them to be their betters, they fall to be envious; or else in case they hold them to be inferior unto them in good parts, they despise and contemn them.

Holland. Pictor, fol. 305.

Now compare this with Homers, but in my translation; and judge if to both their ends, there be any such betterment in Virgil.

Chapman. Hom. Commentary on Iliad ii.

O most truly beloved lady, to whom I desire for both our goods, that these may be my last words, give me your consent even out of that wisdom which must needs see, that, besides your unsolicited betterance, which perchance you will not see, it is later one else than both.

Sidney. Arcadia, book iv.

So that God by his commandments doth teach men wisdom, and makes them that keep them wiser than other people. Yea, the commandments themselves, by the grace of God, help towards the refining of our knowledge, and the bettering our understandings.

Bretridge. Sermon, p. 99.

Then why should you, whose miracle of art
Can life at pleasure to the dead impart,
Trouble in vain your better-insist hand
To converse what time they're liv'd in, or were dead?

Batter. To the Hon. Edward Howard.

Truth! why, shall my wretch of letters
Dare to speak truth against his letters.

Churchill. The Ghost, book iii.

The letter hand, more busy, gives the nose
Its bergamot, or aids the inclined eye
With op'ra glass, to watch the moving scene,
And recognize the slow-retiring fair.

Gay. Task, book ii.

BETONY (Part's) a species of Veronica.

BETULA, in *Betula*, a genus of plants, class *Monicia*, order *Polypandria*. Generic character: barren flower in a cylindrical catkin, its scales three-flowered petalate; perianth none; stamens ten to twelve. Fertile flower, scale of the catkin imperfectly three-lobed, three-flowered; perianth none; styles two; germens compressed, two-lobed, one abortive; nuts compressed with a membranaceous margin, one-seeded.

The following are the most important species of this genus:

1. *B. alba*; leaves ovato-deltoid acute, doubly serrated, glabrous. This species is the common Birch, a well known native of Britain as well as of the continent of Europe, extending from Lapland as far south as Italy. This tree is remarkable for the silvery colour

of its bark, the smallness of its leaves, and for its general light and airy appearance. The timber, though not much valued, is applied to many uses, it is tough and white, and in some countries it is made into spoons, cups, and plates. The charcoal of this wood is much esteemed, especially for the manufacture of gunpowder. The twigs are used for making brooms and rods. The vernal sap has been used for making wine and beer. *Philosophical Transactions*, No. xvi. p. 963; *Linnæi Flora Suecica*; Evelyn's *Sylva*, by Hunter, 4to. 1776.

2. *B. nana* (Dwarf Birch); leaves orbicular, crenate. *English Botany*, tab. 2326; *Lightfoot, Flora Scotica*, p. 575. tab. 25.

A short shrubby plant, not exceeding from one to two feet in height, it is a native of Scotland and other northern countries. The catkins and seeds are the principal food of grouse, ptarmigan, &c. The *Lapindus* turns this humble shrub to account; it is almost all he meets with in certain situations, that can be converted into fuel for burning, and driving away the gnats; and, when covered with the rein-deer's skin, it serves him for a bed.

There are several species of this genus found in North America particularly described by Michaux. There are sixteen species described by Willdenow. (*Species Plant.*) The *B. lenta*, a native of Canada, furnishes a very beautiful and aromatic wood, used in cabinet-making. The *B. nigra*, a native of North America, is employed by the natives for the construction of canoes, which are found to be extremely durable; the leaves furnish a fine yellow colour.

The Alder, *Alnus glutinosa* of later authors, was formerly considered a species of this genus; but, besides other discriminating marks, it is found to have but four stamens, and is therefore now arranged in the Linnæan system, under *Monocia Tetrandria*.

BETUMLED, be and tumble. *A. S. tumbian*; Dutch, *teymelen*.

To roll, turn about, toss about; throw into disorder, into confusion.

This said, from her betumled couch she starteth,

To find some desperate instrument of death:

But this no slaughter-house no tool imparteth,

To make more rest for passage of her breath.

Shakespeare. The Rape of Lucrece.

BETWEEN, } *Between* (formerly written *twene*, *betwixt*, } *between*, *bytwene*) is a dual preposition, to which the Greek, Latin, Italian, French, &c. have no word correspondent. It is the Anglo-Saxon imperative *be*, and *gothre twain*. *Betwixt* is the imperative *be* and the Gothic *twæ*, or two. *Tooke*, i. 405. See **ATWEEN**.

Separating, dividing, two; shared by two.

The yte of Man put me elegy, by *twene* vs and *Twende*.

R. Gloucester, p. 2.

Full oft bifornhand *twene* þen was distance

For wjnyng of þe laad, þat R. was jorh chance.

R. Browne, p. 186.

And though that chiding be a vilains thing *betwixt* all maner folk, yet it is certes most unconverable *between* a man and his wif, for ther is never rest.

Chaucer. The Pervous Tale, v. li. p. 337.

A fair field ful of folk, *twene* licht *betwene*

All maner of men, þe *twene* & þe *twyne*

Worchyng and wandryng.

Peter Plowman. Fison, p. 2.

BETULA.
—
MY.
TWEEN.

BE-
TWEEN.
—
BEVE-
LAND.

After his mother queen Elyene
He smyle, and so he smyle ben twyne
They treaten that the clear all
Was christened, and she fourth with all.
Geoff. Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 47.

And in alle these thinge a great derk place is establishid here
us and you, that thei that wolen fro henns pence to you moune not,
neither fro thenns pence our lorde.

Wiclif. Luke, chap. xvi.

Beyond all this, *lytense* you & there is a great space set, so
that they which would goe hence to you cannot: neither maye
come from thence to us. *Bible, 1551. Mark, chap. xxi.*

And now it seemes, that shee suborned hath
This crafty messenger with letters valent,
To worke new warre and improuidle death,
By breaking off the band betwixt us twaine.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book I. can. 12.

Never two warriors such a battle struck,
That when the bloody diuall fight was done,
Here in one heap, there in another ruck,
Princes and peasants lay together mixt;
The English swordes no difference knew betwixt.
Dryden. Battle of Agincourt.

But this new Jesus spurs the hot-mouth'd horse;
Instructs the beast to know his owner's force;
To take the bit betwixt his teeth, and fly
To the next heading steep of anarchy.
Dryden. The Medal.

What I speak, my fair Cloe, and what I write, shows
The difference there is betwixt nature and art.
I court others in verses; but I love thee in prose;
And they have my whimsies, but thou hast my heart.
Prior. Answer to Chloë Jealous.

In all governments, there is a perpetual intestine struggle, open
or secret, between authority and liberty; and neither of them can
ever absolutely prevail in the contest.

Hume. Essay. Origin of Government.

BEVEL, Ger. *bevel*, diminutive of *bug* from *lugen*,
to bow, *flectere* in *angulum*.

They that level
At my abuses, reckon up their own;
I may be straight, though they themselves be bevel;
By their sick thoughts my deeds must not be shown;
Unless this general evil they maintain,
All men are bad and in their business reign.
Shakespeare. Sonnet, p. 121.

The same rings are also bevelled off at the upper and lower
edges, the better to close upon one another, when the trachea is
compressed or shortened. *Paley. Natural Theology, ch. 2.*

The BEVEL is an instrument with a moveable tongue
used by carpenters and masons, to strike angles. It
differs from the square and the mitre in being moveable,
wherens they are fixed; the first at 90°, the second at
45°. Hence a bevel angle is any angle not a right
angle.

BEVEL, in *Heraklity*, is a chief broken or opening like
a carpenter's rule.

BEVELAND, NORTH and SOUTH, two islands in the
kingdom of the Netherlands, in the province of Zea-
land, formed by two branches of the Scheldt. The
former is about six miles long and four broad, lies on
the east side of the Island of Walcheren, and is formed
by what the Dutch call the Easter Scheldt. It was so
completely destroyed by a dreadful inundation in
1532, that nothing but the tops of the church steeples
and some of the other buildings could be seen; but
the ground was so much raised by the depositions of
the sea during the following century, that it was
drained and brought again into cultivation. South
Beveland, which is separated from North Beveland by
the island of Wulferdyke, is about twenty-four miles

in length, and varies from five to eight miles in breadth.
This island is represented as one of the most agreeable
of those belonging to Zealand. It contains the town
of Goes, with some villages and forts, and carries on
a trade in corn. Both of them were for a short time
occupied by the British, during the disastrous expedi-
tion to Walcheren in 1809.

BEVER, *v.* } Fr. *beverage*; It. *beveraggio*; from
BEVER, *n.* } noon and evening *compotations*, says
BEVERAGE. } Spelman, in *Academiarum jurisque collegia*, are called
benera. *Beverage* is applied to any pleasant liquid
mixture: formerly to a drink given as a reward for
labour; and even to the expected reward itself.

And here ye quene folk ye kyng Loeryn slowe,
And macle of his folk eche bute hem jst fowe,
So jst a lajer beverage to here bi hof ye jci browe.
R. Gloucester, p. 26.

Je Saturday, in Je Ester wouke, Jys holy man Jil slowe.
Ac vens jst were att dede je beverage bylowe.
Id. p. 399.

Bargemee and beverage, by guane to arjve
And setys so til even myng rang, and song unmyrlye
Til Gloton add yglotted, a gelson and a gylle.
Piers Plouman. Vision, p. 167.

And under the mountain, ben condytes of beverage, that thel
drykenes is the Emperour court.
Sir J. Mandreville. Travels, cap. 20.

Henceforth those fruitless studies spare,
Let's rather drink until we stare
Of this immortal juice of ours,
Which does in excellence precede
The beverage which Gassendi
Into the immortals' goblet pours.
Cotton. Ode Bacchique.

Thou bring'st me on my bare knees, wench, trien in every four
and twenty hours, besides half turns instead of beers.
Ford. Love's Sacrifice, act i. sc. 2.

Which when fill'd
With the sweet liquor the clear spring distill'd,
He gently lifts it to his head, then dips,
Both lute and beverage to his looks and lips.
Shelburne. Salmeria.

The weather also confined so close, that our master sometimes
in four days together could see neither sunne nor starre, and all
the beverage we could make, with stinking water, drops of beere,
and leas of wine which remayned, was but three gallowes, and
therefore now we expected nothing but famine to perish at sea.
Hutchins. Voyages. The second Voyage.

Your gallants oerer sup, breakfast or dinner without me.
Brewer. League, act ii. sc. 1.

A pleasant beverage be prepared before
Of wine and honey, mix'd with added store
Of opium; to this liquor this be brought,
Who swallow'd unaware the sleepy draught.
Dryden. Fainian and Arcite, book ii.

Thine Promos's choicest gift,
The tasteful apple, rich with racy juice,
Thence of thy curied song, Silurian bard,
Affording to the swains, in sparkling cups,
Delicious beverage. *Dodley. Agriculture, can. 3.*

BEVERLEY, a borough and market town in York-
shire, nine miles from Hull and twenty-nine from
York. The site of the present town was anciently
called Dairwold, or the wood of the Deirians. It
afterwards obtained the name of *Beverfisc*, quasi locus
vel lacus Castorum: quia Castoribus Hulla aqua vicina
abundabat. A monastery was founded here in the
eighth century. The Minster is in a state of good

BEVE-
LAND.
—
BE-
VERLEY.

BE-
VERLEY,
—
BEVY.

repair and is a superb building. Beverley sends two Members to Parliament. It contains four parishes; and the population, in 1821, was 6728.

BEVALAY, a post town and seaport in Massachusetts, United States of North America, situated about sixteen miles nearly north-east of Boston. It is connected with Salem by a bridge of about 500 yards in length, has a Bank, and carries on a considerable trade, besides being extensively concerned in the fisheries.

BEVIEUX, a village in Switzerland, celebrated for the salt springs in an adjacent mountain. It stands about three miles from Aigle. The springs rise in the solid rock, and to arrive at them, a gallery, about six feet high and four broad, has been excavated in the mountain, chiefly through a black rock, veined with gypsum. Only a few cubes of rock salt have been found, though the richest of the springs yields 28 per cent. of salt. There are also in the same neighbourhood several sulphurous springs, which inflate on the application of a lighted candle; as well as rocks of white gypsum mixed with bluish clay, like those met with in the salt mines of Northwich in Cheshire. When Mr. Cox visited these mines, the subterranean passage was about three quarters of a mile in length; the brine was collected in large reservoirs made in the body of the mountain, from which it was raised by machinery, and conveyed by pipes to Bevioux, about a league distant, where the salt was extracted. Besides these, the only other salt pits in Switzerland, are in the neighbourhood of Aigle and Hex; but they are much less productive, though the salt is finer than that of Bevioux. The annual produce of both places has been estimated at 20,000 quintals, which is about one tenth or twelfth of the consumption of the country.

BEUTHEN, a lordship and circle in Upper Silesia, created a free harony by the Emperor Leopold in 1697. It joins Poland on the east, and most of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics, and speak the Polish language.

BEUTHEN is also the name of the chief town of the above district, and is frequently called Upper Beuthen, to distinguish it from another place of the same name in Lower Silesia. The town contains several churches and religious houses, and about 1500 Christians, and between one and two hundred Jews; many of whom are engaged in the manufacture of cloth, earthenware, and calamine, besides brewing and some other occupations. About 9600 ewt. of calamine are made in the course of a year at the establishment for that purpose. Beuthen is likewise the residence of the governor of the circle, and the seat of several government offices. It is a little more than thirty miles north-east of Ratibon, in latitude 50° 18' N. and longitude 16° 53' E. Lower Beuthen is likewise a considerable town situated on the Oder, and contains a population of between two and three thousand individuals. It stands in a fertile country, and has about fifty small vessels engaged in the trade of the river; and is noted for its breweries.

BEVY, a word of unknown etymology. Skinner says, *It. beva. Perdicam tratio*, perhaps, because they are accustomed to drink together, from the Italian *bevve*; Lat. *bibere*, to drink. In the gloss upon the passage quoted from Spenser, it is said, "A bevie of ladies, is spoken figuratively for a companie or a troop; the term is taken of larks. For they say a

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bevie of larks, even as a covey of partridges, or an eye of pheasants."

BEVY, in the language of sportsmen, is now confined to quails.

And whither rennes this bevie of ladies bright,
ranged in a rove?

They been all ladies of the lake beight,
that onto her goe.

Spenser. Shepherd's Calendar. April.

Come bright girls, come all together,
And bring all your off rings hither,
Ye most brave and buzom key
All your goodly graces key.

Drayton. Nymphs viii.

Fool, to whose care dost thou thy grief impart?
What dost thou say, or know'st thou where these art?
She, 'midst a dawning day of fair lights,
Trips it away, and thy misfortune slight.

Sherburne. Forsaken Lydia.

Rain'd stars shone with baby fires; the bride,
Lovely herself (and lovely by her side
A key of bright nymphs, with sober grace.)
Came glittering like a star, and took her place.

Drayton. Ovid's Metamorphoses, book xii.

A meadow fresh in green,
Between the sea-beat margin and the walls,
Which bore the island's celebrated name,
Extended large; there oft the Attic fair
In Arcus met.

Gloucester. The Athenais, book v.

BEWA'IL, } Be and wail. Serenius says from
BEWA'ILINO. } the *Isl. wala*; Goth. *wail*, *plancitas*;
waila, *wociferari*. In the absence of all further aid from
the etymologists, a conjecture may be allowable. The
old English *scalamay*, so common as an expression of
grief and lamentation, is in the A. S. *scala wæ*; woe,
to woe. By the omission of the repetitious *wæ*, we
have *scala*, (also used as an expression of grief in the
A. S.) and by the union of these two words, *wala*;
whence may have originated the verb, to wail.

To wail, to bewail, to deplore, to lament, to bemoan.

Wel can Sevek and many a philosopher
Bewailen time, more than golden coffer.

For losse of tyme sheweth us, good be.

But losse of tyme sheweth us, good be.

Chaucer. The Man of Lawes Prologue, v. 4445.

And thus in all the haste he maie

He toke his leue, and forth he waileth.

Wepead and she herself bewaileth,

And tomoze home there she cum fro.

Guere. Conf. Am. book iv. fol. 96.

Queen hunger thou with meatis was chasit away,

And dishis drawin, lang with long sermon they

Bewaild their feris loit on the stide.

G. Douglas. Eneidos, book i. p. 19.

And whanne he came to the hoos, he misdeide no man to eue
with him, but Petre, Jon and James; and the felle and modir of
the damysel. And alle wepen and beweyden hir, and he rilde,
ayle ye wepe, for the damysel is not ded but slepeth.

Wiclif. Lohr, chap. viii.

Sith that the way to welth is wo,

And after paine is pleasure prest

Why shouldest thou thus despise us,

By bewailing mine woe?

Francis Bacon. The Lure thinks as paine, &c.

He also made a treatise about the same time, called *placitas*
animi virginitatis, a bewailing of maydenhood lost.

Bates. Falgout, part ii.

Nor without reason is't (alas!) that I

To stars and sands bewail my misery;

For with my state they some proportion bear,

And woeberish as are my woes appear.

Sherburne. Forsaken Lydia.

37

BEWAIL.
BEWARE.

But afterwards one of his familiar friends who had seen and
known Victoria there, mourning and bewailing exceedingly above
the rest, as she stood betwixt her daughter in law and her little
nephew: If mine eim he watches (quoth he) and deceive me
not, here is your mother, your wife, and children.

Heland. Lilies, fol. 70.

Sir Richard finger'd two or three days, and then died aboard
the General, who greatly bewailed his loss.

Old's Life of Raleigh, fol. 61.

And, if I must bewail the blessing lost,
For which our Hamptons and our Sidney's bled,
I would at least bewail it under skies
Milder, among a people less austere;
In scenes which, having never known me free,
Would not reproach me with the loss I felt.

Cowper. Task, book v.

BEWAKE, he and wake. A. S. *awacian*, *wacian*, to
wake or watch, to put upon the watch. See AWAKE.

I wote that night was well bewaked.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 103.

At his role his w-i-ake,

To wit wise men to awake.

The Songs Rages, in Weber.

BEWARE, A. S. *geacwian*, *warian*; Dutch, *waeren*.
To look at or after, to take heed, to be cautious, to be
upon the guard, to guard against, to avoid, to shun.
With respect to *ware* and *beware*, as used in the exam-
ples from the seventh book of Gower, and in the first
from the Ancient Popular Poetry of Ritson, Junius
observes that it may be from *waeren*, to guard or ward
with care, because *waeres* (*mercenaria*) are anxiously
warded or guarded. Ritson explains it, to expend, to
lay out.

git wild he not le war jer bi, so provide he was in herte,
till he was wounded he jrid tyme, and died also warre.

R. Bruns, p. 3.

Beware from lre that in thy bosom slepeth,
Woe for the serpent, that so dilly creepeth
Under the gras, and slingeth subtilly.
Beware, say none, and berken patiently.

Chaucer. The Sompnours Tale, v. 7375.

Holy writ hit men le war, and misliche hem kepe
That no fals frend, þow falsyng hem bygile.

Piers Planchman, p. 216.

I fele a greet experience,
Wherof to take an evidence
Good is, and to beware also
Of the perill or harm he we.

Gower. Conf. Am. book i. fol. 14.

I shall the telle a reddy tale,
Now berken, and le war therby,
For I will tell it openly.

Id. 2d. book v.

For who that hath his wit bewared
Upon a flatterer to believe,
Wan that he swooth best schidre
His good worde, it is moote fro.

Id. 2d. book vii. fol. 176.

Þame, he seyde, be goddis are,
Hast any money thou woldst warre,
How a Merchandise dyd hyr Wyfe betray, p. 70.

Þame, he seyde, be goddis are,
Here is thy paymewe of woe
If thou thynke hyt not wole beest,
Gyt hyt another can be warr kytt lett.

Id. p. 78.

For M I rede, uch men be warr,
And lre or woe or wrodes þewe,
So þat no stine or soull forlure,
Whan þat ur lyf hap taken his leue.

Holman. Ancient Songs, 46.

Whi undirmondes ye not for I wote not to you of breed; be ye
war of the sour dough of Pharisees and Sadducees.

Wiclif. Matthew, chap. xvi.

Why perseue ye not then, that I spake not unto you of breade,
when I sayde, beware of the leuen of the Pharisees and of the
Sadducees.

Bible, 1551.

As Chasly, not withstandinge this message of the duke, held on
his lowery countenance new unto a woode, he was suddenly met of
a man byc into a begger, which sayde unto hym, "Whyther goest
thou sir kynge? I be wote thou goest no farther, for thou arte
betrayed, and into the handys of thyne enemyes thyne owne meynys
shall deliuer the."

Falgon. Anno 1395.

Plato told to Dion that of all things in the world he should
beware of that folly, by which men please themselves, and dispise
a better judgment. Because, that folly hath in it singularity, and
is directly contrary to all requisites of a friendship, or the en-
tertainments of necessary regard.

Taylor. Sermon xxv. fol. 247.

An honest man may take a knave's advice,
But idiots only may be cozen'd twice:
Once warn'd is well bewar'd, not flattering lies
Shall sooth me more to sing with waking eyes
And open mouth, for fear of catching flies.

Dryden. The Cuck and the Fox.

He that negotiates between God and man,
As God's ambassador, the great concerns
Of judgment and of mercy, should beware
Of lightness in his speech.

Cowper. The Task, book ii.

BEWCASTLE, a rectory in the county of Cumber-
land, in the gift of the dean and chapter of Carlisle.
It is supposed to have been a Roman station, garrisoned
by part of the *Legio secunda Augusta*, for security of the
workmen employed upon the great wall. Many anti-
quities have been here discovered, and among them is
a celebrated carved and inscribed obelisk still remain-
ing in the church yard. The present name of the
village is derived from Bueth, Lord of the manor at the
time of the conquest, who repaired the Roman castle.
This castle was destroyed by the Parliamentary troops
in 1641. Two schools are endowed in the parish. The
masters have the privilege of the *Whittle gale*, a custom
in these northern counties, entitling schoolmasters to
visit in rotation the residences of their scholars, and
there to receive a supply of victuals. Population, in
1821, 1813. Poor's rates, in 1803, at 5s. 4d. 7s. 6d.
BEWDLEY, a market town in Worcestershire, in-
corporated by James I. It returns one Member to
Parliament. The principal manufactures of the town
are tanning, works in horn, and the Dutch or sailor's
caps. Population, in 1821, 3725.

BEWDELEY, a market town in Worcestershire, in-
corporated by James I. It returns one Member to
Parliament. The principal manufactures of the town
are tanning, works in horn, and the Dutch or sailor's
caps. Population, in 1821, 3725.

BEWEEP, A. S. *weapan*; to shed tears. "Beweepe,
to weep, to weep for, to bewail, to lament, to bemoan,
to deplore. Sommer."

And therefore with Job to God, suffer, Lord, that I may awhile
beweile and beweepe, or I go without returning to the darke house,
ycovered with the darkness of death.

Chaucer. The Parnassus Tale, v. li. p. 229.

So that all Rome his dethe beweepte,

Gower. Conf. Am. book vii. fol. 158.

A voice was heard, an high weeping, and mythe weying, Rachel
by weeping her soanes and she wote not be comforted for that
ben not.

Wiclif. Matthew, chap. li.

On the hylls was a voice heard, mourning, weyinge, and
greet lamentation; Rachel weyinge for her children and would
not be comforted, because they were not.

Bible, 1551.

Robert Lowmze yf some tyme had ben abbot of Ramsey, and
then bishop of Thelwode, by gyfte of a M. li. in the kynre, re-
pentid hym after, and bewepid yf raskyfull dede, and take his way
to Rome, and dyd for it his enyoyed penance.

Falgon, v. l. c. 225.

Many he cleved unto the mdel;
He it bypocrit that lay in cradel;

Weber, v. i. p. 152.

BEWARE.
BEWEEP.

BEWEEP.

BE-
WEVED.

That I also in this calamide
Alone was left, and to my selfe might plaime
This trouble, and this wretched cowardise,
And the with teares besweepes and complaines
My hateful hap, still looking to be alone.

Memoir for Magistrates, p. 447.

Where prayers shall continually be made
By pious lovers passing by that way,
With *anapha*'s and shepherds' early moan,
His timeless death besweeping.

Dryden. Pastoral, Eccl. li.

BEWET, be and wet. A. S. *scetan*. To wet, water,
or moisten. Sommer. Swe. *wäta*.

His napkin with her true tears all beswet,
Can do no service on her sorrowful cheekes.

Shakespeare. Titus Andronicus, fol. 41.

The sun was set; the night came on apace,
And falling dews beswet around the place.

Gay. The Shepherd's Week. Pastoral li.

BEWHAPED. *Awhaped*, Mr. Tyrwhit says, is con-
founded, stupefied. Skinner. From the A. S. *wehpan*.
To amaze or astonish. See *AWEARE*.

And thus bewhaped in my thought,
When all was turned into night,
I stood amazed for a while.

Gower. Conf. Am. book viii.

BEWHORE, be and whore. Dutch *hoeren*; Ger. *huren*. "Hoor, I find this anciently written *hure*, and I find *hure* to be also used and written for the word *hyre*, and because that such incontinent women do commonly let their bodies to *hure*, this name was therefore aptly applied unto them." *Versteegan*, c. 10. Tooke affirms *whore* to be the past participle of A. S. *hyran*, to hire. The word, he adds, means simply (unless some one, any one) hired. How, or when, or by whom, the *H* was first absurdly prefixed, he knows not.

ÆMIL. Alas (Jago) my lord hath so bewhored her,
Throwne such spite, and heavy tenners upon her,
That true hearts cannot bear it.

Shakespeare. Othello, fol. 332.

————— You are not quick to grief.
Your hearing's a dead sense. Were yours the loss,
Had you a daughter, perhaps bewhored,
(For to what other end should come the thief?)
You'd play the wifely then, be loud and high.

Bonnett and Fletcher. The Maid in the Mill, act iii. sc. 1.

BEWEVED. The Goth. *bi-waigyan*, (*Luke*, xix. 43.) is rendered by Junius *concarere*; and he observes that as our clothes constrain and confine us all around, *bi-waigyan* began to be used for *anxius*, to throw round. A. S. *wefan*, *weofan* = Dutch, *weven*; Ger. *wehen*. To clothe, to involve, to infold, to inwrap.

Hyre rycche cloþes were of ydo, þate þat heo was *bywæved*
Hyre body wyf a mannel, a wympel aboute her beved.

R. Gloucester, p. 338. v. 1.

Bywæved hit were bothe mid Waleise mastles tæles.

Id. vol. ii. p. 539.

The crowne, of gold *bywæved*,
His fader pruned his prouesse,
Of the crowne and of the richesse.

Æng. Abbotter, in Weber, vol. i. p. 16.

It is also *rad* of *hyra*, that a colure hure a scroole writes in
Eaglynye, this wyrd, and let it fall from hyr upon the water of
seynt Petyr, in Rome, wherof the wordys were these: "At Clent
i. Conlarche Kenelme Kaasberm lyeth vnder thorne, bewyrd
"wyrd" which is to meane, in Eaglynye, now wyrd, at Clent
in Corvate, vnder a thorn, lyeth Kenelme, helles, slayne by
frankle.

Fulgenz, v. l. C. 155.

BEWILDER, be and *wilder*. A word of comparatively modern origin. "Wilder," Tooke says, "is *wilted*, *wild'd*, (or self wilted) is opposition to those (whether men or beasts) who are tamed or subdued, (by reason or otherwise) to the will of others or of societies." A wild or wilderness is applied to a place unshrubbed or uncontroled, or unrestrained by the reason of man. To be *bewildered* is to be in the state of one, who finds himself in a *wild* or *wilderness*; at a loss which way to go; puzzled, perplexed.

Much more sweet thy labouring steps to guide
To virtuous heights, with wisdom well supply'd,
And all the magazines of learning furnish'd:
From thence to look below on human-kind,
Bewilder'd in the maze of life, and blind.

Dryden. Lacerius, book ii.

The ways of heaven are dark and intricate;
Puzzled in mazes, and perplex'd with errors,
Our understanding traces them in vain,
Lost and *bewilder'd* in the fruitless search.

Addison. Cato, act i. sc. 1.

First fear his hand, its skill to try
Amid the clouds *bewilder'd* laid,
And back recoil'd, he knew not why,
E'en at the sound himself had made.

Colinus. Ode. The Pastors.

They were *bewildered* by their passions, and by their want of knowledge, or want of consideration of the subject.

Burke. Observations on a late State of the Nation.

BEWYMPLED. *Wimpelen*, to veil, to cover with a veil, to infold, to involve. Kilian.

And sought about with his hands
That other hodie tyll that he founde,
Where late bewympled a viage:
That was he glad in his courage.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 122.

BEWINTER. Goth. *wintraz*; A. S. *winter*; Ger. Dutch, and Swe. *winter*. All without doubt, Skinner says, from *wint*, because in that season above all others the winds rage.

Yet how do tears but from such vapours rise?
Tears that *bewinter* all my eyes?
The fate of Egypt I sustain,
And never feel the dew of rain,
From clouds which in the head appear.

Cowley. Sleep.

BEWITCH,
BEWITCHER,
BEWITCHERY,
BEWITCHFULL,
BEWITCHING,
BEWITCHMENT.

Be and witch. A. S. *wiccan*,
wiccanare, *wiccegaia* uñ. To en-
chant; to use sorcery; *wiccere*
or witches were in foottime
named *lat-tellers*. Tellers of hidden
things. See Tooke, ii. 513.

When I record within my wailing mind,
The noble names of wights *bewitch'd* in love
Such solace for myselfe therein I find
As nothing maye my first fancies move.

Garrigue. The Lover Encouraged.

There were y^e tripple the great faunt and glory of Tindall
dreadlike prowde disputious hearte, to drille and rauiue in the
effusion of such proper blood as hye personned booke had mis-
erably *by-witch'd*, and from trewe chouris folke, turned into
false wicked wretches. *St. Thomas More's Works*, fol. 354.

And honour, glory, praise, renowne and fame,
That men's proud hearts *bewitch* with tickling pleasure,
An echo in a shade, a dream, a flower
With each wind blown, spoil'd with airy shower.

Pharfax. Godfrey of Bruggen, book xiv. st. 63.

3 T 2

BE-
WILDER.
—
BE-
WITCH.

BE-
WITCH.
BE-
WONDER.

O foolish Galathians : who hath bewitched you that ye should not believe the truth, to whom Jesus Christ was crucified before the eyes, and among you crucified.

Bible, 1351. *Galathians*, ch. iii.

O foolish Galathians, who hath bewitched you that you should not obey the truth, before whose eyes Jesus Christ hath been evidently set forth, crucified among you ?

Bible. *Modern Version*.

Come, come away, frail, ill, fleshly wight,
No vain words bewitch thy manly heart,
No duncish thoughts dimmy thy constant sight,
In heavenly merries hast thou not a part ?

Spenser. *Faire Queen*, book i. can. ix. fol. 43.

But to forsake the causes wherefore we love her for the desire
and love to prolong our life as it were for three daies in this deceitful
world, and to be separated from God the author of life, is such a
bewitching and furious madness, that I know out with what words
we ought to expresse and shew it.

Calvin's Four Godly Sermons.

I will not here with an allegory applied to our type touch
our spiritual Magus and subtle sorcerers (enchanters) and
bewitchers.

Jeps. *Exposition Daniel*, ch. v.

I will counterfeit the bewitchment of some popular man, and
give it beautiful to the delvers : Therefore beseech you, I may
be censured.

Shakespeare. *Coriolanus*, fol. 12.

There is on the other side both ill more bewitchfull to entice
away, and natural yeres more swaying, and good more available
to withdraw to that which you wish me.

Milton. *Life*, fol. iv.

The truth is, he who shall duly consider these matters, will find
that there is a certain bewitchery, or fascination in words, which
makes them operate with a force beyond what we can naturally
give an account of.

South. *Sermons*, v. ii. p. 337.

All that time that his brains are turgid and full of this humour,
he is wonderful eloquent, and bewitchingly taking.

Holwell's Account of Familiar, p. 106.

Do not suffer yourselves to be cheated and bewitched by sensual
satisfactions, and to be destroyed by ease and prosperity.

Tillotson. *Sermons*, liv.

Let me observe, that although elision, when natural, was anciently
the mark of bewitchery and magical fascination, and to this day
'tis a malignant ill look.

Spectator, No. 220.

Heavy rents not in one fix'd place,
But seems to reign in every face ;
'Tis nothing more but fancy then,
In various forms, bewitching men.

Parnell on the Number Three.

Death was his dread ; nor was it in the pow'r
Of loves bewitchment, or in money'd show's,
Of Venus, Joviter, or all the fry
Of Homer's law's to bless the man to die.

Bryson. *Critical Remarks on Horace*.

Bewits, in *Fulcrum*, pieces of leather with which
the bells are fastened to the legs of hawks.

BEWONDER, be and wonder. Ger. *wunder* ; Dutch,
wonderen ; Swe. *wundra* ; A. S. *wundron*, to marvel.
Sommer. Of unknown etymology. See *Wonder*.

To be surprized into a state of stupefaction.

And there we beheld one of the cruellest fights between two
knights, that ever hath adorned the most martiall story. So as I
must confess, a while we stood *bewondered*, another while delighted
with the rare beauty thereof ; till seeing such streams of blood, as
threatened a drowning life, we galloped toward them to part them.

Sidney. *Arcadia*, book ii.

The other seeing his astonishment

How he *bewondered* was and how he feared,
And suddenly by name the prince gan call
By which awak'd that he spoke *wonder*.

Fairfax. *Godfrey of Boulogne*, book x. st. 17.

BEWRAP. Skinner is inclined to think from the
A. S. *acrapfen*. To turn, to return ; because the
thing *incrapfen* is frequently turned, and returned, is
drawn around the thing *enrapfen*.

To involve, to enfold.

This Miles, Forest and John Dighton sought mydnight, the
ely children lyghe in their beddes, came into y^e chaire and
suddenly lapped them up amongst the clothes, and so *acrapfen*
them and entangled them *keeping* down by force the featherbed
and pillows harde unto their mouths that with a while they
mored & stifled them.

Hall. *King Richard III.* fol. 28.

His sword that many a Pagan stout had shent,

Bewrap with flowers, hung idly by his side,

So nicely decked, that it seem'd the knight

Wore it for fashion sake, but not to fight.

Fairfax. *Godfrey of Boulogne*, book xvi. st. 36.

O wretched wight *enrapfen* in webs of woe,

That still in dread was lost from place to place,

And never foundest means to end thy race.

Murray for Magistrates, p. 32.

There is no man of so low estate, that he canst not to
conquer his person with some sort of disguise. And the
number of them is infinite, that for to grow in more grace &
deceypte, be not contented or take it to be sufficient to *enwrappe*
it in gold, purple & delicate silkes, except they travayle strange
countries of the world, for to get stones, most rare and precious,
and employ them to the curiouse of theyr eyes tyrannye.

Nesbit. *Thauleides*, fol. 5.

BEWRAY, or BERAY. Serenius thinks from *Isl.*
hrá, a corpse, *cadaver*. Skinner says, perhaps, from
the verb *array*, *vestire* (i. e.) *consecrare*, *conferre*. It
is probably from the A. S. *urigan*. To cover, (sc. with
dirt, with filth.) And thus to signify

To dirty, to befoul ; to bespatter with dirt.

Let them that do so, understand, that they *beray* & filth their
hands more, when they lay them on any other man than their own
husbands than though they blacked them in soote.

Fires. *Instructions of Christian Women*, book i. c. 3.

But the event will shew that with many sluggish and igno-
rant viers be (Ethereal) quickly shamed his out-side ; born and prolong'd
a fatal mischief of the people, and the ruin of his country ; whereof
he gave early signs from his first infancy, *enwraping* the foot
and water while the bishop was baptizing him. Whereat Dunstan
much troubled, for he stood by and saw it, to them that him
broke into these words, " by God and God's mother, this boy will
prove a *belegard*." *Milton*. *History of England*, book vi.

Tenets they had none to cover them : nor medicaments to heal
the wounded ; and dissolving their seats partly stained with blood
or *berayed* with dirt, they bewailed their valiant darkness ; and
that only dale left for so many thousands to live.

Greenway. *Tactica*, fol. 27.

Being, as it were, in a small puddle of mire, the (the moon)
is but a little sullied or *berayed* therewith, and so quickly getteth
forth of it.

Holmd. *Pistarch*, fol. 206.

BEWRAY, } Serenius thinks from the Goth.
BEWRAY, } *urwagan, arcwagan* ; in A. S. *uragan*,
BEWRAYING. } *uragan*. To accuse ; i. e. according
to our present usage, to inform or be an informer ;
a betrayer. Ritson supplies an example of the use of
the simple word *wrap*.

O messenger, full of drunkenness

Strong is thy breath, thy language falter ay,

And thou *berayed* all secernance ;

Thy mind is torn, thou janglest as a jay.

Chaucer. *The Mon of Love Tale*, v. 5181.

And thus when loss is eill woe

Full oft it cometh to repentance,

My sader that is so meruall

Wash that the cover is *berayed*.

Gower. *Conf. Am.* book v. fol. 122.

BEWRAY.

BEX.

Nay master, as meke I thee,
Ye schall newe be wroget for me,
I had her dede to be
As here of to be knowe,
Good gosp.

Now cometh bewraying of counsel, though which a man is de-
fenced; certain unethic may be restore damage.
Chaucer. The Pervane Tale, v. ii. fol. 339.

Then I of force no longer may
In covert love my pining flame,
Which ever doth itself bewray
But yeelde myself to fancies frame.
Turciville. The Lover confesseth himself, &c.

For when in sighs I spent the day,
And could not cloke my grief with game,
The howling snake did still bewray
The greatest heat of secret flame.
Scurry. The Restless State of a Lover.

I do not say yf thou shouldst bewray thyself publicly, neither
that thou shouldst accuse thyself to others, but I would have
thee obey the prophet, saying: revere thy way unto the Lord.
Barnes. An Epitome of his Works, fol. 307.

For the darkness of the world doth oftentimes strive against
the light, which the world hateth as the bewray of his works,
and that darkness doth ever growe as darkness the beams of many,
but against this lively and eternal light it could nothing prevail.
Edall. John, cap. i.

But know, Grimbaldi, tho' (may be) thou art
My equal in this blood, yet this bewrays
A loveness in thy mind.

Ford. 'Tis Pity She's a Whore, act i. sc. 2.

If you could mayntayne every place, or manie of the places, I
dare say you would, but surely I commend your rhetoricke. Those
places that you would come to give some countenance unto,
bewray your lacke of abilitie to defend either them, or the route.
Walgaffe. Defence, fol. 61.

Besides, that when a friend is turned into an enemy, and (as the
son of Sirach calls him) a bewrayer of secrets, the world is just
enough to accuse the perfidiousness of the friend, rather than the
indecision of the person who confided in him.

Spectator, No. cccxv.

BEWREKE. Goth. *wreken*; A. S. *wrekan*; Dutch,
wreken; Ger. *recken*. To pursue, to persecute, to
punish, to avenge, to revenge. See WAKAK.

The strokes thou strook'st, hurt me not at all,
For why, thy strength was nothing in respect,
But thou hadst both thy sword in payson all,
Which did my wound, so deadly else infect.

Yet was I for I parted thence bewreckt,
I gane my sword from thee, for all thy fame;
And made thee flee, for fear to eate the same.

Mirror for Magistrates, p. 120.

I wote me off hym to bewrecke,
That at the world theroff schal speke.

Richard Coeur de Lion, in Weber.

He was right sore displeased, and had many a hard ymagi-
nacion agaynst the hostages of France, that were styll with him at
Lodon. Howeve he thought it shuld be a great crueltie, if he
shuld bewreke his displeasur on them.

Frontenart. Cronycle, v. i. C. cxxvii.

BEWROUGHT. A. S. *wyrcon*, to work; past par-
ticipie *worht*, and by transposition *wroht*.

Where they maidens, and their makes,
At dancings, and wakes,
Had their maykins, and poetes,
And the wipers for their weares,
And their smocks all bewrought
With his thread which they brought.

Ben Jonson. The Masque of Queens, fol. 128.

BEX, a large village in Switzerland, situated near
the Rhooe, in the canton of Vaud, and in the district of

Aigle. It formerly belonged to the canton of Bern,
and the salt-works to that neighbourhood, with the
great pass into Italy, render it a flourishing place.
Near this village there is a bridge of a single arch
throwing across the Rhooe. As it is environed on all
sides with stupendous mountains, it is considered one
of the most important passes into the Valais. It is a
little more than forty miles nearly south-west from
Bern, in latitude 46° 47' N. and longitude 6° 59' E.

BEY, a military title among the Tatars, spelled Beg
by the Turks, and Belg by the Persians, which might
be translated General or Commander, as it properly
belongs to the chiefs who hold large grants of land on
military tenure, according to the feudal system estab-
lished throughout the Turkish Empire. These Bays
have the command over all the individuals in a certain
district, who hold lands on the same tenure; and the
latter are called *alghas* or soldiers (*seapoys*), and in
our books *zaims* and *timariots*, from the different sort
of estates which they hold in fee. The Bays are them-
selves under the command of superior officers called
Alai-Begs (Commanders of Troops) who have each a
distinct flag and trumpet; and a *Jeri-bashi* (Captain),
Jeri-surej (Corporal), and *Sibshahi* (Sergeant) under
immediate orders, who have particular lands assigned
to them on which they are obliged to reside, that they
may be ready to perform their military services when-
ever called upon. The Alai-Begs, are subordinate to the
Sanjak-Begs (i. e. Bays who have the command
over a large district called *sanjak* or standard), and the
whole body are under the Beyler-Begs (or *Pashas*)
(i. e. Chiefs of Chiefs), who may be termed *Viceroy*s,
as their authority, within the limits of their provinces,
is almost without control. The Chiefs of the Mam-
lukes, or soldiery in Egypt, were called Bays; and
held the different provinces in fee under the *Pasha*,
just as the Sanjak-Begs do under the Beyler-Begs in
the rest of the empire. (Von Hammer's *Osmenische
Reichs Staatsverfassung*, Wieso, 1815. i. 370.)

BEYETE. Skinner says, "No bit, oo whit." The
meaning is probably this, the *beget*, the *get*, the *gato*,
the possession, the advantage.

So that thou lost the *beget*
Of worship, and of worldly ptes.
Lower. Conf. An. Praelege, fol. 6.

The proude vice of vainglorie
Remembreth ought of purgatorie,
His wordes joyes been so great
Him thinketh of heven no *beget*.

Id. Bk. book i. fol. 23.

BEYOND. *Beyond* (in the A. S. *withgeondan*, *bigend*,
begond) means to pass. It is the imperative be com-
pounded with the past participle *geand*, *geond*, or *geand*,
of the verb *gan*, *gangan*, or *gengan*. To go, to pass. So
that "beyond any place," means "be passed that place,"
or "be that place passed." Tooke, i. 408.
Beyond expectation; *be expectation passed*, *sur-
passed*.

Ye kyng of Northumburle kyng was ich vadersende
Of al þo lond bigende Hamber aunc in to Scotlande.

R. Gloucester, p. 6.

Ion Mouncelle þe clerke, & an erle Richere,
And oþer knyghtes inowe of bigend þe me,
To þe kyng drowe, auncer wild þe be.

R. Brunsar, p. 214.

Ybome he was in for contrer,

In Flandris, al beynde the seyn.

Chaucer. The Rime of Sir Thopas, p. 13648.

BEX.

BEYOND.

BEYOND.

[He] *Depends* Athlone the high hills
Those mountains sought.

Querc. Conf. d.m. book i. fol. 10.

BEZOAR.

And the Cretene men, that dwellers *beyond* the sea, in Greece,
saw that the tree of the cross, that they callen cyprusse, was the
tree that Adam ate the apple of.

Montesville. Travels, ch. ii.

There is a place *beyond* that flaming hill
From whence the stars their this appearance shod,
A place *beyond* all place, where never ill,
Nor impure thought was ever harboured.

G. Fletcher. Christ's Victory and Triumph

If we can find in our hearts to take our leave of sin, if we can
disengage our selves from the witcheries of present allurements;
if we can but get over the threshold of virtuous conversation, we
shall find the rest *beyond* expectation smooth and expeditious.

Burrow. Sermon xvii. 3.

And be it so: let those deplore their doom,
Whose hope still grows in this dark sojourn:
But lo! souls, who look *beyond* the tomb,
Can smile at fate, and wonder how they mourn.

Beattie. The Minstrel, book i.

BEYRAMITCH, a city of Asia Minor, in the
peach of the Dardanelles, from which it is distant
about forty miles. It stands in the district of Trana,
is an extensive place, and the houses are better and
more regularly built than those in Constantinople.
Various antiquities are met with in this town and its
neighbourhood, and many are converted into ordinary
purposes in the streets. They are chiefly composed
of blocks of granite obtained about six miles from the
town, on the road to Mount Gargarus. The ruins of
a temple have also been recently discovered, about
six miles from Beyramitch, where the Turks have
made extensive excavations apparently in search of
treasures.

BEZIERS, or BARRANS, a large ancient town of
France, in Lower Languedoc, standing in a fertile
and beautiful country, near the canal of that name.
It was formerly a Bishop's see, but this has been sup-
pressed. The town is well built, and the site is highly
pleasant and salubrious. The surrounding country is
one of the most romantic and beautiful in the south
of France. The valley of the Orbe, which the town
overlooks, is bounded by hills, which rise like an am-
phitheatre, and are covered with vines and olives to
their summits. The beauty of the view from the
town, is also increased by the eight sluices of the
grand canal, which form as many fine water-falls.
Besides the cathedral, there is a collegiate church,
several religious houses, and two hospitals. Beziers
contains about 14,400 inhabitants, and carries on a
good trade in almonds, wine, oil, brandy, corn, wool,
and silk; and has manufactures of cotton, furian,
and other stuffs, stockings, earthenware, brandy,
and leather. An Academy of Sciences was founded
here in 1723; and the salubrity of the climate causes
it to be the resort of numerous invalids and foreigners.
It stands thirty-eight miles south-west of Montpellier,
in lat. 43° 30' N. and long. 3° 17' E.

BEZOAR, Persian, *pearl* a *goat*, or *po-nchar*
against poison. A concretion or calculus, of an orbicu-
lar or oval form, met with in the bodies of various
animals. These substances are found in the stomach,
gall bladder, salivary ducts, and pines gland, but espe-
cially in the intestines of certain animals of the order
Ruminantia. They were formerly celebrated for their
supposed medicinal virtues, and distinguished by the

names of the countries from which they came, or
the animals in which they were found. They were
considered as highly alexipharmic, so much so, that
other medicines supposed to possess the same virtues
obtained the name of *Bezardicus*. So efficacious were
these once thought, that they were eagerly bought for
ten times their weight in gold. Besides being exhi-
bited internally, they were worn around the neck, as
preservatives from contagion; for this purpose, it is
said that in Portugal it was customary to hire them at
the price of about ten shillings per day. On analysis,
these substances are found to contain, for the most
part, bile and resin. It is almost needless to add,
that the accounts of their extraordinary virtues must
now be considered as totally fabulous.

A strange origin was assigned to the Bezoar by
some of the old naturalists. The oriental stags, when
oppressed with age and infirmity, were said to feed
upon serpents, which effected their rejuvenescence.
To counteract the poison which by this means was
absorbed into their system, they plunged into some
running stream, leaving their heads only above water.
In this situation a viscous fluid distilled from their
eyes, which was indurated by the heat of the sun, and
formed the Bezoar. The curious reader will find this
history gravely affirmed by Theophrastus (*Ans Veteri-
naria*, l. i.); and judiciously proposed as somewhat am-
biguous by Andreas Mattioli (*Comment. in Diosco-
ridem*, v. 73.) This *lacryma cerri* is accurately described
by Solymann to Sambiancardus, from whose son,
Bernard, the sage received it. His words are these:—
"Aste consernum annuum in cervo nulla est lacryma:
post eam atatem accrescit: ad oculi cantum, ipis
oculis atque in os protrahens concretis, ed durit,
quod cornu superet; quod parte prominet rotunda est,
insigni nitore, coloris fulvi, non sine vestigiis acro-
rum venularum: tantis levitate ut pene tactum
fragiet. Ita enim esse subtrahit ut propemodum se
ipsum submoerere videatur. Adversus venena remedium
præstantissimum. Peste corruptis datur cum vini mo-
mento, unde tantus cietur sudor, ut pene totum solvi
corpus credas. (*De Subtilitate aduersus Cardium*
Ezerr. 1812.)

The great value of the Bezoar at one time gave birth
to many imitations of it, and various tests have been
proposed to detect the artificial stones. One is offered
by Clusius to the following purpose:—thread a
needle, and draw the thread through a leaf plucked
from a yew tree; then pass the aedide through a
dog's foot and leave the thread in the wound; when
the dog becomes convulsed and appears dying, mix
some scrupings of Bezoar with water and moisten the
animal's mouth with it: if he recover the stone is
genuine. Simpler methods perhaps are, immersion in
warm water, which neither loses its own colour nor
diminishes the weight of the Bezoar; or rubbing it
over paper smeared with chalk or quicklime; the
genuine stone leaves a yellow hue on the first, a green
one on the last.

Much more, if the reader seeks for more, may be
found concerning the real and imaginary virtues
of the Bezoar in the following authors:—Rauhin
(Gaspard) *De lapidis Bezoar orientalis et occidentalis*
cervini item et germanici, ortu, natura, differentiis, veroque
usu, ac veterum et recentiorum placitis, 8vo. Basilæ,
1613; Rolfinch (Werner) *De lapide Bezoar Diss. resp.*

BEZOAR.

BIAZOR.

BIA-
FARA.

J. E. Schmidt, *4to. Jenæ*, 1685; Schneider (Coors Victor) *De lapide Bazar*, *Diss. 4to. Vitembergæ*, 1673; Langemann (Georgius) *De Frenibus et erroribus circa lapidem Bazar*, *Diss. 4to. Lugd. Batav.*, 1696; Sievogt, *De lapide Bazar*, *Diss. 4to. Jenæ*, 1698; Vost, *De lapide Bazar*, *Diss. 4to. orientali*, *Diss. 4to. Erford.*, 1707.

BEZZLE. Skinner suggests among other things that it may be *bezzle*, to act the beast. Its connection with imbezille is not very clear from the senses of the two words. Chaucer writes *embecille*. *Mary Magdalen*, v. 270. "they must *embecille* his presence," i. e. filch or steal it (sc. the body of Jesus), from the French, to steal, to filch. But the application of *bezzle* seems always the same with that of *guzzle*.

Oh mee! what odds there seemeth 'twixt their chere
And the swolne belly at an house fyre,
That tomes in gullions to his burthen pynne!

Whose ally thought his draught can never stande.

Hall, Satires, book v. sat. ii.

MATH. You, 't'hoat, I wonder how the inside of a tavern looks now. Oh! when shall I *bezzle* be?

REL. Nay, see thou art thirsty still for prison; come, I will not have thee swagge. *The Heaver Where*, *Doblar*, act i. sc. i.

Thus walks he up and stows in his Majesty, taking a yard of ground at every step, and stamps on the earth so terrible, as if he meant to knock up a spirit, whose (foolish drunken bezzle) if an Englishman set his little finger to him, he falls like a hog-troth that is set on one end.

Pierce Plowman. His Supplication to the Devil, 1592.

Our great clerks think that these men, because they have a trade, (as Christ himself, *Paul*) cannot therefore attain to some good measure of knowledge, and to a reason of their actions, as well as they that spend their youth in idleness, *bezzling*, and harlotting, their studies in inappetible questions and barbarous sophistry, their middle age in ambition and idleness, their old age in enervation, dotage, and senility.

Milton. Animal upon Remnant. Def.

BIAFARAS, an African people inhabiting the country between the parallels of 11° and 12° N. lat. and the meridians of 13° and 14° W. long. on the banks, and to the north of the Rio Grande. The extent and history of their country are very imperfectly known. They were expelled by the neighbouring tribes from Balama and the coast, about 150 years ago; and are a mild, peaceable, inoffensive, but rather feeble race, held in great contempt by the more fierce and warlike Bijungas, their constant and successful enemies. Quick, lively, and intelligent, the Biafaras seem to be well adapted to second the benevolent efforts made by many of our countrymen for the improvement of Africa. Had not the colony, established on the island of Balama, been so unhappily ruined by the sickness and misconduct of the European settlers, this people would have been better known and raised higher in the scale of civilization. Their chief towns are Goli, Gonfode, Gbinada, or Inala, and Bulola, all on or near the Rio Grande; and the Portuguese are the Europeans with whom they carry on the most extensive trade. Their numbers are inconsiderable, not exceeding 20,000 on the largest calculation, and thus affording a population for the whole nation, inferior to that of a second-rate town in Europe. To form an estimate of the numbers of such tribes must be difficult, from the various impediments arising from haste, ignorance of the language, fear of exciting alarm, and other checks upon the traveller's inquiries; we need not therefore be surprised at the discordant accounts which different writers have given in this and similar cases.

BIAFARA or **BIAFRA**, is also the name of another

kingdom on the same coast, but much farther to the south. It seems doubtful whether it now extends to the sea, and it has more than once changed its place in our maps, having been little visited by Europeans, at least by such as keep any notes respecting the countries they visit. The older writers say that it extended to the Rio dos Camarões (Shrimp River), in lat. 4° N. to the Rio de Gabon, about half a degree to the north of the line. The Calhanges were the northern neighbours of these Biafras, who seem to have been as treacherous and savage as their namesakes near Balama were mild and gentle; for European traders have been driven from the Rio dos Camarões by the perfidy and cruelty of the people of Malimba, near which the ancient capital of the Biafras stood. See *Dapper's Africa*; *Durand's Voyage au Senegal*; *Labat's Voyage de Loquille*; *Beaver's African Memoirs*; *Bowditch's Ashantee*.

BIALA, a town of Galicia, in the Austrian Empire, situated on a river of the same name, and opposite to the town of Bilix, in Upper Silesia, with which it is connected by a bridge. The chief support of the population, which is nearly 3000, is the manufacture of linen and other cloths. Many Germans settled here during the last century; and for the encouragement of trade, it was created a free town in 1780.

BIALYSTOCK, or **BIALISTOK**, a town in European Russia, in the government of Grodno, which formerly belonged to the Polish palatinate of Podlacia. It was the capital of this part of the country when it belonged to Prussia. It contains an elegant castle with fine gardens; and is in general superior to many other of the Polish and Russian towns. The whole population includes about 5000 individuals, among whom are many German settlers. The greater part of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics, though intermixed with both Lutherans and Jews, and even a few Mohammedans. Lat. 53° 3' N. long. 28° 30' E. *Fr. bisin*, or *bisiny*, or *bisinyer* } To crook, stand aloof, to fetch
Bi'as, n. } a compass, go away, make about.
Bi'as, adv. } Cotgrave. Meoage says from
Bi'as, adv. } the Italian *bien*, and the *it. bien* from *biaculus*. The editor of Meoage, "that the old Gallie *bisny* resembles the English *bisny*." It is used metaphorically, for,

To turn away, from a right, fair, impartial judgment.

Alot is an hearse which hath the resemblance of the sea onion, but that it is bigger and the leaves be more green and fat, chambered or channelled *bisn* all along. *Holland. Plin.*, l. 31. 571.

Plato, *Pythagoras*, and *Aristotle* hold that this is occasioned by the obliquity of the sodack circle through which the sun passeth near. *Id. Ptolemy*, fol. 674.

We cannot allege her oblique and *bisny* deviation. *Id. R.* fol. 953.

In this extant moment, faith and truth,
Strain'd purely from all hollow *bis-drawing*
Bids thee with most diuine integrity,
From heart of very heart, great Hector welcome.

Shakespeare. Troilus and Cressida, fol. 98.

Rhyssall, with no other real quality than courage, had dissimulation enough to put upon his generous and unassuming master for a person of black beauty and fidelity, without any vice that could have him from the execution of justice.

Spectator, No. 451.

When we determine angles concerning the obligations incumbent upon us in respect of other men; 'tis by reason of that strong weight of self-love, which like a *bisn*, inclines, and secretly sweeps our minds towards that side on which our own interest lies.

Afterbury. Screen l. vol. i.

BIA-
FARA.
—BIAS.

BIAS.
—
BIBLE.

I am of opinion, there has not, for these many years, appeared any thing more finished of the kind; I, indeed, my great affection for him, and the praises he bestowed upon me, do not bear my judgment.

Melmoth. Piny, letter xviii. book iv.

If you suppose a dye to have any bias, however small, to a particular side, this bias, though, perhaps, it may not appear in a few throws, will certainly prevail in a great number, and will cast the balance entirely to that side.

Hume. The History of Arts and Sciences, Essay xiv.

BIB, n. } From the Lat. *biber*, however small, to a particular side, this bias, though, perhaps, it may not appear in a few throws, will certainly prevail in a great number, and will cast the balance entirely to that side.
BIB, v. }
BIBBER, } over the breast of an infant, that it
BIBBING, } may imbibe, the overflowing liquid." A
BIBBLOU, } man who drinks much, frequently, is called a *bibber*, a tippler, a sot.

This miller hath no wily *bibbed* ale,
That as an hour he smothereth in his pipe.

Chaucer. The Reeve's Tale, v. 4160.

And other abhorreth his brother because he is a great *bibber*, whereas he himself hath in his heart a number of murders and sorceries.

Edict. Matthew, ch. vii.

The Sea of Man is come eating and drinking, and ye say, behold, a gluttonous man, and a wine-bibber, a friend to publicans and sinners.

Bible, Mat. Fer. Luke, ch. vii. v. 34.

This person (J. Weytasse) died in a manner distracted, occasioned by a deep conceit of his own parts, and by a continual drinking of strong and high tasted liquors.

Wood. Athena Oxon. li. fol. 367.

Demosthenes made his complaint unto him, that where he had taken more pains than all the orators besides, and had almost even worn himself to the bones with study, yet he could by no means devise to please the people: whereas other orators that did nothing but sit all the day long, and mariners that understood nothing, were quietly heard, and continually occupied the pulpit with orations.

North. Plutarch, fol. 701.

Six legions he left in garrison among the Gauls, under the charge of one Varus, a companion of his that would drink lustily with him, and therefore in mockery was surnamed Cytion, to wit, a *bibber*.

Id. fol. 761.

We'll have a *bib*, for spoiling of thy doublet;
And a fring'd mockender hang at thy girdle;
I'll be thy name, and get a curd for thee,
And a fine ring of bells.

Bonaventura and Fletcher. The Captain, act iii. sc. 5.

But only fools, and they of vast estate,
The extremity of modes will imitate,
The dangling knee fringe and the *bib-crown*.

Dryden. Prologue spoken at the opening of the New House.

B'BLE, } *Biblat* size *biblan*, is an Egyptian plant
B'BLACAL, } of which a material for writing upon was made. *Bible* is applied by pre-eminence to the holy scriptures. Chaucer furnishes usages of the word as applied to any book.

It raine in a storie, þe *Bible* may not lise,
Jut God gaf þe maistrise to þe childe of Mathabe.
R. Browne, p. 290.

Of his diete measurable was he,
For it was of no superfluities,
But of gret nourishing, and digestible.
His studie was but litel on the *Bible*.

Chaucer. The Prioress, v. 437.

But sought will I to note I thine
Be about to discipline
All those wrenes that they wren
That they then on her cootes wren
For to me were impossible
Men might make of hem a *Bible*.

Id. The House of Fame, book iii.

Strow'd *bibulous* above I see the sands,
The pebbly gravel next, the layers then
Of mingled moulds, of more retractive earths.

Thomson. Autumn.

Er's mimes, at whose age their mothers were
The bookkeeping and the job, assume the dress
Of womanhood, fit pupils in the school
Of card-devoted time, and night by night
Plac'd at some vacant corner of the board,
Learn every trick, and soon play all the game.

Cooper. Task, book iv.

Bis, in Zoology, the English name of the *Gadus Luscus*.

BIBERACH, a town in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, in the district of the Danube. It stands in a pleasant valley, on the river Riess, in the circle of Suabia, and was once a free town of the empire. The population exceeds 4000, many of whom are Lutherans; and the chief subsistence of the town is derived from agriculture, manufactures of linen, cotton, woollen, and leather, with a trade in salt. Biberach was made an imperial town at an early period, and has suffered greatly by the wars of the last two centuries. It was taken by the Swedes in 1634, by the Bavarians in 1709, and by the French in 1796, while in the autumn of the same year a bloody engagement took place in its vicinity, between the Austrians, under the command of Latour, and the French, under Moreau, in which the latter were victorious. In 1807, Buonaparte assigned the town and territory of Biberach to the Elector of Baden, who transferred them to the King of Wirtemberg in 1806. A much frequented warm bath is situated about a mile from the town, which is eighteen miles nearly south-east of Ulm, in latitude 48° 7' N. and longitude 9° 49' E.

BIBBLE-BABBLE. Merely *babble-babble*. See an instance from Sir Thomas More in *BABBLE*.

The errors committed in this kind have been the cause why there is found so little wit and understanding; and contrivance so much tongue and *babble-babble*, such vain clattering about words in young men throughout the schools.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 47.

Mahullo, Mahullo, thy wits the beacons redden; endeavour thy self to sleep, and leave thy vain *bible-babble*.

Shakespeare. Twelfth Night, li. fol. 271.

B I B L E.

Yet forgoe I to makeen verbaile
Of waters corousif, &c.

To tell all, wold passen any *Bible*,
That o wber is.

Chaucer. The Channces Yvonne's Tale, v. 16322.

But what is this I see, Satan himself with a *bible* under his arm, with a text in his mouth, it is written, he shall give his angels charge over thee?

Heif. Com. Christ Trampled, v. li. fol. 41.

In every town where he came, [he] explained to them the contents of the *Bible*; declaring, that therein was set forth the true and only God, and his mighty works; that therein was contain'd the true doctrine of salvation through Christ; with many particulars of miracles and chief points of religion.

Oldy. Life of Raleigh, ix. xi.

I trust that the natural patrons of liberal learning, I mean, societies founded for the advancement of religious knowledge and the higher ecclesiastical, will soon enable every scholar to command this inestimable treasure [the Syriac Manuscript].

Newcastle. On the Twelfth Minor Prophets, Preface.

BIBLE.

BIBLE, is applied by Christians, in eminence, to the collection of Sacred Writings, or the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament, as being the "Book," the "Book of Books," from its superiority to all other books. By the Jews, the Bible (that is the Old Testament, which, only, they acknowledge to be divinely inspired) is called מִקְרָא (mikra), that is the *Lesson*, or *Lecture*.

The list of books contained in the Bible is called the Canon of Scripture. Those books which are contained in the list or catalogue, to which the name of Canon has been appropriated, are termed canonical, by way of distinction from others which are called deuterocanonical, or apocryphal; and which are either not acknowledged as divine books, or are rejected as spurious for the reasons already stated in the article APOCRYPHA.

This sacred volume is that on which the Jewish and the Christian religions are founded: as the evidences of its credibility and divine inspiration are discussed in another part of this work, the present article will contain a sketch of the literary history of the Hebrew Bible, or an account of its canon and divisions,—manuscripts and printed editions,—versions, ancient and modern,—and of polyglott Bibles, or editions of the Bible accompanied by several versions.

§ 1. History of the Canon of the Hebrew Bible.—Its Divisions.

History of
the Canon
of the
Hebrew
Bible.

The Hebrew Bible, or Old Testament, comprises those books which were written previously to the birth of Jesus Christ. With the exception of a few Chaldee words, (occasionally inserted in the historical and prophetic writings after the Israelites became acquainted with the Babylonians,) and also of a few passages in Chaldee, occurring in Jer. x. 11., Dan. li. 4 to the end of ch. vii., and Ezra, iv. 8 to vi. 19, and vii. 12—17, these books are written in the HEBREW language. The first canon or collection of them was made by the Jews; but by whom it is impossible now to ascertain. It is, however, certain that the five books of Moses, called the PENTATEUCH, were collected into one body within a short time after the death of the Hebrew Legislator; because the book of Deuteronomy, which, in effect, is an abridgement and recapitulation of the other four books, was deposited in the tabernacle near the ark, agreeably to the command he gave to the Levites. (Deut. xxxi. 24, 26.) Here it was kept, not only while the Israelites remained in the wilderness, but afterwards, when they were settled in the land of Canaan. To the same sanctuary were consigned, as they were successively produced, the other sacred books, which were written before the building of the Temple at Jerusalem; and, after the completion of that edifice, Solomon directed that these books should be removed into it; and also that the future compositions of inspired men should be secured in the same holy place. We may therefore conclude that the respective works of Jonah, Amos, Hosea, Joel, Micah, Nahum, Zephaniah, Isaiah, Jeremiah, Habakkuk, and Obadiah, (all of whom flourished before the Babylonian captivity) were regularly deposited in the temple. On the capture of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar, and the consequent destruction of the Temple, the autographs of the sacred books are supposed to have perished; although some learned men have conjectured that they were preserved, because

BIBLE.

it does not appear that the conqueror evinced any particular enmity against the Jewish religion; and in the account of the sacred things carried to Babylon (2 Kings, xxv., 2 Chron. xxxvi., Jer. liii.) no mention is made of the sacred books. If, however, they were destroyed with the Temple, it is certain that there were at that time numerous copies of them; and we cannot doubt but that some of these copies were carried by the Jews to Babylon. For,—not to insist upon the known reverence of that people for the Hebrew Scriptures, which moreover were too much dispersed to render it credible that all the copies were lost or dispersed,—we find the prophet Daniel, when in captivity, referring to the law as then existing, (Dan. ix. 11, 13.) and also (ix. 2.) expressly mentioning the predictions of Jeremiah, which he could not have done if he had never seen them. On the rebuilding, or rather on the finishing of the Temple, in the sixth year of the reign of Darius, the Jewish worship and sacrifices were fully re-established by Ezra according "as it is written in the Law of Moses," (Ezra, vi. 18.) which would have been impracticable if Ezra had not been in actual possession, either of the original manuscript of the Law, or of a copy so well authenticated, as to leave no doubt of its accuracy in the minds of the people. But that which still more clearly proves that the Jews must have had transcripts of their Sacred Writings during, as well as subsequent to, the Babylonian captivity, is the fact, that when the people requested Ezra to produce the Law of Moses, (Neh. viii. 1.) they did not entreat him to get it dictated anew to them, but to "bring" forth "the Book of the Law of Moses, which the Lord had commanded to Israel."

About fifty years after the rebuilding of the Temple, By whom the reestablishment of the Jewish religion, it is generally admitted that the canon of the Old Testament was settled: but by whom this great work was accomplished, is a question on which there is a considerable difference of opinion. On the one hand it is contended, that it could not have been done by Ezra himself; because, though he has related his zealous efforts in restoring the law and worship enjoined to the Jews, yet on the settlement of the canon he is totally silent; and the silence of Nehemiah, who has recorded the pious labours of Ezra, as well as of Josephus who is diffuse in his encomiums on him, has further been urged as a presumptive argument, that he could not have collected the Jewish writings. But to these hypothetical reasonings we may oppose the constant tradition of the Jewish church,—uncontradicted both by their enemies and by Christians,—that Ezra, with the assistance of the members of the great synagogue, (among whom were the prophets Haggai, Zechariah, and Malachi,) collected as many copies of the Sacred Writings as he could find, and from them set forth a correct edition of the canon of the Old Testament, with the exception of his own writings, the prophecy of Malachi, and the Book of Nehemiah; which were subsequently annexed to the canon by Simon the Just, the last of the great synagogue. In this Esdrine text, the errors of former copyists were corrected; and Ezra added in several places, throughout the books of this edition, whatever appeared necessary to illustrate, correct, or complete them. Whether Ezra's own copy of the Hebrew Scriptures perished in the pillage of the Temple by

BIBLE. Antiochus Epiphanes, is a question that cannot now be ascertained: nor is it material, since we know that Judas Maccabeus repaired the Temple, and replaced every thing requisite for the performance of divine worship, (1 *Macc.* iv. 36—39.) which included a correct copy, if not that of Ezra himself, of the Scriptures. This copy remained in the Temple until the destruction of Jerusalem and the subversion of the Jewish polity by the Romans under Titus, when it was carried in triumph to Rome, among the other spoils which had been taken at Jerusalem. (Pridenax's *Connection*, part I. book v. sub anno 446; Josephus, *de Bell. Jud.* lib. vii. ch. v. sec. 5.; Horne's *Introduction to the critical Study of the Scriptures*, vol. ii. part i. ch. iv. sec. 1.)

Thus, while the Jewish polity continued, and for nearly five hundred years after the time of Ezra, a complete and faultless copy of the Hebrew canon was kept in the Temple at Jerusalem, with which all others might be compared. And it is worthy of remark, that although Christ frequently reproved the rulers and teachers of the Jews for their erroneous and false doctrines, yet he never accused them of any corruption in their written law or other sacred books. And St. Paul reckons it among the privileges of the Jews, that "unto them were committed the oracles of God," (Rom. iii. 2.) without intimating or insinuating that they had been unfaithful to their trust. After the final destruction of Jerusalem by the Romans, there was no established standard of the Hebrew Scriptures; but, from that time, the dispersion of the Jews into all countries, and the numerous converts to Christianity, became a double security for the preservation of a volume held equally sacred by Jews and Christians, and to which both constantly referred as to the written word of God. Though they differed in the interpretation of these books, they never disputed the validity of the text in any material point.

The various books of the Hebrew Scriptures were divided by Ezra into three parts or classes, viz. the *Law*, the *Prophets*, and the *Cetubim* (or *Hagiographa*); that is, the Holy Writings: this division obtained in the time of Jesus Christ (*Luke*, xxiv. 44.) and is also noticed by Josephus (*contr. Apion.* lib. i. sec. 8.) In the following terms, though he does not enumerate the several books. "We have," he says, "only twenty-two books, which comprehend the history of all former ages, and are justly regarded as divine. Five of them proceed from Moses; they include as well the *Laws*, as an account of the creation of man, extending to the time of his (Moses') death. This period comprises nearly three thousand years. From the death of Moses to that of Artaxerxes, who was King of Persia after Xerxes, the *Prophets*, who succeeded Moses, committed to writing in thirteen books what was done in their days. The remaining four books contain *Hymns* to God, (the *Psalms*) and instructions of life for man."

The Law.

1. The *Law* contained the five books of Moses, viz. 1. *Genesis*; 2. *Exodus*; 3. *Leviticus*; 4. *Numbers*; and 5. *Deuteronomy*. It is not known when the writings of the Jewish legislator were divided into five books; but, as the titles of them are evidently of Greek origin, it is not improbable that they were prefixed to the several books by the authors of the Greek version, now generally known by the appellation of the Septuagint.

The Prophets.

2. The writings of the *Prophets* comprised, 1. *Joshua*;

2. *Judges* and *Ruth*; 3. 1 and 2 *Samuel*; 4. 1 and 2 *Kings*; 5. 1 and 2 *Chronicles*; 6. *Isaiah*; 7. *Jeremiah* and *Lamentations*; 8. *Ezekiel*; 9. *Daniel*; 10. The twelve minor prophets; 11. *Ezra*; 12. *Nehemiah*; and 13. *Esther*.

3. The *Cetubim*, or Holy Writings, contained, 1. The *Cetubim*. *Psalms*; 2. The *Proverbs*; 3. *Ecclesiastes*; and 4. The *Song of Solomon*.

The sacred books were thus divided, that they might be reduced to the number of letters in the Hebrew alphabet, which amounts to twenty-two: at present the Jews reckon twenty-four books in their canon of scripture. In this division, the *Law* stands as before; and the *Prophets* are divided into the *former* and *latter* prophets, with regard to the time when they respectively flourished. The former prophets contain the Books of *Joshua*, *Judges*, and 1 and 2 *Samuel*, and 1 and 2 *Kings*; the two last being each considered as one book. The latter prophets comprise the writings of *Isaiah*, *Jeremiah*, *Ezekiel*, and the twelve minor prophets, whose books are reckoned as one. The reason why Moses is not included among the prophets is, because his eminence and dignity, he so far surpassed all those who came after him, that they were not accounted worthy to be placed on a level with him; and the Books of *Joshua* and *Judges* are reckoned among the prophetic books, because they are generally supposed to have been written by the prophet Samuel. The *Cetubim*, or *Hagiographa*, consist of the *Psalms*, *Proverbs*, *Job*, *Song of Solomon*, *Ruth*, *Lamentations* of *Jeremiah*, *Ecclesiastes*, *Esther*, *Daniel*, *Ezra* and *Nehemiah*, (reckoned as one) and 1 and 2 *Chronicles*, which also are reckoned as one. In the modern copies of the Hebrew Scriptures, the *Song of Solomon*, *Ruth*, *Lamentations*, *Ecclesiastes*, and *Esther*, are placed immediately after the *Pentateuch*, under the name of the five *Megilloth* or volumes. This order, however, is not always observed, but the variations from it are unimportant. (Leusden, *Philologia Hebraea*, Diss. ii.; Bp. Cosins' *Scholastical History of the Canon*, ch. ii.)

The order of the books of the Old Testament, as Of the they are arranged in the editions of the Latin Vulgate version, according to the decree of the Council of Trent. (See 3.) is as follows: *Genesis*, *Exodus*, *Leviticus*, *Numbers*, *Deuteronomy*, *Joshua*, *Judges*, and *Ruth*; 1 *Samuel* or 1 *Kings*; 2 *Samuel* or 2 *Kings*; 1 *Kings* otherwise called 3 *Kings*; 2 *Kings* otherwise called 4 *Kings*; 1 *Ezra* (as this book is termed in the Septuagint and Vulgate versions,) or *Ezra*; 2 *Ezra*, as we do denominate it, *Nehemiah*; **Tobit*, **Judith*, *Esther*, *Job*, *Psalms*, *Proverbs*, *Ecclesiastes*, *Song of Solomon*; **The Book of Wisdom*; **Ecclesiasticus*; *Isaiah*; *Jeremiah* and **Baruch*; *Ezekiel*, *Daniel*, *Hosea*, *Joel*, *Amos*, *Obadiah*, *Nahum*, (which book in our editions is placed immediately after *Micah*, and before *Habakkuk*.) *Jonah* (which we place immediately after *Obadiah*); *Micah*, *Habakkuk*, *Zephaniah*, *Haggai*, *Zechariah*, *Malachi*, *1 *Maccabees*, and *2 *Maccabees*. Those books, to which asterisks are prefixed, are deservedly rejected by Protestants as apocryphal.

The *Pentateuch* was anciently divided, by the Jews, Jewish division of the into fifty or fifty-four *Pentateuch* or larger sections, according as their year is simple or intercalary; one of which is still read in the Synagogue every Sabbath books, day. Many of the Jews suppose this division to have

Classification of the modern Jews.

Council of Trent.

BIBLE been appointed by Moses, but it is by others attributed, and with greater probability, to Ezra. These paraphrases were further subdivided into smaller sections, termed *Niderin* or orders. Until the persecution of Antiochus Epiphanes, the Jews read only the Law; but the reading of it being then prohibited, they substituted for it fifty-four *Haphtoroth* or sections from the prophets. Subsequently, however, when the reading of the Law was restored by the Maccabees, the section which had been read from the Law was used for the first, and that from the Prophets, for the second lesson. These sections were also divided into *Psukim* or verses, which have likewise been ascribed to Ezra; but, if not contrived by him, it appears that this subdivision was introduced not long after his death: it was probably intended for the use of the Targumists or Chaldee interpreters. After the return of the Jews from the Babylonian captivity, when the Hebrew language had ceased to be spoken, and the Chaldee became the vernacular tongue, it was usual to read the Law, first in the original Hebrew, and afterwards to interpret it to the people in the Chaldee dialect. For the purpose of exposition, therefore, these shorter periods were very convenient. It is worthy of remark, that the same practice exists, at the present time, among the Karaites, at Synphernopol, in Crim-Tartary; where the Tartar translation is read after the Hebrew text.

Modern
divisions of
the Old
Testament.

The divisions of the Old Testament, which now generally obtain among biblical critics, are four in number, viz. 1. The *Pentateuch* or five books of Moses; 2. The *Historical Books*, comprising Joshua to Esther inclusive; 3. The *Doctrinal or Poetical Books* of Job, Psalms, the Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, and the Song of Solomon; and 4. The *Prophetical Books* of Isaiah, Jeremiah with his Lamentations, Ezekiel, Daniel, and the twelve minor prophets. These are severally divided into chapters and verses, to facilitate reference, and not primarily with a view to any natural division of the multifarious subjects which they embrace: but by whom these divisions were originally made, is a question concerning which there exists a considerable difference of opinion.

Origin of
chapters.

That they are comparatively a modern invention, is evident from their being utterly unknown to the ancient Christians, whose Greek Bibles had *Τίτλοι* (*Titles*) and *Κεφάλαια* (*Heads*); but the intent of these was rather to point out the *sua* or contents of the text, than to divide the various books. They also differed greatly from the present chapters; many of them containing only a few verses, and some of them not more than one. The invention of *Chapters* has, by some, been ascribed to Lanfranc, who was Archbishop of Canterbury in the reigns of William the Conqueror and William II.; while others attribute it to Stephen Langton, who was Archbishop of the same see in the reigns of John and Henry III. But the real author of this division was Cardinal Hugo de Sancto Caro, who flourished about the middle of the thirteenth century, and wrote a celebrated commentary on the Scriptures. Having projected a concordance to the Latin Vulgate version, by which any passage may be found, he divided the entire Bible into chapters, which are the same we now have: these chapters he subdivided into smaller portions, which he distinguished by the letters A. B. C. D. E. F. and G., which are placed in the margin at equal distances from each other, according to the

length of the chapters. The facility of reference thus afforded by Hugo's divisions, having become known to Rabbi Mordecai Nathan (or Isaac Nathan, as he is sometimes called,) a celebrated Jewish teacher in the fifteenth century, he undertook a similar concordance for the Hebrew Scriptures; but, instead of the marginal letters of Hugo, he marked every fifth verse with a Hebrew numeral, thus at 1. 5. &c. retaining, however, the cardinal's divisions into chapters. This concordance of Rabbi Nathan was commenced A. D. 1438, and finished in 1445. The introduction of *Verses* into the Hebrew Bible was made by Athias, a Jew of Amsterdam, in his celebrated edition of it printed in 1661, and again in 1667. He marked every verse with the figures in common use, except those which had been previously marked by Nathan with Hebrew letters, in the manner in which they at present appear in Hebrew Bibles. By rejecting these Hebrew numerals, and substituting for them the corresponding figures, all the copies of the Bible in other languages have since been marked. (*Horne's Introd. to the Crit. Stud. of the Scriptures*, vol. ii. part i. ch. iv. sec. 1.)

§ II. Manuscripts and Printed Editions of the Hebrew Bible.

Hebrew Bibles are either manuscript or printed. The *Manuscripts* have been divided into two classes, viz. *autographs* or those written by the sacred authors themselves, which have long since perished; and *apographs* or copies made from the originals, and multiplied by repeated transcription, and which vary in value according to their antiquity. The manuscripts still extant, are either in the form of rolls which are used in the synagogues, or square, which are used by private individuals.

The Law of Moses being held in the profoundest veneration by the Jews, various regulations have been made, from time to time, for the guidance of the transcribers, who were obliged to conform to them, in copying the rolls destined for the use of the Synagogue. The date of these regulations is not known; but they are long posterior to the Talmud: and though many of them are the most ridiculous and useless that can well be conceived, yet the religious observance of them, which has continued for many centuries, has certainly contributed in a great degree to preserve the purity of the Pentateuch. The following are a few of the principal of these regulations:—The copies of the Law must be transcribed from ancient manuscripts of approved character only, with pure ink, on parchment prepared from the hide of a clean animal, for this express purpose, by a Jew, and fastened together by the strings of clean animals. Every skin must contain a certain number of columns of prescribed length and breadth, each column comprising a given number of lines and words. No word must be written by heart or with points, or without being first orally pronounced by the copyist: the name of God is not to be written but with the utmost devotion and attention; and previously to writing it, the pen must be washed. The wax—or the redundancy—of a single letter, the writing of prose as verse, or verse as prose, respectively vitiates a manuscript; and when a copy has been completed, it must be examined and corrected within thirty days after the writing has been finished, in order to determine whether it is to be approved or rejected. These rules, it is said, are observed to the present day by the persons

BIBLE

BIBL. who transcribe the sacred writings for the use of the Synagogue. The square manuscripts, which are in private use, are written either on vellum or on paper, of various sizes. Those which are copied on paper, are considered as being the most modern; and, if written in the rabbinical Hebrew character, are invariably of recent date. The best manuscripts are those copied by the Jews of Spain, which are written in beautiful characters, like those in the Hebrew Bibles printed by Bomberg, Stephens, and Plantin. The manuscripts, transcribed by the Jews of Germany, are less exact and beautiful: the characters in which they are written, resemble those of the editions of Munster and Gryphius. The manuscripts of the Italian Jews hold a middle place between these two classes. The pages, in all of them, are usually divided into three columns of various lengths; and the initial letters are frequently illuminated and ornamented with gold. In many manuscripts the Masora is added; what is called the *larger Masora* being placed above and below the columns of the text, and the *smaller Masora* being inserted in the blank spaces between the columns.

Masora. This Masora is a system of critical notation, designed to mark how tradition taught the true reading of the Hebrew Scriptures. The text of the Sacred Books, it may be proper to remark, was originally written without any breaks or divisions into chapters and verses, or even into words; so that a whole book, as written in the ancient manner, was in fact but one continued word. The Hebrew books having undergone an infinite number of alterations by successive transcriptions, during the lapse of ages, (whence various readings had arisen) the Jews had recourse to a canon, which they judged to be infallible, in order to fix and ascertain the reading of the Hebrew text; and this rule they called *Masora* or tradition, as if this critique were nothing but a tradition which they had received from their successors. Some, indeed, have ascribed this system of notation to Moses; others, to Ezra and the members of the great Synagogue, and their successors, after the restoration of the Temple-worship on the death of Antiochus Epiphanes. Other dates and persons have been assigned; but the most probable opinion is that of Bishop Marsh, who observes that the Masora cannot be dated higher than the fourth or fifth century. The Masoretic notes and criticisms are the most stupendous monument of minute and persevering labour, in the whole history of literature; they relate to the books, verses, words, letters, vowels, points, and accents. The *Masorites* or *Masoretes*, (as the Jewish literati who invented this system were called) with a reverential—not to say superstitious—attention, of which history does not furnish an instance that can be compared with it, counted all the verses, words, and letters, of all the twenty-four books of the Old Testament, and of each of those twenty-four books, and of every section of each book, and of all its subdivisions. The Masorites were the first who distinguished the books and sections of books into verses. They marked the number of the verses, and of the words and letters in each verse, and placed the amount at the end of each, in numeral letters, or in some symbolical word formed out of them; and they also marked the middle verse of each book. Further, they noted the verses where something was supposed to be forgotten; the words which they believed to be changed, the letters which they deemed to be super-

BIBL. fluous; the repetitions of the same verses; the different reading of the words which are redundant or defective; how often the same word is found at the beginning, middle, or end of a verse, the different significations of the same word; the agreement or conjunction of one word with another; what letters are pronounced, and what are inverted, together with such as hang perpendicular; and they took the number of each, for the Jews cherish their sacred books with such reverence, that they make scruple of changing the situation of a letter, which is evidently misplaced; supposing that some mystery has occasioned the alteration. They have likewise reckoned which is the middle letter of the Pentateuch, which is the middle clause of each book; and how many times each letter of the alphabet occurs in all the Hebrew Scriptures. (*Walton's Prolegomena*, c. vii.)

Such is the celebrated Masora of the Jews. At first it did not accompany the text; afterwards, the greatest part of it was written in the margin. In order to comprise it within the margin, it became necessary to abridge the work itself: this abridgement was called the *little Masora*, *Masora parva*; but, being found too short, a more copious abridgement was inserted, which was distinguished by the appellation of the *great Masora*, *Masora magna*. The omitted parts were added at the end of the text, and called the *final Masora*, *Masora finalis*.

There is another invention ascribed to the Masorites, which it is proper to notice in this place. In Jewish manuscripts and printed editions of the Old Testament, a word is often found, with a small circle annexed to it, or with an asterisk over it, and a word written in the margin of the same line. The former is called the *Kethib*, that is, *written*, and the latter, *Keri*, that is, *read* *Kethib*, or reading, as if to intimate, write in this manner, but *Keri*, read in that manner. For instance, when they meet with certain words, they substitute others; thus, instead of the name *Jehovah*, (which, expressing the being, the essence, and the eternity of the Deity, the Jews consider a word too sacred for human utterance,) they substitute *Adonni*, which is expressive not of God but of Lord. And, in lieu of terms not strictly consistent with decency, they pronounce others less indecent or more agreeable to our ideas of propriety. (*Walton, ut supra*; *Whittaker's Inquiry into the Interpretation of the Hebrew Scriptures*, p. 114—178.)

Concerning the value of the Masoretic system of Value of the notation, biblical critics are greatly divided in opinion. *Masora.* While some have commended the undertaking, and have considered it as an admirable invention for preserving the purity of the sacred text, and for putting a stop to the arbitrary and unbounded licentiousness and rashness of transcribers and critics; others have altogether censured the design, suspecting that the Masorites corrupted the purity of the text, by substituting for the ancient and true reading of their forefathers, another reading more favourable to their prejudices, and more opposite to Christianity, whose testimonies and proofs they were desirous of weakening as much as possible. Without adopting either of these extremes, Bishop Marsh observes that the text itself, as regulated by the learned Jews of Tiberias, was probably the result of a collection of manuscripts. But as those Hebrew critics were cautious of introducing too many corrections into the text, they noted in the margins of their manuscripts, or in their critical col-

BIBLE. lections, such various readings derived from other manuscripts, either by themselves or by their predecessors, as appeared to be worthy of attention. This, he is of opinion, is the real origin of those marginal or Masoretic readings, which we find in many editions of the Hebrew Bible. But the propensity of the later Jews, to seek mystical meanings in the plainest facts, gradually induced the belief, that both textual and marginal readings proceeded from the sacred writers themselves; and that the latter were transmitted to posterity by oral tradition, as conveying some mysterious application of the written words; they were regarded therefore as materials, not of criticism but of interpretation. The same eminent critic further remarks, that, notwithstanding all the care of the Masorites to preserve the sacred text without variations, "if their success has not been complete, either in establishing or preserving the Hebrew text, they have been guilty of the only fault which is common to every human effort." (Bp. Marsh's *Lectures on Divinity*, part ii. Lect. x. p. 84, 98.)

Though any designed corruption of the Hebrew Scriptures was utterly impracticable, and was indeed never suspected, yet the carelessness and inadvertence of transcribers, during the long series of many hundred years, would unavoidably cause very many mistakes. It was not, however, until the seventeenth century, that any extensive collation of Hebrew manuscripts was made. This was owing to the notion (founded on the bold assertions of the rabbis which were implicitly credited by the Christians,) which had been formed of the absolute integrity of the sacred text, in consequence of its supposed preservation from error by the Masora. The first critic that impugned this notion, was Johannes Morinus, a priest of the Oratory at Paris; who, in the first volume of his *Exercitationes Publicæ de Hebræi Græcique Textûs sinceritate*, published in 1633, laboured to shew, that the Hebrew Bible has descended to posterity, in a very imperfect state; not that the Jews had wilfully corrupted the Sacred Writings, but that they had transcribed them so negligently, as to have lost in very numerous instances the original and genuine text. Morinus was soon after followed by Ludovicus Cappellus, Hebrew Professor at the French Protestant University of Saumur, whose *Critica Sacra* was first published at Paris in 1650. In this work he was led to question the general integrity of the text, from the difference which he observed between the Hebrew text and the version of the Septuagint, and between the Hebrew and the Samaritan Pentateuch; from the manifest and palpable corruptions which he thought he saw in the text itself; and from the many reasons, which led him to suppose, that the vowel points and the Masora were both a modern and an useless invention.

The principles of Cappellus were adopted by Bishop Walton, in his prolegomena to the London Polyglott; in which that learned prelate acknowledged the necessity of forming a critical apparatus, for the purpose of obtaining a more correct text of the Hebrew Bible; and materially contributed to it by his own exertions. At length, the necessity of a collation of Hebrew manuscripts began to be generally acknowledged; and some attempts to that purpose were made by subsequent editors of the Hebrew Bible, viz. by Rabbi Joseph Athias, in his celebrated edition of the Hebrew

Scriptures, printed at Amsterdam in 1661, and again in 1667; by Jablonski in his edition printed at Berlin in 1699; by Van der Hooght, at Amsterdam in 1708; by Opitz, at Kiel, in 1709; by J. H. Michaelis, at Halle, in 1780; and by Honbignat, at Paris, in 1753. Of these editions, some notice will be found in the course of this section. The manuscripts thus collated, were examined with the same attention, the various readings of them were discussed with the same freedom, and their respective merits ascertained by the same rules of criticism, as had been previously applied in respect to manuscripts of profane authors. But all preceding collations of manuscripts were surpassed by that of Dr. Kennicott, who, in 1753, published at Oxford his *First Dissertation on the state of the printed Hebrew text*, in which he endeavoured to shew the necessity of the same extensive collation of Hebrew manuscripts, as had already been undertaken of the Greek manuscripts of the New Testament; and, in support of his opinion, he exhibited a specimen of various readings from seventy Hebrew manuscripts preserved in the Bodleian library. In 1759, he published his *Second Dissertation on the state of the printed Hebrew text*, in which he also replied to the objections which had been made to his *First Dissertation*. The utility of the proposed collation being then very generally admitted, a very liberal subscription was made (amounting nearly to £10,000.) in order to defray the expense of collation. Various persons were employed both at home and abroad; but of the Foreign literati the principal was Professor Bruns, of the University of Helmstadt; who not only collated Hebrew manuscripts in Germany, but travelled for that purpose into Italy and Switzerland. The business of collation occupied from 1760 to 1769 inclusive, during which period Dr. Kennicott published annually an account of the progress made. The arranging and digesting of the materials thus acquired, necessarily occupied several succeeding years. The variations, contained in nearly seven hundred bundles of papers, being at length digested, and the whole, when put together, being corrected by the original collations, and then fairly transcribed into thirty folio volumes,—the work was put to press in 1773. In 1776, the first volume of Dr. Kennicott's edition of the Hebrew Bible was delivered to the public, and in 1780 the second volume. Extensive as Dr. Kennicott's collections were, a copious gleanings remained for the researches of Joba Bernard de Rossi, professor of divinity and oriental languages in the Royal Academy of Parma; the result of whose collations was given to the public between the years 1784—1788, 1799. The total number of manuscripts collated by or for Dr. Kennicott, is about six hundred and thirty; and of those collated by Professor De Rossi, nine hundred and fifty-eight, eight hundred and forty-eight of which were in his own private library, and the remainder in different Foreign libraries. Of the immense mass of various readings which the collations of these eminent critics exhibit, multitudes are insignificant, consisting frequently of the omission or addition of a single letter in a word, &c. But they are not on that account useless, for they all contribute powerfully to ascertain and establish—instead of invalidating—the authenticity and integrity of the sacred text, in matters of the greatest importance; as all the manuscripts, notwithstanding the diversity of their dates, and of the places where they

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Collation of
Hebrew
manuscripts.

BIBLE. were transcribed, agree in that which constitutes the proper essence and substance of divine revelation, viz. its doctrines, moral precepts, and historical relations. (Kennicott, *Dissertatio Generalis*; De Rossi, *Prolegomena ad Var. Lect.*)

Printed editions.

The *Printed Editions of the Hebrew Bible* are very numerous. The following are those most worthy of attention, either from their rarity or their intrinsic value.

The first printed Hebrew book is an edition of the Psalter, supposed to be printed about the year 1477. It is of extreme rarity, and is printed with a square Hebrew type approaching to that of the German Jews. The text is without points, except in the four first Psalms, which are clumsily pointed. The commentary of Rabbi Kimchi is subjoined to each verse of the text, in the rabbinical Hebrew character, and is much more complete than in subsequent editions, as it contains all those passages, which were afterwards omitted as being hostile to Christianity. At Soncino, in the duchy of Milan, the Pentateuch was printed in 1492. It was followed by the Greater Prophets in 1494, and the Lesser Prophets in 1496. The Hagiographa was printed at Naples in 1497: a copy of it on vellum in two folio volumes, is in the library of Eton College. The first edition of the *entire* Hebrew Bible appeared at Soncino in 1498: it is at present so scarce, that only nine copies of it are known to be in existence, one of which is in the library of Exeter College, Oxford. This edition, and that of the Psalter above noticed, are considered as equal in value to manuscripts. The next edition of the whole Hebrew Bible was published in 1494 at Brescia, and is remarkable for being the edition from which Luther made his German translation of the Old Testament. The Brescian edition was the basis of the Complutensian (forming part of the celebrated Complutensian Polyglott,) printed in 1517, and described in the sequel of this article. In 1518, Daniel Bomberg published at Venice two editions of the Hebrew Bible, the one in quarto, the other in large folio: the latter was conducted by Felix Pratensis, and, as it contains the Hebrew text accompanied with the Masora, it is called Bomberg's *first* rabbinical Bible. The second edition of it, which is more correct, was printed also at Venice, in 1525, 1526, under the direction of Rabbi Jacob Ben Chajim, who pointed the text according to the Masoretic system. The Brescia edition of 1494 was likewise the basis of Daniel Bomberg's Hebrew Bible printed at Venice in 1521, and of Sebastian Munster's edition in Hebrew and Latin, printed at Basil in 1534-5, and of his second edition in Hebrew only, but accompanied with parts of the Masora and various critical annotations, and which was finished in the following year. The Complutensian is the basis of the Hebrew text in the Antwerp (1572) and Paris (1641) Polyglott Bibles; and Bomberg's second rabbinical Bible is the basis of all the modern pointed copies.

In the years 1539-1544, Robert Stephens printed his edition of the Hebrew Bible in four quarto volumes; and in 1544-1546, his very beautifully printed edition in seven volumes 16mo. In 1597 was printed at Hamburgh the edition of Elias Hutter, in large characters. In 1611, the celebrated Hebraist John Buxtorf printed at Basil his octavo edition; and in 1618, 1619, he published his great rabbinical Bible, which, on account of the additional matter comprised in it, is held in great esteem by Hebrew scholars. It contains the

commentaries of the celebrated Jewish rabbins Jarchi, Aben Ezra, Kimchi, Levi Ben Gerson, and Saadiah Haaggan: an appendix is subjoined, containing, besides the Jerusalem Targum, which is pointed by Buxtorf, (who also corrected and amended the great Masora,) together with the various lections of the rabbis Ben Ascher and Ben Naphtali. The *Tiberian*, which Buxtorf published in 1630, was intended to illustrate the Masora and other additions to his great Bible.

In 1635, Manasseh Ben Israel printed a quarto Hebrew Bible at Amsterdam, in two columns: it is said to be very correct. In 1657 was published, under the superintendence of the eminently learned Bishop Walton, the London Polyglott Bible, (described in the sequel of this article,) in which the Hebrew text is printed masoretically, almost in absolute agreement with the many preceding editions, and with the latest MSS. The celebrated edition, executed by Joseph Athias, a Jewish printer at Amsterdam, was published in 1661, and again in 1667: the first of these octavo editions is the most beautiful, but the second is said to be the most correct. The text of these editions was founded both on manuscripts and printed editions. The edition of Jablonski, a learned clergyman of the Lutheran church, appeared at Berlin in 1699, in large 8vo. The eminent critic, De Rossi, considers this to be one of the most correct editions of the Hebrew Bible. In his preface, Jablonski gave some very valuable remarks on the origin of the mistakes of transcribers; and, having announced the existence of various readings, he pointed out the means of correcting them by the collation of manuscripts, which he strenuously recommended. He chiefly followed the text of the edition of 1667, and confined his corrections principally to the vowel points and accents. In 1705 was printed at Amsterdam, the edition of Everard Van der Hooght, well known for its typographical beauty and its convenience for common use. The Hebrew text is that of Athias's second edition, with marginal notes pointing out the contents of each section: the characters, especially the vowel points, are uncommonly clear and distinct. Van der Hooght's Hebrew text was reprinted at London in two octavo volumes, in 1811-12, under the editorship of Mr. Frey. This reprint is far from being correct: but the stereotype edition, executed at London in 1823, is every way superior, in point of beauty as well as of accuracy. In preparing it for the press, the editor (Mr. Judah D'Allemand) states that he discovered not fewer than two hundred errata in Van der Hooght's edition; which have been carefully corrected. In addition to his previous labours, every page was revised four times, after the stereotype plates were cast, by scholars conversant in the Hebrew language. Van der Hooght's summaries of the contents of each chapter are omitted, to diminish the price of the book. The Masoretic notes and various readings are very neatly and clearly exhibited at the foot of each page.

In 1709, Professor Opitz, at Kiel, published a Hebrew Bible, for which he collated both printed editions and manuscripts: and in 1730, John Henry Michaelis published a Hebrew Bible, for which he collated many printed editions, besides five Hebrew MSS. preserved at Erfurt. The text is from Jablonski's edition, and the various lections are given at the bottom of the page.

Toward the middle of the last century great expect-

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BIBLE.

tations were raised by the preparations made for an edition of the Hebrew Bible, by Charles Francis Houhigant, one of the fathers of the Oratory at Paris, whose prolegomena appeared in 1746, and were followed in 1753 by a splendid edition of the Hebrew Scriptures, in four volumes, quarto. The text is that of Van der Hooght, without points. With the exception of the Samaritan readings, printed in the margin of the Pentateuch, his critical apparatus consisted of extracts from only twelve Hebrew manuscripts, of which he is said not to have made all the use he might have done. Houhigant also printed a new Latin version, expressive of such a text as his critical emendations (which are too often founded on conjectures) appeared to justify and recommend.

All preceding editions of the Hebrew Bible, with critical apparatus, were surpassed by that of Dr. Kennicott, (whose collections have been already noticed) which appeared in 1776, 1780 at Oxford, in two volumes, folio. The text was printed from that of Van der Hooght, (but without the points) with which all the Hebrew manuscripts were collated. In the Pentateuch, the directions of the Samaritan text were printed in a column parallel to the Hebrew. The numerous variations, from the text of Van der Hooght, both in the Samaritan manuscripts, and also in the Hebrew manuscripts, printed editions, and the Talmud, are placed separately at the bottom of the page, and his authorities are designated by numbers (from 1 to 692) which are explained in the *Dissertatio Generalis*. This Dissertation answers to what are called Prolegomena in other editions, and contains much valuable critical disquisition on the history, &c. of the Sacred Text. To Dr. Kennicott's edition, Professor De Rossi, (of whose collections also notice has already been taken) published an important supplement at Parma, in 1784—1788, 1799, in five quarto volumes, containing extracts from Hebrew manuscripts. This work and Dr. Kennicott's edition form one set of collations. In 1793, an edition of the Hebrew Bible was published at Leipzig, by Dr. Doderlein and Professor Meissner, in two volumes, octavo, containing the principal various readings of Kennicott and De Rossi. There are copies bearing the date of Halle, 1818; but they are only the edition of 1793, with a new preface by Dr. Knappe. More valuable is the edition executed under the superintendence of Professor Juhn, at Vienna, in 1806, in four volumes, octavo. The text is very neatly printed; the chief vowel points are retained; and a copious selection of the most important various readings is given. Mr. Boothroyd's edition of the Hebrew Bible, without points, after the text of Kennicott, is valuable for its critical apparatus, which is compiled with great industry from the most approved ancient and modern English and foreign biblical critics. The text is neatly printed after that of Kennicott, with the chief various readings, selected from his collection of Hebrew manuscripts, from that of De Rossi, and from the ancient versions. (Le Long's *Bibliotheca Sacra*, (edited by Marsh,) vol. i.; Bishop Marsh's *Lectures*, part ii. Lect. x. xi.; Horne's *Introduction to the Scriptures*, vol. ii. part i. ch. iii. sec. 1.)

§ III. Ancient Versions of the Bible.

These are numerous, and of considerable importance for the criticism and interpretation of the Bible. At

first the Jews were very reserved in communicating their sacred writings to strangers. Despising and shunning the Gentiles, they withheld from them the treasures of Divine knowledge contained in the Bible: nor were the Egyptians, Arabs, and other nations, bordering on the Jews, acquainted with these books, until after the several captivities of the Jews, when the singularity of the Hebrew laws and ceremonies induced several to desire a more particular knowledge of them.

The earliest version of the Bible is the Greek Septuagint translation, usually called the Septuagint. According to the account of the pseudo-Aristotle, Ptolemy Philadelphus applied to Eleazar, the Jewish High Priest at Jerusalem, for proper persons to translate the Hebrew Scriptures into the Greek language; and Eleazar sent six elders from each of the twelve tribes. These seventy-two persons soon completed their work; and from their number it was called the Septuagint version, seventy being a round number. This account is now generally rejected as fictitious. By some learned men it has been supposed, that this was called the Septuagint, because it was approved by the Sanhedrim, or Great Council of the Jews, who were seventy in number. But whatever was the origin of its name, or the number of its authors, their introduction of Coptic words, as well as their rendering of ideas purely Hebrew altogether in the Egyptian manner, clearly prove that they were natives of Egypt. The Pentateuch was probably executed during the joint reigns of Ptolemy Lagos and his son Philadelphus: it is allowed to have been translated with great fidelity. Next to the Pentateuch for ability of execution, are the Proverbs and Book of Job: internal evidence proves that Joshua was not translated until twenty years after the death of Ptolemy Lagos. During the reign of Ptolemy Philometer, the Books of Esther, Psalms, and the Prophets were translated, with various and inferior degrees of ability: the dates of the Greek version of Judges, Ruth, Samuel, and Kings are not known. The Septuagint version was in great esteem among the Jews in the time of Christ: and very many of the quotations in the New Testament are made from it.

There are four principal editions of the Greek Bible, Greek or Septuagint version, from one or more of which all subsequent editions have been copied, viz. The Complutensian, the Aldine, the Vatican, and the Oxford, or Dr. Græbe's edition.

1. The Complutensian edition was undertaken by the divines of Complutum, or Alcalá, in Spain, and forms part of the Complutensian Polyglott described below. It bears the date of 1515: the text was composed after several manuscripts, which the editors have not described. Hence they have been charged with having altered it in various places to make it harmonize with the Hebrew, or rather with the Vulgate version; and with having filled up the chasm in the Septuagint from other Greek versions. This edition has been copied in the Antwerp and Paris Polyglotts, also described below, in the editions printed by the Commisseries, in 1566, 1599, and 1616, and in those executed by Walder, in 1596, and Hunter, in 1599.

2. The Aldine edition appeared in 1518, two years after the death of Aldus Manutius: the text of this edition was formed from several ancient manuscripts. Bishop Walton has pronounced it to be much purer than that in the Complutensian Polyglott, to which

BIBLE.

BIBLE. It is actually prior in point of time; the latter not being published before 1522, though it bears the date of 1517. Bishop Marsh asserts that it is interpolated in various places from other Greek versions. The Aldine edition was reprinted at Strasburgh, in 1536, at Basil, in 1545, at Frankfort, in 1597, and at other places.

5. The *Vatican* edition was published at Rome, in 1585, though commonly dated 1592, the figure 1 having been subsequently added. The text of this edition was taken from the celebrated *Codex Vaticanus*, 1509, (a manuscript of the fifth century,) with the exception of such words as the editors regarded in the light of errata: and the work was executed under the direction of Cardinal Carafa, and other learned persons at the expense of Pope Sixtus V. Copies with the date of 1587 are of most frequent occurrence. The *Vatican* edition has been reprinted in Bishop Walton's Polyglott, (described in a subsequent section,) and also in various other forms. The editions most valued are, 1. That printed at Cambridge, in 1665, with a learned preface by Bishop Pearson; 2. The edition published by Lambert Bos, at Franeker, in 1709, with additional various readings; 3. That of Reineccius, at Halle, in 1730, (again in 1737,) also with additional various readings, from the Complutensian and Aldine editions, and from the Alexandrian manuscript; 4. That of Oxford, 1817, in six volumes, with various readings from the Alexandrian manuscript; to which is prefixed a valuable introduction extracted from Carpzov's *Critica Sacra*; 5. The Oxford edition, begun by the late Rev. Dr. Holmes, Dean of Winchester, and now continuing by the Rev. James Pearson, B. D., with various readings, the result of several years collation, the expense of which was defrayed by a noble subscription, promoted by the delegates of the Clarendon Press. Between the years 1798 and 1829, two volumes, and three parts of the third volume were published, besides the Book of Daniel, both according to the Septuagint version and that of Theodotion. The plan and execution of this noble edition are highly commended by Bishop Marsh. 6. The edition executed at the press of Mr. J. A. Valpy, London, 1819.

4. The *Oxford* edition, prepared by Dr. Grabe, has for its basis the text of the celebrated *Codex Alexandrinus*, a manuscript written at the close of the fourth century or early in the fifth century, and preserved in the British Museum; but where readings, which were believed to be genuine, were found in the *Vatican* edition or in other manuscripts, such readings were adopted. Though Dr. Grabe prepared the whole for the press, yet he published only the first and fourth volumes, in 1707, 1709; the second being edited by Dr. Lee, in 1719, and the third by Dr. Wigan, in 1720. The text of Grabe's edition was accurately and beautifully printed by Breitinger, in four volumes, quarto, at Zurich, 1730—1733: the various readings of the *Vatican* edition are exhibited at the foot of the page.

Besides the Septuagint, there are several other Greek versions of the Hebrew Scriptures, which claim to be noticed in this article, particularly those of Aquila, Theodotion, and Symmachus.

1. Aquila was a Jewish proselyte, a native of Sinope, in Pontus, who flourished in the second century. His version is extremely literal: he is said to have

published two editions of it, the second of which was preferred by the Jews as being most exact.

2. Theodotion was a native of Ephesus, and nearly contemporary with Aquila. His version is more free than that of Aquila, and, in fact, is a kind of version of the Septuagint made after the original Hebrew. It supplies some deficiencies in the Septuagint; but where Theodotion translates without help, he evidently shows himself to have been but indifferently skilled in Hebrew. His version of the Book of Daniel was introduced into the Christian churches, as being deemed more accurate than that of the Septuagint, of which only a few fragments remain.

3. Symmachus was an Ebionite, or semi-Christian, who lived a few years later than Theodotion, that is, about the year of Christ, 300: his version, though concise, is free and paraphrastic, regarding the sense rather than the words of the original.

Besides the preceding Greek versions, there are three others, usually called the fifth, sixth, and seventh versions; which derive their names from the order in which Origen disposed them in the columns of his hexaplar edition of the Bible. But their age and authors being unknown, and they being in themselves of little value, it is not necessary to take any further notice of them in this place.

Syria being visited at a very early period by the preachers of Christianity, several translations of the Scriptures were made into the language of that country. The most celebrated of these is the *Peshito* or *Litral*, as it is usually called, on account of its very close adherence to the Hebrew text from which it was immediately made, about the end of the first, or early in the second century. To its general fidelity almost every biblical critic of eminence bears unqualified approbation. This version is printed in the Polyglotts of Paris and London.

Historical evidence concerning the Arabic versions does not extend beyond the tenth century, when Rabbi Saadiah Gaon, a celebrated Jewish teacher at Babylon, translated the Hebrew Bible into Arabic. Of this translation, the Pentateuch and Prophecies of Isaiah are all that have hitherto been discovered and printed. There are several other Arabic versions extant; but not being very ancient, nor possessing much critical authority, they are of little value.

There are several versions of the Bible in the Persian language, but most of them are in manuscript. The Persian translation of the Pentateuch, printed in the London Polyglott, was executed by a Jew in the eleventh or twelfth century.

The language of ancient Egypt was divided into two dialects, the *Coptic*, or dialect of Lower Egypt, and the *Sahidic*, or dialect of Upper Egypt. The Coptic version was made from the Septuagint, perhaps in the second or third century, and certainly before the seventh century. Of this version only the Pentateuch and Book of Psalms have been printed. No part of the Sahidic version of the Old Testament appears ever to have been published.

The Ethiopic or Abyssinian version was also made from the Septuagint, and (it is supposed) about the second or third century. Only a few books and fragments of this version have been printed.

The Septuagint was likewise the parent of the Armenian version, executed towards the close of the fourth, or early in the fifth century, and of the

Other
Greek
Bibles.

BIBLE.

Syrian
Bibles.

Arabic
Bibles.

Persian
Bibles.

Egyptian
version.

Abyssinian
version.

Armenian
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BIBLE. Slavonic, or old Russian version, made in the ninth century. The Aramenian Bible was first printed at Amsterdam, in 1669; the Slavonic Pentateuch was printed at Prague, in 1519, and the entire Bible in 1570.

Gothic version. The Gothic version was executed from the Septuagint by Ulphilas a celebrated Bishop of the Musco-Goths about the middle of the fourth century. Philostorgius (*Hist. Eccl. lib. ii. c. v.*) asserts that Ulphilas omitted the Books of Kings, from an apprehension that the warlike spirit of his countrymen might be excited by the relation of Jewish wars. But this assertion is refuted by Signor Mai's recent discovery, in the Ambrosian library at Milan, of some fragments of the Gothic translation of these books.

Latin versions. It appears that the Latin or Western church possessed several Latin translations of the New Testament, but only one version of the Old Testament, which was made from the Greek. This translation was generally received in the time of Jerome, who, towards the close of the fourth century, undertook a version of it, at the request of Pope Damasus. Of this version only the Psalms and Book of Job have descended to our time. In fact these two Books, with the Chronicles, Proverbs, Ecclesiasties, and Song of Solomon, were the only parts of it which were ever published; his manuscript version of the other Books of the Old Testament being either secreted or destroyed by some person to whom they were intrusted. This loss only stimulated Jerome to fresh exertions; and in the year 405 he completed his translation from the Hebrew, which he had commenced before he had finished his revision. This new version was gradually introduced into the Western church, for fear of offending weak persons: at length it received from Pope Gregory the Great, the sanction of Papal authority. Since that time, with the exception of the Psalms,

(which, being daily chaunted to music in the church service, made it difficult to introduce alterations in them,) Jerome's new translation from the Hebrew has been exclusively adopted by the church of Rome, under the name of the Vulgate version: and a decree of the council of Trent, in the sixteenth century, pronounced it to be *authentic*; and commanded that the Vulgate alone should be used in all sermons, expositions, and disputations. Great confusion having arisen from the incorrectness and numerous variations both in the manuscripts and printed editions of this version, Pope Sixtus V. caused a new and corrected edition (the proof sheets of which he himself revised) to be published at Rome in 1590. This he commanded to be received as authentic: but it was found to be so extremely incorrect, that Clement VIII., his successor, suppressed this edition, and published another authentic edition, which differs materially from the Sixtine edition, both in sense and words. The Latin Vulgate version is allowed to be, upon the whole, a faithful translation, though some passages are mistranslated in order to support the peculiar dogmas of the church of Rome. The modern printed editions of it are very numerous. (*Horne's Introduction*, vol. i. part i. ch. v.; *Le Long and Marsh, Bibliotheca Sacra*, part ii.)

§ IV. Modern Versions of the Bible.

The translations of the Scriptures into the different modern languages, which are spoken in the four quarters of the globe, are so numerous that it is difficult to obtain correct accounts of all of them. The following tables, however, will exhibit at one view the principal translations, together with the dates when they appeared, the authors by whom they were executed, and the names of the places in which they were severally printed.

TABLE I.
TRANSLATIONS INTO THE LANGUAGES OF MODERN EUROPE.

BIBLE.	Language.	New Testament.	Bible, or Old Test.	Author.	Place of Printing.	BIBLE.
	Spanish (Valencian dialect of)	1476	Boniface Ferrer	Valencia.	
	German	1522	Martin Luther	Wittenberg.	
	English	1534	Tindal and Coverdale	Utrecht.	
	French	1535	Robert Olivetan	Geneva.	
	Swedish	1534	Olaus Petri	Upsal, Sweden.	
	Danish	1550	Palladius and others	Copenhagen.	
	Dutch	1560			
	Italian	1562	Antonio Brucioli's revised?	Geneva.	
	Spanish	1566	Cassiodorus de Reyna	Frankfort, or Basil.	
	Russian	1581	Cyril and Methodius	Ostrog.	
	Helvetian dialect	1585			
	Lower Saxon dialect	1533			
	Finnish	1548			
	Croatian	1553			
	Isaque	1571	Unknown	Zurich.	
	Welsh	1586		Lubeck.	
	Hungarian	1580		Stockholm.	
	Wendish	1574		Tubingen.	
	Icelandic	1584		Rochelle.	
	Pomeranian dialect	1598		London.	
	Polish	1598		Vienna.	
	Bohemian	1593		Wittenberg.	
	Modern Greek	1584	Thorlack	Holm, Iceland.	
	Wallachian	1598	Unknown	Berth.	
	Romanese	1595	Several		
	Lithuanian	1593	Maximus Calliergi	Crailsitz, Moravia.	
	Turkish	1600	Unknown	Geneva.	
	Irish	1607		Beigrade.	
	Livonian	1600	S. B. Chelmsky	Schuel.	
	Estonian	1602	Lazarus Seaman	London.	
	Estonian, dialect of	1685	Dr. Daniel, Bp. Bedell	Oxford.	
	Dorpatian dialect	1689		London.	
	Grisons	1689	Unknown	Riga.	
	Upper Lusatian	1712			
	Lapponic	1706	Several	Coire.	
	Manks	{ 1748- }	1748	Unknown	Bauzen.	
	Gaelic	{ 63-67 }	1772	Bishops Wilson and Hildesley	Stockholm.	
	Portuguese	{ 1712 }	1748-53	James Stewart and others	London & Whitehaven.	
	Italian	{ 1741 }	1783	Ferreira d'Almeida, (Cath.)	Edinburgh.	
	Spanish	1769	Antonio Pereira, (Cath.)	Amsterdam & Batavia.	
	Maltese	1776	Antonio Martini, (Cath.)	Lisbon.	
	Samogitian	1793, 4	Padre Selo, (Cath.)	Turin.	
	Judeo-Polish	{ Rev. W. Jowett, M. A. and }	Madrid.	
	Modern Russ	{ Signor Cannolo }	Malta.	
	Russian dialects, viz.		Petersburgh.	
	Karelian (Gospel of Matt.)	N. Solomon	London.	
	Mordwasian (Four Gospels)			
	Theremissian (Four Gospels)	Russian Bible Society	Petersburgh.	

TABLE II.—TRANSLATIONS INTO THE LANGUAGES OF MODERN ASIA.

BIBLE.

BIBLE.

Language.	New Testament, or Detached Books thereof.		Bible, or Old Testament, or Detached Books thereof.		Author.	Place of Printing.
	New Testament.	Detached Books.	Bible, or Old Test.	Detached Books.		
I. ARABIC and its derivative languages.						
Arabic	1816			{ N. Sabat and Rev. H. Martyn, B. D. Lieut. Col. Colebrooke	Calcutta.
Persian	{ 1815	4 Gosp. 1804		Rev. H. Martyn	Petersburg.
Pushtoo	1818		Gen. Lev. 1822	{ John Leyden, M. D. and others	Serampore.
Balochi		4 Gosp. 1816				
2. SANSKRIT and its derivative lang.						
Sanskrit	1808		1811-18			
Sikh, or Panjabee	1811		Pent. 1818		
Assamese	1819					
Kashmiree	1819					
Wutch, or Multanee	1819					
Guzerattee	1820					
Bikaner	1819					
Kankuna	1818				Baptist Missionaries	Serampore.
Marwar	1822					
Oajuvinee	1822					
fundelkundee	1822					
Nepaulese	1822					
Mahratta	1807			{ Pent. and Hist. books, 1813-15 .. Pent. Hist. & Poet. books, 1806-12 ..		
Hindee	1812				
Hindoostanee ...				Psalms, 1747	{ Danish Missionary Benjamin Schultz	Halle.
Bengalee	{ 1808-14				Rev. H. Martyn	Calcutta.
Orissa	1801		1801-5		Baptist Missionaries	Serampore.
Canarese	1807		1809-14		Rev. W. Hands	
Tamul	1715		1723-28		{ Danish Missionaries, Ziegenbalg and Schultz	Tranquebar.
Telinga, or Teloo-goo	{ Gosp. of Mark, 1812		M. Des Granges	Vizagapatam.
Cingalese	{ 1771-80			Gen. Exod. and Levit. 1771-83 ..	Fybrantz and Phillips	
	1820				{ Mr. W. Tolfrey and others	Colombo.
Malay	1668		1731-33			{ Amsterdam & Batavia.
	{ 1809-14		1813-21		Rev. Dr. Marshman	Serampore.
3. CHINESE	{ 1811-13-16		1815-20		{ Rev. Dr. Morrison & Rev. Mr. Milne	Canton.
4. OTHER ASIATIC LANGUAGES.						
Formosan	{ Matt. and John, 1661		Robert Junius	Amsterdam.
Tartar	1813			Psalter, 1815	{ Edinburgh Soc. Missionaries	{ Kurass and Astrachan.
Orenburg-Tartar ..	1820				Ditto	Astrachan.
Calmeue-Tartar ..	1815-20				Morav. Missionaries	
Mongolian-Tartar ..		{ Matt. and Luke, 1815			{ Twn Mongolian Chieftains	Petersburg.
Georgian			1743		Unknown	Moscow.
Otaheitean, or Tahitenn		{ Matt. Luke, and John, 1818-20-21			Missionaries	Eimeo and Tahiti.

TABLE III.

TRANSLATIONS INTO THE LANGUAGES OF MODERN AFRICA AND AMERICA.

BIBLE.	Language	New Testament, or Detached Books thereof.		Bible, or the Testament, or Detached Books thereof.		Author.	Place of Printing.	BIBLE.
		New Testament.	Detached Books.	Bible, or Old Test.	Detached Books.			
AFRICAN.	Bulloo	{ Gospel of (Matt. 1816.)	Rev. G. R. Nylander	London.	
	Ashantie, (a dialect of Abyssinia) ..	1822	M. Asselin de Cherville		
AMERICAN INDIAN.	Virginian	1661	1663	Rev. John Eliot	{ Cambridge, (New Eng-land.)	
	Delaware	{ 3 Epist. of (John, 1818)	C. F. Dencke		
	Indian Massachussetts	{ Gospel of (John, 1709)	Experience Mayhew	{ Boston (New England.)	
	Mohawk	{ Gospels of (Matt. Mark, and John, 1787, 1804.)	{ Rev. Mr. Freeman, Capt. Brant, Capt. Norton		
	Esquimaux	{ 1809-13-19	{ Moravian Missions	{ London.	
WEST INDIAN.	Greenlandish	1799	Ditto		
	Creeolese	1781	Unknown	Copenhagen.	

English version of the Bible.

The preceding tables have been drawn up from the accounts of versions in Bishop Marsh's *History of Translations*; Horne's *Introduction*, vol. ii.; and Townley's *Illustrations of Biblical Literature*, 3 vols. 8vo. Of the numerous versions therein noticed, the following are the most important to the English reader.

1. *English Bibles*.—Although it is impossible, at this distance of time, to ascertain when, or by whom, Christianity was first planted in this island, as well as the earliest time when the Scriptures were translated into the language of the inhabitants; yet we know that, for several hundred years, they had part, at least, of the sacred volume in their vernacular tongue. The earliest version, of which we have any account, is a translation of the Psalms into the Saxon language, by Aldhelm, or Adhelme, the first Bishop of Sherborne, about the year 706. A Saxon version of the four Gospels was made by Egbert, Bishop of Lindisfarne, who died a. o. 721; and a few years after, the venerable Bede translated the entire Bible into that language. Nearly two hundred years after Bede, King Alfred executed another translation of the Psalms, either to supply the loss of Aldhelm's (which is supposed to have perished in the Danish wars,) or to improve the plainness of Bede's version. A Saxon translation of the Pentateuch, Joshua, part of the Books of Kings, Esther, and the apocryphal Books of Judith and the Maccabees, is also attributed to Elfrie, who was Archbishop of Canterbury, a. o. 995.

A chasm of several centuries ensued, during which the Scriptures appear to have been buried in oblivion, the general reading of them being prohibited by the Papal see. The first English translation of the Bible, known to be extant, was made by an unknown individual, and is placed by Archbishop Usher to the year

1290; of this there are three manuscript copies preserved in the Bodleian library, and in the libraries of Christ's Church and Queen's Colleges, at Oxford. Towards the close of the following century, John de Trevisa, vicar of Berkeley, in the county of Gloucester, at the desire of his patron, Lord Berkeley, is said to have translated the Old and New Testaments into the English tongue; but, as no part of this work appears ever to have been printed, the translation ascribed to him is supposed to have been confined to a few texts, which were painted on the walls of his patron's chapel, at Berkeley castle, or which are scattered in some parts of his works, several copies of which are known to exist in manuscript. Nearly contemporary with him was the celebrated John Wickliffe, who, about the year 1380, translated the entire Bible from the Latin Vulgate into the English language, as then spoken. No part of Wickliffe's version was printed before the eighteenth century, when his New Testament was published in folio by Mr. Lewis, in 1731: it was handsomely re-edited in quarto, in 1810, by the Rev. H. B. Eder, one of the librarians of the British Museum, who prefixed a valuable memoir of the translator's life.

For the first printed edition of any part of the Scriptures in English, we are indebted to William Tindal; who, having formed the design of translating the New Testament from the original Greek, removed to Antwerp for this purpose. Here, with the assistance of the learned John Fry or Frith, and of William Roze, both of whom afterwards were martyrs for the Reformation, he finished his important undertaking; and the English New Testament was printed either at Antwerp or Hamburg, in 1526. The whole of this impression, with the exception, it is said, of a single

BIBLE. copy, being bought up and burnt by Tonsal, Bishop of London, and Sir Thomas More, Tindal put forth a new edition in 1527, and a third in 1534; and two years after, his translation of the Pentateuch appeared at Hamburg, together with another edition of his Testament. In 1531 he published an English version of the prophet Joash, with a prologue supposes that, before his death, he finished the whole Bible except the Apocrypha, which was translated by John Rogers; but it seems more probable that he translated only the historical parts. On Tindal's return to Antwerp in 1531, he was seized and imprisoned; and, after a long confinement, was put to death in 1536, at Villefort near Brussels, on the charge of heresy; being first strangled, and his body afterwards reduced to ashes.

In 1535, the whole Bible translated into English was printed in folio, and dedicated to King Henry VIII. by Miles Coverdale, whom Edward VI. afterwards promoted to the see of Exeter. This was the first edition published by royal authority. In 1537 another edition of the English Bible was published by John Rogers, martyr: it is chiefly Tindal's and Coverdale's, somewhat altered; and appeared under the assumed name of Thomas Matthew. A revised edition of this translation, corrected by Crammer and Coverdale, was printed in London in 1539, by Grafton and Whitchurch, in a very large folio; which, from its size, is usually denominated the *Great Bible*. No new version was executed during the reign of Edward VI.; though several editions were printed, both of the Old and New Testaments.

Geneva Bible. During the reign of Queen Mary, Miles Coverdale, John Knox, Christopher Goodman, and other exiles, who had taken refuge at Geneva, published the Book of Psalms there, in 1550, with marginal notes; and in the following year, the whole Bible appeared, with summaries, marginal notes, maps, and brief annotations. From the place of publication, this is usually called the *Geneva Bible*: it was highly esteemed by the Puritans, and within the short space of forty years, (from 1560 to 1616,) upwards of thirty editions were printed in various sizes, principally by the King's printers. Eight years after the completion of this translation, another new version was published at London, with two prefaces by Archbishop Parker: it is now generally termed the *Bishops' Bible*, from the circumstance of eight of the translators being Bishops. This version was used in the churches for forty years, though the *Geneva Bible* was more read in private houses.

Roman Catholic version. In the year 1582, the Romanists, finding it impossible to withhold the Scriptures any longer from the common people, printed an English New Testament at Rheims: it was translated, not from the Greek, but from the Latin Vulgate, and the editors (whose names are not known) retained a multitude of words, of Greek origin, untranslated and unexplained, under the pretext of wanting proper and adequate English terms, by which to render them; and thus contrived to render it unintelligible to common readers. Two learned confutations of the errors and mistranslations of this version were published, one by Dr. William Fulke in 1617, and the other by Mr. Thomas Cartwright in the following year. In 1609-10, an English translation of the Old Testament was published at

Douay in two volumes quarto, with annotations: this was also made from the Latin Vulgate. This translation, with the Rheims version of the New Testament above noticed, forms the English Bible, which alone is used by the Romanists of this country.

The last English version which remains to be noticed, is the authorized translation now in use, which is commonly called *King James' Bible*. Shortly after his accession to the throne in 1603, several objections being made to the *Bishops' Bible*, at the conference held at Hampton Court in the following year, the King commanded that a new version should be undertaken, and fifty-four learned men were appointed to this important labour; but, before it was commenced, seven of the persons nominated were either dead or had declined the task; for the list, as given us by Fuller, (*Church Hist.* book x. p. 44-47.) comprises only forty-seven names. All of them, however, were pre-eminently distinguished for their piety, and for their profound learning in the original languages of the Sacred Writings: and such of them as survived till the commencement of the work were divided into six classes. Ten were to meet at Westminster, and to translate from the Pentateuch to the end of the second Book of Kings. Eight, assembled at Cambridge, were to finish the rest of the Historical Books, and the Hagiographa. At Oxford, seven were to undertake the four greater Prophets, with the Lamentations of Jeremiah, and the twelve minor Prophets. The four Gospels, Acts of the Apostles, and the Apocalypse, were assigned to another company of eight, also at Oxford: and the Epistles of Saint Paul, together with the remaining canonical Epistles, were allotted to another company of seven, at Westminster. Lastly, another company, at Cambridge, were to translate the Apocryphal Books, including the prayer of Manasse. Agreeably to the regulations given to these six companies, each book passed the scrutiny of all the translators successively. In the first instance, each individual translated every book, which was allotted to his division. Secondly, the readings to be adopted were agreed upon by the whole of that company assembled together, at which meeting each translator must have been solely occupied by his own version. The book, thus finished, was sent to each of the other companies to be again examined; and at these meetings it probably was, as Scdica informs us, that "one read the translation, the rest holding in their hands some Bible, either of the learned tongues, or French, Spanish, Italian, &c. If they found any fault, they spoke; if not, he read on." (*Table Talk, art. Bible*.) Further, the translators were empowered to call to their assistance any learned men, whose studies enabled them to be serviceable, when an urgent occasion of difficulty presented itself. The translation was commenced in the spring of 1607, and the completion of it occupied almost three years. At the expiration of that time, three copies of the whole Bible, thus translated and revised, were sent to London, —one from Oxford, one from Cambridge, and a third from Westminster. Here a committee of six, two being deputed by the companies at Oxford, two by those at Cambridge, and two by those at Westminster, reviewed and polished the whole work: which was finally revised by Dr. Smith (afterwards Bishop of Gloucester), who wrote the preface, and by Dr. Wilson, Bishop of Winchester. This translation of the Bible

BIBLE.Authorized
Protestant
version

BIBLE. was first published in folio in 1611, and is that now universally adopted wherever the English language is spoken. It was printed by the King's printers, by whom succeeding editions have continued to be printed; and the competition between them and the two Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, led to the smuggling of Dutch editions into England, between the years 1630 and 1690; numerous errors, and some of them, of great importance, have been detected in the English and Dutch copies of this date. (*D'Israeli's Curiosities of Literature*, 2d series, vol. iii. p. 313—325.)

In 1683, this translation was corrected, and many references to parallel texts were added by Dr. Scattergood; and in 1701, a very fine edition was published in large folio, under the direction of Dr. Tenison, Archbishop of Canterbury, with chronological dates, and an index by Bishop Lloyd, and accurate tables of Scripture weights and measures by Bishop Cumberland; but this edition is said to abound with typographical errors. The latest and most complete revision is that made by the late Rev. Dr. Blayney, under the direction of the Vice-chancellor and delegates of the Clarendon Press, at Oxford. In this edition, which was printed both in quarto and folio, in 1769, the punctuation was thoroughly revised; the words printed in *Italics* were examined and corrected by the Hebrew and Greek originals; the proper names, to the etymology of which allusions are made in the text, were translated and entered in the margin; the *numeros of chapters and running titles* at the top of each page corrected; some material errors in the *chronology* rectified; and the marginal references were re-examined and corrected, and thirty thousand four hundred and sixty-five new references were inserted in the margin. From the singular pains bestowed, in order to render this edition as accurate as possible, it has hitherto been considered the *standard edition*, from which all subsequent impressions have been executed. Notwithstanding, however, the great labour and attention bestowed by Dr. Blayney, his edition must now yield the palm of accuracy to the very beautiful and correct edition published by Messrs. Eyre and Strahan, his Majesty's printers, but printed by Mr. Woodfall in 1806, and again in 1812, in quarto; as not fewer than one hundred and sixteen errors were discovered in collating the edition of 1806 with Dr. B.'s, and one of these errors was an omission of considerable importance. After the publication of the present authorized translation, all the other versions gradually fell into disuse, with the exception of the Psalms, and the Epistles and Gospels in the Book of Common Prayer, which were still continued,—the former according to the translation in *Cranmer's Bible*, and the latter according to that of the *Bishops' Bible*, until the final revision of the Liturgy of the Church of England; at which time the Epistles and Gospels were taken from the present version, but the Psalms are still retained according to the translation of *Cranmer's Bible*.

Upwards of two centuries have elapsed, since the authorized English version of the Scriptures, now in use, was given to the British nation. During that long interval, though many passages in particular books have been ably elucidated by learned men; yet its general fidelity, perspicuity, and excellence, have deservedly given our present translation a high and distinguishing place in the judgment of the Christian world, wherever the English language is known or

read. It has survived the convulsions both of church and state during the great rebellion; and it has continued to be used, not only by the Anglican church, but also by all the sects which have withdrawn from her. To its general accuracy, simplicity, and energy of style, the most accomplished biblical scholars have borne willing and most explicit testimonies; and though at late years it has been virulently assailed, with some semblance of learning, but with no real foundation, by Mr. John Bellamy and Sir James Randal Burgess, their attacks have been solidly and completely refuted by the Rev. J. W. Whitaker, in his *Historical and Critical Inquiry into the Interpretation of the Hebrew Scriptures*, (8vo. London, 1819.) and *Supplement* (8vo. London, 1820.) by the Rev. H. J. Todd, in his *Indication of our authorized Translation and Translators of the Bible*, &c. (London, 1819. 8vo.) and in his *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Bishop Walton*, (London, 1821. 2 vols. 8vo.) and by the Rev. Professor Lee, in *A Letter to Mr. John Bellamy*, (London, 1821. 8vo.) In fact, when the very few real faults are considered, which the most minute and scrupulous inquirers have been able to find in the present translation,—and when we perceive the most distinguished critics of modern times producing very discordant interpretations of the same text or word, we cannot but call to mind, with gratitude and admiration, the integrity, wisdom, fidelity, and learning of the venerable translators, of whose labours we are now reaping the benefit: who, while their reverence for the sacred Scriptures induced them to be as literal as they could, to avoid obscurity, have been extremely happy in the simplicity and dignity of their expressions; and who, by their strict adherence to the Hebrew idiom, have at once enriched and adorned the English language.

2. *Welsh Version*.—Some portions of the Bible are said to have been translated into the ancient British or Welsh language, before and during the reign of Edward VI.; but no efficient steps were taken for supplying the inhabitants of the principality of Wales with the Scriptures until the reign of Queen Elizabeth. In consequence of an act of Parliament passed in 1563, commanding that the Old and New Testaments, together with the Book of Common Prayer, should be translated into the Welsh tongue, and committing the direction of the work to the Bishops of Saint Asaph, Bangor, Saint David's, Llandaff, and Hereford: in 1567 the New Testament was printed; but the Old Testament did not appear until the year 1588. It was translated by Dr. William Morgan, successively Bishop of Llandaff and Saint Asaph; who also revised the previous version of the New Testament. During the reign of James I. the Welsh version underwent a further examination and correction from Dr. Parry, who succeeded Bishop Morgan in the see of Llandaff. This corrected version was printed at London in 1620, and is the basis of all subsequent editions.

3. *Irish Version*.—The New Testament having been translated into Irish by Dr. William Daniel, Archbishop of Tuam, Dr. Bedell, who was advanced to the see of Kilmore and Ardagh in 1629, procured the Old Testament to be translated by a Mr. King: who, being ignorant of the original languages, executed it from the English version. Bishop Bedell therefore revised and compared it with the Hebrew, the Septuagint, and the Italian version of Dodati. He supported Mr. King, while engaged on his important work; and on

BIBLE. the completion of this translation, he would have printed it in his own house, and at his own charge, if he had not been prevented by the troubles in Ireland. The manuscript, however, escaped the hands of the rebels, and was subsequently printed in 1685, at the expense of the Hon. Robert Boyle.

Manks Bible.

4. *Manks Version*.—Towards the close of his life, the truly venerable Bishop of Sodor and Mann, Dr. Thomas Wilson, formed a plan for translating the New Testament into the Manks language. He procured the four Gospels and the Acts of the Apostles to be translated; but lived only to see the Gospel of St. Matthew printed at his expense. His exemplary successor, Bishop Hildesley, caused the manuscript to be revised, and procured the translation of the New Testament to be completed: this, by the munificent aid of the venerable Society for promoting Christian knowledge, and of some benevolent individuals, he was enabled to print between the years 1756 and 1760. In 1763, he was encouraged, by the influx of benefactions, (obtained chiefly in consequence of that society's applications,) to undertake a Manks version of the Old Testament, which was completed only two days before his decease, on the 30th of November 1772. In the following year, the entire Bible, together with the Apocryphal Books, was printed at the expense of the same venerable society; which in 1776 published another edition of the New Testament.

Gaelic Bible.

5. *Gaelic Version*.—The Society in Scotland for propagating Christian knowledge, has the honour of giving to the inhabitants of the Highlands the Holy Scriptures in the Gaelic dialect. The New Testament was translated from the Greek by the Rev. James Stuart, minister of Killin, and printed at his expense in the year 1767. The several books of the Old Testament were translated and published, in four detached portions or volumes, viz. the Prophetic Books by the Rev. Dr. Smith, in 1783, and the remaining books by the Rev. Dr. John Stuart, minister of Luss, (son of the translator of the New Testament,) in three parts, which appeared successively in the years 1783, 1787, and 1801. In 1807, a new and revised edition of the whole Gaelic Bible was printed; which, in 1816, received the approbation of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland. (Horne's *Intro.* vol. ii. part i. ch. vi. sect. iii. Townley's *Illustrations of Biblical Literature*, vol. iii.)

§ V. Polyglott Bibles.

Polyglott Bibles are editions of the sacred texts, accompanied with versions of the Scriptures in several languages. The honour of having first conceived the plan of a Polyglott Bible is due to the celebrated printer, Aldus Manutius the elder; but of this projected undertaking, only one sheet was ever printed, in collateral columns of Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, in the year 1501. In 1516 there was printed at Genoa the Pentaglott Psalter of Agostino Justiniani, Bishop of Nebi: it was in Hebrew, Arabic, Chaldee, Greek, and Latin, and was accompanied by glosses and scholia. In 1518, John Potken published the Psalter in Hebrew, Greek, Latin, and Ethiopic, at Cologne. But the first Polyglott edition of the entire Bible is that usually called the

Complutensian Polyglott.

Complutensian Polyglott from Alcalá in Spain, the Latin name of which city is *Complutum*. The printing of this celebrated work was begun in 1502: though

completed in 1517, it was not published until the year 1522, and cost the munificent Cardinal Ximenes (Prime Minister of Spain) the sum of fifty thousand ducats.

BIBLE.

This Polyglott is usually divided into six parts or volumes: the first four comprise the Old Testament, with the Hebrew, Latin, and Greek, in three distinct columns; the Chaldee paraphrase being at the bottom of the page with a Latin interpretation: and the margin is filled with Hebrew and Chaldee radicals. The fifth volume contains the New Testament in Greek, with the Latin Vulgate version, and interpretations of the Hebrew, Chaldee, and Greek names occurring therein; and the sixth volume is filled with various critical tracts. It is not known what is become of the manuscripts that were consulted for this edition. The impression was limited to six hundred copies, three of which were struck off on vellum. One of these was deposited in the Royal library at Madrid; a second in the Royal library at Turin; and the third (which is supposed to have belonged to the Cardinal himself) after passing through various hands, was purchased at the sale of Signor Pinelli's library in 1789, for the late Count McCarthy of Touluse, for four hundred and eighty-three pounds. On the sale of this nobleman's library at Paris in 1817, it was bought by George Hilbert, Esq. for 16,100 francs, or £676. 3s. 4d. sterling. Copies of the Complutensian Polyglott, on paper, are in the libraries of the British Museum and Sion College, and also in several of the College libraries in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

The Complutensian Polyglott was followed and Antwerp excelled by that printed at Antwerp, by the eminent printer, Christopher Plantin, between the years 1569 and 1572, in eight volumes folio: it is commonly known by the appellation of the *Antwerp Polyglott*, and sometimes as the Spanish and Royal Polyglott, from being published under the patronage of Philip II. King of Spain. It was printed in Hebrew, Greek, Latin and Chaldee; and contains, besides the whole of the Complutensian Polyglott, a Chaldee paraphrase of part of the Old Testament, which Cardinal Ximenes had deposited in the public library at Alcalá; having particular reasons for not publishing it. This edition has a Syriac version of the New Testament, and the Latin version of Sanctus Pagninus, as reformed by Aris Montanus, who was the principal editor of this noble work. The first five volumes contain the Old and New Testaments, in the languages above stated; and the three last are filled with lexicons and grammars of the various languages in which the Scriptures are printed, together with indexes, and a treatise on sacred antiquities. Of this Polyglott, only five hundred copies were printed; the greater part of which being lost in a voyage to Spain, complete sets of it are of rare occurrence.

The *Paris Polyglott*, printed by Antoine Vitre between the years 1628 and 1645, is in ten large folio volumes; and is one of the most magnificent works that ever issued from the press. It was executed at the expense of M. Le Jay, who was ruined by the undertaking; and contains all that is inserted in the Complutensian and Antwerp Polyglotts, with several important additions, particularly of the Samaritan Pentateuch and its version. One great inconvenience in this edition is, that the Samaritan, the Syriac, and the Arabic are not placed in parallel columns, but

BIBLE.

BIBLI-
CISTS.London
Polyglott.

occur in different volumes. It is also defective, in having no critical apparatus or prolegomena, nor any of the grammars and lexicons which accompany the former Polyglotts.

Though less magnificent than the three preceding editions, the *London Polyglott* is in all other respects preferable, being more ample and more commodious. It was published at London in 1657, in six folio volumes, under the superintendence of Dr. Bryn Walton, afterwards Bishop of Chester, assisted by several learned men. The first volume contains a very extensive critical apparatus, (in which the prolegomena, written by Bishop Walton, are a treasure of sacred criticism,) and also the Pentateuch. The second and third volumes comprise the Books of the Old Testament; the fourth has the Apocryphal Books; the fifth contains the New Testament; and the sixth is composed of various readings and critical remarks. Nine languages are used in this edition, though no one Book of the Bible is printed in so many. This stupendous monument of learning and munificence was commenced in 1653, and finished in 1657; and it was the first work ever printed in England by subscription. The plan of it was approved and encouraged by the exiled monarch Charles II. and also by Oliver Cromwell; the latter allowed the paper to be imported duty free. On the restoration of Charles II. Dr. Walton presented the work to his Majesty, and cancelled two leaves of the Preface, in which he had complimented Cromwell, for which others were substituted, containing compliments to the King; and to some copies he prefixed a Dedication to his Majesty. From these circumstances, the copies which have the original leaves, are called *Republican*, while those which have the substituted leaves, were termed *Loyal* copies: the former are most valued. The variations between these two editions are specified by Mr. Butler, in the first volume of his *Hore Biblicæ*, and by Dr. A. Clarke in his *Bibliographical Dictionary*. The *London Polyglott* is not considered to be complete, without the *Lexicon Heptaglotton*, published by Dr. Edmund Castell at London, in 1669, in two volumes folio. It contains a joint lexicon of the Hebrew, Chaldeæ, Syriac, Samaritan, Ethiopic, and Arabic languages, together with a separate lexicon of the Persian, and brief grammars of the several tongues. It is perhaps the greatest and most perfect undertaking of the kind, hitherto performed by human industry and learning. Dr. Castell (who was assisted by several learned men) expended both his fortune and his life in this immense undertaking.

Leipsic
Polyglott.

The *Leipsic Polyglott* appeared in 1750 in three volumes folio. It was edited by Christian Reineccius. The Old Testament is given in Hebrew, Greek, (from Dr. Græbe's edition of the Alexandrian MS. of the Septuagint) Latin, and German. The Latin version

is that of Sebastian Schmidt, revised; and the German version is that of Martin Luther. It has marginal notes, and the various readings of the Vatican and other manuscripts. The New Testament is given in ancient and modern Greek, together with the Syriac and German versions. The New Testament was previously published in 1713, and again (with a new title) in 1747.

The great rarity and high price of all former Polyglotts, which render them inaccessible to the majority of biblical students, induced Mr. Samuel Bagster (the publisher) to undertake what may not improperly be called the second *London Polyglott Bible*. The work was commenced in 1816 and finished in 1823. It is very beautifully printed in two sizes, quarto and octavo; and comprises the Hebrew text of the Old Testament, from Van der Hooght's edition, the Samaritan Pentateuch from Dr. Kennicott's edition of the Hebrew Scriptures, the Septuagint Greek version of the Old Testament, from Bos's edition of the Roman or Vatican text, the Latin Vulgate, and the authorized English version. At the end of the Old Testament, there are given the various readings of the Hebrew and Samaritan Pentateuchs, together with the Masoretic notes, and the various lections of the Alexandrian manuscript as edited by Dr. Græbe, and the Apocryphal chapters of the Book of Esther. The New Testament is given in Greek from Dr. Mill's edition, with the whole of the important various readings from Dr. Griesbach's edition printed at Leipzig in 1805; and is further accompanied by the Peschito or old Syriac version, the Latin Vulgate and the authorized English version. The Syriac is given from Widmannstadt's edition, (printed at Vienna in 1555), collated with the accurate edition, executed at London in 1816, under the joint superintendence of the late Rev. Dr. Buchanan and the Rev. Samuel Lee, Professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge. But the Apocalypse and such of the Epistles as are not found in the old Syriac, are given from the Philæxenia or new Syriac version. The text of the Latin Vulgate version is taken from the edition of Pope Clement VIII. The authorized English version is accompanied with the marginal readings, and a new and useful selection of parallel references. The Hebrew of the quarto copies is pointed; the octavo copies may be procured both with and without points, at the option of the purchaser.

The preceding are the Polyglott editions of the entire Bible, which are most worthy of notice. Besides them there are numerous editions extant, in two or three languages, called *Diglots* and *Tryglots*, as well as Polyglott editions of particular parts of the Scriptures. An account of these will be found in the *Bibliotheca Sacra* de Le Long, edited by Dr. Marsh, and in Dr. A. Clarke's *Bibliographical Dictionary*.

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BIBLICISTS or **BIBLE-DOCTORS**, an appellation given to the Schoolmen of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, who made the Scriptures the chief subject of their studies and the text of their lectures, without deriving any succours from reason or philosophy. The method of the Schoolastics who were the antagonists

of the Biblicists, exhibited a pompous aspect of learning; and, as these subtle doctors seemed to surpass their adversaries in sagacity and genius, they attracted studious youth to them in great multitudes. Several learned men, and even some of the Roman Pontiffs, with great seriousness and warmth, exhorted the

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scholastic divines to change their method of teaching theology; and, laying aside their philosophical abstraction and subtlety, to lay the foundations of theological learning in the study of the Scriptures. But these admonitions and exhortations were without

effect: and the Holy Scriptures, together with those who studied and explained them, fell into great neglect and even contempt. (Mosheim's *Ecc. Hist.* vol. iii. p. 92. 249—252.)

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BIBLIOGRAPHY, (from *βιβλίον*, a book, and *γράφω*, I describe,) was, originally, a branch of *Archæography*, or the art of describing or explaining antiquities, and denoted skill in the perusal and judging of ancient manuscripts; but, in its modern and more extended sense, it signifies the *knowledge of books*, as it regards the materials of which they are composed,—their different degrees of rarity, curiosity, reputed and real value,—the subjects discussed by their respective authors,—and the rank which they ought to hold in the classification of a library.

Considered as a distinct science, Bibliography has been studied most extensively by the literati of France, Germany, and Italy; to whose researches the history of literature is deeply indebted. Great Britain, however, can boast of many learned and distinguished Bibliographers; although it is only of late years comparatively, that Bibliography has been more particularly studied as a science in this country. But it is the fault of many of its votaries, especially in France, that they have exaggerated the value of their favourite pursuit, far beyond that rank to which it is fairly entitled in the scale of human knowledge; and Peignot, Achard, and others (whose writings are noticed in the close of this article,) have represented it as the most extensive, and even universal of all sciences. Bibliography, as pursued by some at least of its most ardent admirers, is little more than a mere knowledge of the "fringe and drapery" of a book: but, if it go not beyond this, it goes no useful length. If it excite no other sentiment but that of cold and distant admiration, it is a curiosity at once stupid and irregular; and its effect never can tend to invigorate the mind, or to people the imagination with ideas. To be useful, Bibliography must teach us to read what is valuable,—not merely what is rare; to make a love of books instrumental to a love of knowledge; to examine as well as to open volumes; and to apply our knowledge of what other ages have written and done, towards the improvement of that in which we live. Such is the true end and design of Bibliography.

Conformably to the brief definition above given, it is the province of the Bibliographer to be acquainted with the materials of which books are composed, and their different forms:—he knows not only the best treatises that have been written on any particular topic, and the various editions of books, but also in what important respects one differs from another; when and from what cause omissions were made, deficiencies supplied, errors corrected, and additions subjoined. Where books have been published either anonymously or pseudonymously, he indicates the real name of the concealed author; and, with regard to the rarity of books, he is acquainted with all the causes which have contributed to render them scarce. Finally,

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as a library destitute of arrangement is a mere chaos, the Bibliographer disposes the books which it comprises, in such an order, as will present an agreeable appearance to the eye; and, in compiling a catalogue, he assigns to them that place which they ought to hold in the system of classification adopted for arranging a library.

Such are the legitimate duties of the Bibliographer: and it must be admitted that they require a variety of knowledge, which is rarely possessed by a single individual. Hence different writers have discussed particular topics of Bibliography: and from their united labours, we are enabled to collect the multifarious information, which is requisite to constitute a well-informed Bibliographer.

Books are either manuscript or printed: the former are written with the hand, and offer to the Bibliographer a variety of interesting inquiries. He ought to be conversant with manuscripts of every age, with the materials on which they are written, the instruments anciently employed for writing, and the different characters used for the communication of ideas. The consideration of printed books leads to the knowledge of the history and details of the art of printing. Referring the reader to the articles MANUSCRIPTS, PRINTING, and WAITING, for the necessary information on those topics, the present article will be found to contain the most useful facts and observations on the subject of Bibliography.

§ 1. On the Materials of which Books are composed, and their Forms.

Several kinds of materials were anciently used in making books. It is now pretty generally agreed that stone was the first substance on which, in the earliest times, ages, figures, and afterwards letters, were engraven. Josephus (*Ant. Jud.* lib. i. c. 2. *sub fine*.) speaks of two columns, one of stone, the other of brick, on which the descendants of Seth inscribed their astronomical discoveries: but this relation of the Jewish historian is justly considered as fabulous. From the sacred volume, however, we have indubitable evidence of writing on stone in remote ages. (See *Exod.* xxxi. 1.) and the use of marble and stone in later times, for perpetuating the remembrance of events, is sufficiently attested by the numerous monuments of antiquity which have escaped destruction by barbarians, or by the consuming hand of time. The ancient Chaldeans engraved or wrote their astronomical observations on bricks, for 720 years, according to Epigenes, or for 480 years, according to Berosus and Critodemus, as cited by Piny. (*Nat. Hist.* lib. vii. c. 57.) Many of these bricks are still in existence, but, from the repeated failures of the learned, the task of decyphering them may now be regarded as almost hopeless.

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Lead.

The use of lead, for similar purposes, was not unknown to the ancients. Job (xix. 24.) expresses his wish that his words were engraved on lead or on a rock; and the "Works and Days" of Hesiod were originally inscribed on leaden tablets. Montfaucon was possessed of a book consisting entirely of lead; it contained some Gnostic figures, and other unintelligible writing, (*Antiq. Explicite*, ii. 378.) This curious relic of former days has long since been lost. In like manner, brass was employed by the Romans for preserving their public memorials. The Laws of the Twelve Tables were inscribed on this metal: and the treaty of the Jewish General, Judas Maccabæus, was on brass. (1 Macc. viii. 22. and xiv. 18.) The Syrian Christians in Malaya are possessed of six ancient tablets composed of a mixed metal, and containing grants of privileges to their ancestors. The Jews of Cochín are possessed of two brazen tablets, containing privileges granted by a native King, in the Malabaric language. (Buchanan's *Christian Researches*, p. 223—224.)

Wood.

Tablets of wood were common among the ancients. On such tablets certain of Solon's Laws were inscribed: such books were in use before the time of Homer; they were also well known to, and used by the Jews. (*Prov.* iii. 3; *Isa.* xxx. 8; *Holak.* ii. 2; *Luke.* i. 63.) Box and citron wood are said to have been the materials chiefly employed. They were, in general, covered with wax, and the writing was executed with styles, or pens made of gold, silver, brass, ivory, or bone, which were pointed at one end for the purpose of inscribing letters, and smooth at the other extremity for the purpose of erasing them. These tablets, when collected and fastened together, composed a book, called *Codex* or *Codices*, that is, a trunk, from its resemblance to the trunk of a tree cut into several planks: sometimes also they were covered with chalk or plaster. When they consisted of only two leaves, they were called *libri diptychi*, and in this form they are occasionally seen in the libraries of the curious. When letters were written on wooden tablets, they were usually tied together with thread, the seal being put upon the knot: whence the phrase, *littera incidere*, to break open a letter, was common among the Romans. Table books continued to be in use, in Europe, till the commencement of the fifteenth century.

Leaves.

Leaves were employed for writing on, by the Egyptians and other ancient nations, as well as by the modern oriental nations: the palm-leaf is chiefly preferred, and there are upwards of twenty MSS. written on this sort of leaf, in the Sloaneian Collection, in the British Museum. The bark of trees has likewise been employed as a material for books in every quarter of the globe: by the ancient Latins, the inner bark (*Libra*) was preferred, which word was, in progress of time, used to denote a book itself. The use of bark for this purpose still prevails in some parts of the East. *Lians*, the skins of animals, particularly parchment and vellum, have all been used for the same purpose: but vellum is now only used occasionally for printing works of luxury. The ancient Egyptians prepared the inner films of the papyrus, (whence our word *paper*) a species of reed growing on the banks of the Nile; but few fragments of which are now extant. The universal material for books at present, is paper, made from linen rags in the manner described in a subsequent article.

Bark of trees, lions, skins, papers, &c.

The earliest books were in the form of blocks or tables; but, as flexible materials began to be employed, it was found more convenient to roll the several sheets or skins on cylinders or round pieces of wood. This form continued to be practised by the Romans, long after the age of Augustus: it is now disused, except in the Jewish synagogues, for which the law continues to be written on skins of vellum sewed together, forming as it were one long roll or page, with two rollers, (the projecting ends of which the Romans termed *cornua*, horns,) and gold or silver clasps at each extremity. To this form of books there are many allusions in the Scriptures. The form, which obtains among us, is the square, composed of separate leaves sewed together: it is said to have been invented by one of the Attali, Kings of Pergamus. The form of a book depends on the manner in which the several sheets are folded. Thus, a printed sheet, when folded into two leaves is called a folio, and contains four pages: A quarto sheet folded into four, contains eight pages; and so on. Each sheet is designated by a letter of the alphabet, put at the bottom of the first or right hand page, and termed a *signature*. When the alphabet is finished, a second begins A a, instead of a single A; and when that is terminated, A a, or 3 A are given for the third, and so in succession. In some modern French books, Arabic figures are substituted for the letters of the alphabet.

In general most forms of books may be distinguished at sight, though mistakes are frequently made with regard to the size of the paper. Every book is either in large or small paper: in folios there are different sizes, as elephant, imperial, atlas, super-royal, crown, copy, demy, and medium folios. Quartos are imperial, royal, demy, and medium; octavos are imperial, super-royal, royal, demy, medium, crown, foolscap, and copy; duodecimos are royal, demy, and medium. Similar distinctions exist with regard to the smaller sizes, which can only be ascertained by examination of the *signatures*. Thus a small foolscap or copy octavo volume may easily be confounded with a duodecimo book, when pined on the same shelf; and a super-royal or imperial quarto, with a small quarto. Such mistakes are not material in the arrangement of books upon the shelves: but very important bibliographical errors would arise from them, if, in a catalogue, a small octavo were described as a duodecimo. Editions would thus be created, which never had any existence.

II. On Early Printed Books.—Editiones Principes.—Prices of Books.

In the infancy of printing the first productions of the press were made closely to resemble manuscripts, particularly in the forms of the letters. Hence in early printed books, the characters were of an extraordinary size, as in the celebrated edition of the Latin Bible, printed at Mayence, or Mentz, about the year 1455. By degrees the printers lessened their types, the alterations in which may be easily perceived in the books printed subsequently to the close of the fifteenth century. The first printed books are totally destitute of figures at the tops of the pages. When the printers began to number their pages, they placed large Roman figures at the top of the *recto* or right hand page of each leaf, and they reckoned by leaves instead of pages: afterwards, each page was numbered by Arabic figures, which continue in use to this day.

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Form of books.Early prin-
ted books

BIBLIOGRAPHY. The following criterion for ascertaining editions of the fifteenth century, where they are without date, are given (with some alterations and additions) from Jungoedra's *Dissertatio de notis characteristicis librorum à typographie inenarrabilis ad Annam M. D. impressorum*, Norimbergæ, 1740, 4to. 1. *The absence of title-pages printed on a separate leaf.*—The title-pages of books were not printed on detached leaves before 1476 or 1480, (other Bibliographers say 1460;) and very few before 1500. The printers commonly made use of the short inscription at the commencement of the book *Incipit liber qui dicitur, &c.* 2. *The absence of capital letters at the beginning of chapters or other divisions of a work.*—In the infancy of typography, the printers were accustomed to leave blank spaces at the commencement of books and chapters, which the purchasers of the volumes afterwards caused to be filled up by the illuminators, who placed the initial letters in these blanks, accompanied by some ornament of gold, or in various colours. 3. *The rare occurrence of such divisions.* 4. *The disuse of commas and semicolons.*—This was a consequence of the exactness with which the first printers imitated manuscripts. In the infancy of printing, punctuation, which is justly considered as the only means of rendering an author intelligible, was limited to a single full point. The books printed before 1457 or 1469 have no other stop: it was scarcely cut, almost square, and sometimes bore some resemblance to the form of a lozenge. The note of interrogation and colon occur in the *Psalterium Davidis*, printed at Meims, in 1459, by Faust and Schöffer; who have retained these points in their editions of the Latin Bible printed in 1468 and 1464, but have suppressed them in the *Art Grammaticæ*, printed by them in 1466. Aldus Manutius, in the close of the fifteenth century, among other improvements which he introduced into the art of printing, corrected and enlarged the punctuation. He gave a better shape to the comma, added the semicolon, and assigned to the former points more proper places. 5. *The inequality and thickness of the type.*—Although this defect is justly imputable to the earliest editions printed in the fifteenth century, yet others are extant, in which the symmetry of the typography is not inferior to that of some of the best modern printing. 6. *The solidity and thickness of the paper.*—This mark also is a consequence of the close manner in which manuscripts were imitated; the paper being manufactured so as to resemble vellum as much as possible. 7. *The great number of abbreviations, likewise introduced in imitation of manuscripts.*—Thus *Dns* meant *Dominus*; *3* commonly used for *et neque* and *quibus*; *q* for *quæ*; *q* for *quæ*; *q* for *quæ*; the letter *q* was frequently printed with a stroke across its tail, thus *q* in order to express *quæ*, *quod*, &c. The following specimen from the logic of Ocean, (a celebrated scholastic writer of the fourteenth century,) which was printed at Paris in 1480, will convey an idea of the excess to which these abbreviations were carried: *Sic hic n fuf am qd od simplr a e pducibile a Deo at nlr hic a n e g a n e pducibile a Deo.* This species of hieroglyphic is to be thus read. *Sicut hic est fallacia secundum quid ad simpliciter. A est producibile a Deo, et similiter hic: A non est, ergo A non est producibile a Deo.* (Peignot, *Essai sur Parchemin*, p. 89.) 8. *The absence of the printer's name, of the place where, and the date of the year when, the book was printed.*—The first book printed with a certain date is the *Psalter* of

1457. 9. *The absence of signatures and catchwords.*—The nature of signatures has been explained in p. 530. *Catchwords* (*Litteræ reclamationes* or *custodes*) are those words, which were formerly placed at the right hand corner of the blank line, which is at the foot of each page of a sheet: they are always the same as those with which the following page begins. Their use is, to assist the bookbinder in his work, and to prevent mistakes in arranging the sheets. Catchwords are found in manuscripts of the eleventh century, and were first used in printing by Vindelin de Spira, at Venice. They are now almost generally disused. Previously to the introduction of catchwords, printers had recourse to a *reguler* or table of the first word of the chapters, in order that the binder might properly dispose the sheets for sewing. Registers were introduced in 1469 or 1470.

The appellation of *Editio Princeps* is usually given to those editions of ancient classic authors, which are reputed to be the first; that is, to editions which have been executed immediately from manuscripts, of greater or less antiquity, but which were written previously to the discovery of the art of printing. These first editions, especially those which appeared before the year 1480, are for the most part representatives of the precious MSS. from which they have been taken: hence they are considered as exhibiting the purest text of the classics, and are held in the highest estimation by critics. To this value is to be added the rarity of the copies which have come down to our times, and which have brought the most extravagant prices. Those *Editiones Principes* are most esteemed, whose editors have faithfully followed the text of their manuscripts, without attempting to restore it, by their own arbitrary corrections or critical conjectures.

It is sometimes extremely difficult, not to say impossible, to determine the year when certain editions without date were printed, or to determine the priority between those which exhibit the same year. This circumstance renders the denomination of *Editio Princeps*, given to certain works, very arbitrary, especially where they were printed before the year 1480: nor is it uncommon to meet with three or four editions of the same author, each of which, in the judgment of experienced Bibliographers and critics, may claim to be considered as the *Editio Princeps*. Thus, out of seventeen editions of Terence printed before that year, there are five, each of which is designated as *Princeps*, but which of them is really so, it is impossible to ascertain. Of three *Editiones Principes* of Horace, that unquestionably is the first which is without date, in 4to., and which is known by the *quæstrin*, *hec quicumque dedit*, &c. at the end of the odes. It were not difficult to adduce numerous additional instances.

Further, the appellation of *Editio Princeps* is, by some Bibliographers, given to all the editions of an author, prior to 1480; which they distinguish from each other by *prima PRINCEPS, secunda PRINCEPS, tertia PRINCEPS*, &c. But this distinction can only be used with propriety, where two or more printers, without any privilege, and in very distant places, at the same time published editions of one and the same author. Of this description is the *Volturnus Maximus*, printed by Schöffer, at Mayence, and also by Spira, at Venice, both in folio, and both also in the year 1471. It often happens that in the prefaces or subscriptions to

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Editiones Principes.

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books, the printer announces himself as the first editor of a work, which nevertheless has issued from another press at the same time. In such cases it is certain that each of these editions is truly an *Envoi* *Principes*, and we can only distinguish them by designating them as *prima*, *secunda*, &c. Frequently, likewise, it happens that the appellation of *Principes* is given to the first complete edition of an author, a part of whose works only have before issued from the press: in this case such complete edition is termed *præcipuum PRINCIPES*, or *inter principes PRINCIPES*. Philip Beroaldus's edition of Tacitus, printed at Rome, in 1515, in folio, is thus termed, because it is the first which contains all that remains of that author, that is to say, the five books of *Annals*, which are wanting in all former editions.

Prices of
books.

Before the invention of printing, the business of a bookseller was unknown; the commerce of manuscripts being in the hands of the transcribers, who made copies only as they were bespoken, and who were not unfrequently employed for several years on a single work. Hence manuscripts bore such excessive prices, that few besides the most opulent could acquire a library. Even some monasteries of consideration often had only a single missal: and when any one presented a book to a church or monastery, the donor himself offered it at the altar amid the pomp of religious ceremonies. Not to detail the high prices of books in ancient times, we may remark that, about the commencement of the fifteenth century, the Countess of Anjou paid for a copy of the *Homilies* of Haimon, Bishop of Halberstadt, two hundred sheep, five quarters of wheat, and the same quantity of rye. In our own country, in 1429, the price of one of Wickliffe's *New Testaments*, was not less than four marks and forty pence, (£2. 16s. 8d.) a sum equivalent to more than forty pounds of our present money. (Robertson's *History of Charles V.* vol. i. p. 274; Wartoa's *History of English Poetry*, vol. i. Diss. ii.; Towale's *Illustrations of Biblical Literature*, vol. ii. p. 80, 81.) To descend to the time when the art of printing began to be practised, we find that Antonio Bolognæ, of Palermo, was obliged to sell an estate in order to buy a copy of Livy, which had been transcribed by Poggio Bracciolini; who sold another copy of the same historian to Alfonso II. King of Naples, for one hundred and twenty golden crowns, and vested his purchase money in buying estates. Cardinal Piccolomini, Archbishop of Pisa, was asked eighty golden crowns for a manuscript of Plutarch's *Parallelæ*; and fifteen for the *Epistles* of Seneca, but was obliged to abandon the books for want of an adequate fortune to enable him to make such costly purchases.

In the earlier years of printing, while books were sold at considerable prices, the printers were their own booksellers. Peter Schoeffer (after the dissolution of his partnership with John Fust), appears to have been the first printer who sold the printed works of others; there being extant in his hand-writing a receipt for the sum of three crowns, the price of a *Stotus in quantum Sententiarum*, printed at Nuremberg, in 1474, which he had sold to one Jehan Henry, a chorister of Pisa. John Fust, about the year 1467, sold to the college of Sorbonne, at Paris, a copy of St. Jerome's *Works* for twelve golden crowns, on condition that as anniversary mass should be celebrated for the repose of the souls of himself and his partners. A copy of

Cicero's *Orations*, printed at Venice, by Valdarfer, in 1471, was sold for two golden ducats. (Boulard, *Traité de Bibliographie*, part ii. p. 38—42.) From these instances, it is evident that books were very dear, especially when we consider the enormous difference that exists between the value of money then and now. It was not until after the general diffusion of the art of printing, and the multiplication of printing offices had caused the prices of books to fall, that bookselling establishments were formed. Early printed books having become extremely scarce, from a variety of circumstances, are now only procurable at the most extravagant prices. Peignot has published a special Bibliography of works that have sold for more than a thousand francs at public auctions, in his *Essai de Curiosités*, (Paris, 1804,) which he has continued in his supplement to that tract, entitled *Parité, Notices, et Recueil Bibliographiques*, (Paris, 1822.) The works of Brunet, Dibdin, Horæ, and other Bibliographers, contain numerous details respecting the exorbitant prices which early printed books have produced in our own times.

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§ III. On Anonymous, Pseudonymous, and Condemned Books.

Among the literati, who have written on every subject that has exercised the ingenuity of man, there are very many who from various motives have either withheld their names from the public, or have assumed fictitious names, or who have not unfrequently given only the initial letters of their names. Sometimes the secret is disclosed, and the authors' names are communicated to a few, by whom they become gradually divulged: but great numbers yet remain unknown, and the detection of them constitutes a laborious branch of study to the Bibliographer.

1. *Anonymous Books* are those published under the real name of some author of reputation, to whom consequently works are ascribed which he never composed. Of this description was the *Collection of Historians*, and other authors, pretending to be of the remotest antiquity, published at Rome, in 1498, by Johannes Anonius, (or Nanni,) of Viterbo; some of whose names had descended in the works of ancient writers, while their original writings had long since been lost. Anonius wrote commentaries to confirm the authority of these pretended remains of antiquity by passages from known authors. These were at first eagerly accepted by the learned. At length, however, the blunders of the presumed editor, in one of which he mistook the right name of the author he forged, were gradually detected, and the imposture was apparent. (D'Israeli's *Curiousities of Literature*, second series, vol. iii. p. 54—56.)

2. *Anonymous Books* are those which are published without any author's name.

3. *Cryptonymous Books* are those whose authors names are concealed under an anagram or similar contrivance. Of this description is the work entitled *Tellianus; or Discourses on the Dissolution of the Sea, the Formation of the Earth*, &c. by M. de Maillet, of which name Tellianus is the anagram.

4. *Pseudonymous Books* are those, which bear false names of authors. Of the various writers who have treated on these descriptions of books, the following are the principal: viz. 1. Vincenzii Placcii *Theatrum Anonymorum et Pseudonymorum*, Hamburg, 2 vols. folio,

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BIBLIOGRAPHY. second and best edition. To this work ought to be added, 2. *Johannis Christophori Nijli Bibliotheca Anonymorum et Pseudonymorum detectorum*, Hamburgi, 1740, folio. 3. *Dictionnaire des Ouvrages Anonymes et Pseudonymes, Français et Latins, avec les Noms des Auteurs, Traducteurs et Éditeurs*, Par Antoine Alexandre Barbier, Paris, 1806—1809, 4 vols. 8vo. The first volume of a new edition very materially corrected and enlarged, appeared in 1823: this is allowed to be the completest work extant on the subject of anonymous and pseudonymous books, printed in the French and Latin languages.

Books condemned, suppressed, or censured. Many centuries before the invention of printing, various books were forbidden to be read, by different governments, and were even condemned to the flames. Thus, at Athens, the writings of the atheist Protagoras were prohibited, and all the copies of them which could be collected, were burned by the public crier. (Diog. Laert. lib. ix. c. 55.) At Rome, the writings of Numa, the second King of that city, which were found in his grave four hundred years after his decease, were by order of the senate condemned to the fire, because they were contrary to the religion he had introduced. (Liv. lib. xl. c. 29; Plutarch in Numa.) As the Roman populace, during times of public calamity, were more addicted to superstition than the government approved, an order was issued that all superstitions and astrological books should be delivered up to the Praetor: this order was often repeated, and the Emperor Augustus is said to have caused more than twenty thousand of them to be burned at one time. Under the same Emperor, the very severe and satirical writings of Labienus, were condemned to the flames, by virtue of a *senatus consultum*, which his enemies had procured. When Crematius Cordus, in his history, called *Cassius the last of the Romans*, the Senate, in order to flatter Tiberius, caused the book to be burned; but a number of copies was concealed and preserved from the flames. (Tacitus, *Annal.* lib. iv. c. 35.) Antiochus Epiphanes, caused the Sacred Writings of the Jews to be burned; and in the early ages of Christianity, the books of the Christians were treated with equal severity, especially by Dioclesian, who caused all the copies of the Scriptures that could be found, to be burned. After the general establishment of Christianity, the clergy exercised against such books as were unfavourable or disagreeable to them, the same severity, which they had censured in the heathens, as being foolish and prejudicial to their own cause: thus, the writings of Arius were condemned to the flames by the Council of Nice, and Constantine denounced the punishment of death against those who should conceal them. The clergy, assembled at the Council of Ephesus, requested the Emperor Theodosius II. to cause the works of Nestorius to be burned, with which request he complied. The writings of Eusebius, and it would not be difficult to collect instances of the same kind from each of the subsequent reigns. (Beckmann's *History of Inventions*, vol. iii. p. 93—97.) More recent times have afforded similar instances, in consequence of the institution of the office of Book-Censors in some countries, whose duty it is to examine all books previously to publication, and to see that they contain nothing repugnant to good morals, the government, and religion. In England, we formerly had an officer

of this kind, under the title of *Licensor of the Press*; but it ceased with the revolution of 1688, since which time the press has been open. At Paris, the Faculty of Theology claimed the privilege of the censorship, as having been granted to them by the Pope: but in 1624 a commission of four doctors was created by letters patent, who were constituted the sole public and royal censors, and examiners of books; and who were answerable for every thing which they allowed to be printed. This office was abolished with the French revolution, but the censorship was revived after the restoration of Louis XVIII. to the throne, in most, if not in all Roman Catholic countries, the public faith and morals are still carefully guarded by expurgatory indices or catalogues of prohibited books, among which, however, there is this difference, that some are condemned *absolutely*, but others only *dovere corrigenti*, until they are corrected. The books condemned to be burned, or censured, comprise those which are adverse to religion and morality; seditious books, whether they are levelled against any particular government or administration, or strike at the root of all civil government; and works treating on magic, chiromancy, and other superstitious arts, which, being despised by the truly learned, fall into deserved oblivion. The best work on the subject of condemned and prohibited books, is Peignot's *Dictionnaire Critique, Littéraire, et Bibliographique des principaux Livres condamnés au feu, supprimés, ou censurés*, Paris, 1806, 2 vols. 8vo. Valuable as this work confessedly is, it is far from being complete; and is particularly defective in its notices of English books.

§ IV. On the Rarity and Depreciation of Books.

The knowledge of rare and precious books is one of the most interesting topics to the Bibliographer. Although the terms *rare* and *precious* may at first appear to denote the same thing, yet they are essentially different, since a book may be rare and not precious, or vice versa, or it may be both rare and precious. For instance,

1. Where a work is in request, only because it is with difficulty to be procured, at a very exorbitant price, independently of the beauty and celebrity of its typographical execution, the beauty of its binding, or other extrinsic circumstance, which may give it an adventitious value; such a work is simply *rare*. Of this description are the early *Facetiae*, *Mysteries*, and other productions, which preceded the regular drama, after the revival of literature; and which are indebted for their commercial value solely to the desire of rich amateurs to possess them exclusively, regardless of the price which they may pay for them.

2. Other books are *precious* without being rare, and *precious* are only to be obtained at high prices, because, from the very great expense of bringing them out, in addition to their intrinsic value, they can only be found in national public libraries, or in the collections of the most opulent collectors. Such are the splendid collections of architectural engravings published by Piranesi and others; the collections of engravings after the paintings of the greatest masters, which are commonly termed *galleries* and *cabinets*; the great collections of works on antiquities, made by Grevins, Gronovius, Polenus, and Sallengre, Montfaucon, Muratori, and others.

3. Other books are both rare and precious, either

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on account of the number of volumes of which they consist, and the subject concerning which they treat; or on account of the splendour of their execution, and particular circumstances which tend to augment their price. Such are the great collection of *Travels* in the East Indies, published by De Bry, in twenty-five parts, a complete and matchless copy of which cost His Grace the Duke of Devonshire the sum of £546. at the sale of Colonel Stanley's library, in May 1813; perfect sets of Aldrovandus's *Works* on Natural History, &c.

It is however worthy of remark that all the books, to which the appellation of *rare* is given, are not equally scarce; as the words *rare*, *very rare*, of *extreme rarity* are sometimes misapplied, in catalogues, it may not be irrelevant to divide books into two classes, those which are *absolutely rare*, and those which are only *relatively rare*.

I. *Books whose rarity is absolute.*—To this class may be referred, 1. *Ancient Manuscripts, written before the invention of printing*; 2. *Works of which a very few copies only have been printed*; 3. *Books which have been suppressed with the greatest rigour*; 4. *Such as have been almost entirely destroyed by some fatal accident.* Of this description is the *Marquina Catechis*, of John Hevelius, the whole impression of which, particularly the second part, would have been utterly destroyed by the flames that consumed his house, had he not previously given a few copies to his friends; 5. *Works of which a part only has been printed, the rest, from some circumstance or other, having never been finished*; 6. *Copies of books printed on vellum*; these are seldom to be obtained of modern date; 7. *Books printed on curiously coloured papers*; which do not always receive the ink so as to exhibit the impression to advantage: consequently, the difficulty with which they are executed limits their number and enhances their price; 8. *Unique and Illustrated Copies.* An *Unique* Book is one of which only one copy has been printed, or which has any remarkable peculiarity about it, or which is distinguished for its size, beauty, and condition, or has any embellishment, rare, precious, and invaluable. *Illustrated Copies* are chiefly historical or biographical works, which are ornamented with every portrait of every illustrious person mentioned therein, together with every variety of the same print, whether it have the artist's device or name subjoined, whether the head of the print be without the body, or the body without the head, &c. &c. (Dibdin's *Bibliomania*, p. 679—685.) Books of this description bring the most arbitrary and extravagant prices; 9. *Books which are become rare through decay or waste*; 10. *Copies printed on larger and finer paper than the rest of the work*, which, being few in number, become exceedingly scarce as soon as they are sold.

II. *Books whose rarity is only relative*, embrace three classes, viz. 1. *Such as are interesting only to a few persons*; of such description are the *Acta Sanctorum* of the Bollandists (a mass of various and profound research,) in fifty-three folio volumes; the *Collection* of the Byzantine Historians, and other large works; fugitive pieces and pamphlets called forth by temporary occasions,—the topographies of particular districts and cities,—the histories of academies and literary societies,—the lives of learned men,—catalogues of public and private libraries,—costly books of antiquities,—books treating on alchemy or other curious

arts,—and those written in languages little understood (as the works of the Rabbins, Carites, &c.) or in the burlesque poetry termed *Maccaronic*; 2. *Books condemned to be burned, suppressed, or censured*, which have been noticed in the preceding section; and 3. *editions (not works) relatively scarce*; such are the *Editiones Principes* of classic authors,—the first edition of each town after the art of printing had been established there,—the editions executed at the presses of the Aldi, Ginn, Stephenses, Elseviri, Barbou, Fouli, Brindley, Baskerville, Didot, Bodoni, Bulmer, Bensley, and other celebrated printers of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries,—editions printed *litteris majusculis*, or in capital letters, or of which the text is engraved,—editions never exposed to sale, as those which are issued either from royal presses or those of private individuals,—editions which have been sold under different titles,—editions published in foreign countries, the prices of which are enhanced by the political relations subsisting between them and other states.

Having thus stated many of the circumstances which increase the prices of books, it only remains that we notice a few of the causes which influence their depreciation. The first of these unquestionably is reprinting. A speculative person observes a very small volume sold at an excessive price: he imagines that the reprinting of it will be a very profitable undertaking, and that it will be eagerly bought up at a twentieth part of the sum which it ordinarily produces. But he soon finds himself mistaken; those amateurs, to whom the book was an object of acquisition while it was so enormously dear, will not purchase it at all when they know that it may be easily obtained. The price of the old edition falls rapidly, and the reprint, not unfrequently, becomes absolutely unsaleable. Further, the price of books is considerably diminished when a large number of copies is accidentally discovered in a warehouse, or such a number of copies is imported from foreign countries, as to afford good reason for believing that the work is no longer rare. So, the early editions of dictionaries of living languages, or treatises on particular scientific topics, become of little or no value by the publication of subsequent editions, containing the latest improvements. The same effect is produced by new editions of the collective works of an author, that are either better executed or more ample than the preceding impressions. Lastly, extraordinary circumstances necessarily produce an incredible variation in certain classes of books. The French revolution, for instance, has rendered almost utterly useless and unsaleable the whole system of canon law, particular local customs and usages, statutes of monastic orders, &c. which were an important acquisition previously to that event.

§ V. On the Choice of Books and Editions.

In order to form and to arrange a well-selected library, it is necessary to be acquainted with the best books in every department of literature: on this subject various eminent writers have left different works, of which the book collector will doubtless avail himself. Where a small library of the most select books is to be formed, it will be found most convenient to choose them all of the same size, and in the octavo form. The following remarks on the choice of books are

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GRAPHY. abridged, with some alterations, from Horne's *Introduction to Bibliography*, vol. i. p. 350—353.

In general it may be remarked that the choice of subject, the mode of treating it, and the language employed by the author, are so many criteria of the goodness of a book; the two former evince the writer's judgment, the latter shows his ability and practice in composition. Where it is possible, the best mode of obtaining a correct idea of the execution of a work, is first to take a general view of its argument and scope, and afterwards carefully to examine its several parts. More particularly it is an indication that a book is good, 1. *If the author be known to possess the requisite talents and information, or should have already published any esteemed work on the subject.* Thus, Julius Cæsar will teach us the art of war better than Cicero; Cato, Palladius, and Columella, agriculture better than Aristotle; Horace the art of poetry better than Quintilian. It is not, however, sufficient that the author be generally skilled in the science of which he treats, he ought to be conversant with those particular branches which he discusses. Some, for instance, excel in civil law, but not in public law; Salmasius proved himself an excellent critic in his *Exercitationes Plinianæ*, but was greatly inferior to Milton, in his *Defensio Regiæ*. 2. *If the book treat on a subject that requires great reading, it may be presumed to be good, if the author either possessed or could have access to an extensive library, and especially if he devoted a long time to the collection and arrangement of his materials, and to the composition of his work.* 3. *The age of an author may also afford some indication of the value of a book.* Works requiring much labour and research are more likely to be better executed by persons of a middle age than those who are further advanced in years. 4. *The author's style and condition afford another indication of the goodness of a book.* Thus a history may reasonably be supposed to be good, if the historian were either an eye-witness of the facts which he relates, or were concerned in public affairs, or had access to public records or other muniments, whence accurate information may be derived; and lastly, if he is not biased by party or by any sinister motive. The four Evangelists, therefore, were the most competent persons to write their memoirs of the life of Jesus Christ; Cicero and Sallust to compose the History of Catiline's Conspiracy; Xenophon to describe the Retreat of the Ten Thousand Greeks; D'Avila, Guicciardini, the Earl of Clarendon, and May, respectively lived during the civil wars, which they have recorded. In matters of literature, also, we give credit to those who have the direction of public libraries. 5. *Do not confound together two authors who may happen to have the same name; as Caius Plinius Cæcilius, the natural historian, with Caius Plinius Cæcilius Secundus, the philosopher; or Xenophon, the historian, with Xenophon, the Ephesian, who wrote an amatory romance.*

Choice of
editions.

As all the editions of a work are not equally good, besides having a general knowledge of the titles of books, it will be necessary, 1. *Not to mistake allegorical for natural titles.* Some curious blunders have been essayed from inattention to this rule. Thus, in the library of an ignorant quack, who had suddenly become a doctor and a Bibliomaniac, Macburius's elaborate *Treatise on Fluxions* was classed with books on pathology, the ignorant connoisseur having mis-

taken mathematical fluxions for a disease; and in another library, a large folio volume, entitled *Fuggerorum et Fuggerarum Imagines*, was classed among botanical works—the genealogy of the family of Fugger (the celebrated merchants of Augsburg) being mistaken for a treatise on male and female Ferns. (Amelbon, *Projet aux Catalogues des Bibliothèques in Mém. de l'Institut*, tom. ii. p. 477, et seq.) 2. *Where a book has two titles, it must not be taken for two different books.* 3. *In order to know which is the best edition of a work, it is necessary to know the place, year, and form of every edition,—its several editors,—of how many parts or volumes it consists,—whether it was ever completed or not,—whether any particular edition is enriched with notes or comments—with table of contents, index, preface, &c. Whether it is illustrated with notes, and what character these bear in the judgment of critics; whether it be adorned with plates, and in what manner these are executed. 4. *Whether an edition be entire or castrated.* One or two examples will shew the importance of this rule. Balstrode Whitelock's *Memorials of the English Affairs during the Reign of King Charles I. to the Restoration of Charles II.* (one of the most important volumes of secret history) were published in 1682, by Arthur, Earl of Anglesea, who took great liberties with the original manuscript. In 1739, another edition appeared, in which the castrated passages were restored. The mutilated edition, which is comparatively of little value, was that consulted by Hume for his History of England: it may be purchased at a low price, while the uncastrated edition is both scarce and dear. Bishop Burnet's *History of His Own Times* was in like manner castrated, and in this mutilated form it has often been reprinted; the best edition of this work is that executed at the Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1823, in 6 vols. 8vo. under the superintendence of the Rev. Dr. Routh, who has restored the castrated passages, and has further enriched this beautifully and correctly printed work with the notes of some distinguishing contemporaries of Bishop Burnet. 5. *Examine whether an edition be a true or genuine one or not.* In printing a work it sometimes happens that a few copies are struck off with deviations from those usually received; and, although the deviations have no general nothing to recommend them, yet books of this description are in great request among some book collectors. For instance, the genuine Elsevir Cæsar (Lugdunni Batavorum, 1635, 12mo.) is distinguished from the spurious one of the same date, by having a buffalo's head at the beginning of the preface and body of the work, and also by having page 149 numbered 153. The celebrated edition of the English Bible, printed by Field, in 1653, was counterfeited in Holland, in 1658: the genuine one is known by having the four first psalms on one page, without turning over. Sometimes also it happens that a work does not meet with the circulation which was expected; in that case, it is no unusual practice to substitute a new title-page, and to offer the work as a new edition. The *Adversaria* of Caspar Barthius form a singular illustration of this remark. That immense collection of critical notes on—and quotations from—ancient authors, together with illustrations of their manners, customs, laws, and usages, was first published at Frankfort, in 1648, in two volumes folio. Clement (*Bibliothèque curieuse*, sub voce) mentions more than one edition of the *Advers-**

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aria; but on a more careful inspection, this accurate Bibliographer detected, that the old title-pages had been removed for others of a more recent date. The booksellers not being able to sell the work, practised this deception, though to little purpose, the book being as unsaleable as ever. (D'Israeli's *Curiosities of Literature*, second series, vol. i. p. 330—339.) It were no difficult task to adduce similar instances from modern books.

Collation
of copies.

Previously to depositing books in a library it is desirable that each book should be collated, in order to ascertain that it is perfect. For this purpose the signatures, which have been mentioned in the course of this article, will be found extremely useful: but in the case of rare, curious, and extremely valuable books, it is best to collate them with copies which are known to be perfect in every respect. With regard to books of prints, both the number and the quality of the impressions are to be considered, as well as the places where they are to be inserted; and, as it sometimes happens that plates are struck off too late for the publication of a work, of the existence of which many purchasers are ignorant, care should be taken to ascertain that such supplemental plates be found in the volume.

§ VI. On the Classification of a Library.

Construc-
tion of
book-cases.

The best ornament of a library is an orderly and symmetrical disposition of the books. The apartment, or suite of apartments, appropriated to the reception of a library, ought to be light, dry, and airy, and kept extremely clean. The shelves, whether defended by glass-doors, in presses, or open their whole length, should be from eight to twelve inches distant from the wall; or if they reach to the wall, guards should be placed to prevent the books from coming in contact with it: and the lowest shelf, on which folio books are placed, ought to be at least eight inches or a foot above the floor. Between each shelf a space should be left, proportioned to the size of the volumes; and the height of the different shelves should be adjusted to the form or size of the books. Thus the first or lowermost shelf will be appropriated to the folio books of the largest size; the second, to those on common paper; the third to royal quartos; the fourth to medium quartos, &c. &c. If however sufficient room cannot be spared for keeping these different sizes distinct, the small folios and quartos must be disposed on the same shelf, but in every case a sufficient interval should be left between each volume and the shelf above it, to admit of its removal without difficulty, regard also being had not to place the books too close together, so as to prevent the circulation of air.

Enemies
of books.

Books have three formidable enemies, *insects*, from whose ravages it is difficult to secure them; *moisture*, which attacks them sheet by sheet, and finally rots them; *dust*—and *rats* which are very fond of gnawing them.

Insects.

A studious regard to cleanliness, and a careful beating of the volumes together twice or thrice in the course of a year, and especially the quality of the wood of which the book-case is made, are the best preservative from the depredations of insects. Strong odours, and especially that of Russia leather, not only prevent them from attacking particular books, but also protect those which immediately surround them. Hence it has been recommended to have the shelves made of cedar wood, or at least of sound and well-

seasoned oak, and also to disperse books bound in Russia leather on the different shelves, as well as to scatter Russia leather shavings, or some small bags of pulverized pepper, upon them. The insects which do so much damage in libraries are the *Larvæ* of the *Pinnus fur*, and the *Pinnus mollis*, of Linnæus. The latter perforate the leaves of a book in sinuous furrows, like those made by a silk-worm, when devouring a mulberry leaf: the former pierce them through almost in a straight line. M. Peignot mentions an instance where, in a public library that was but little frequented, *twenty-seven folio volumes* were perforated in a straight line by the same insect, in such a manner, that on passing a cord through the perfectly round hole made by the insect, these twenty-seven volumes could be lifted at once. The causes of these ravages are to be attributed to the pasteboards, and to the glue employed by bookbinders. Various fruitless attempts have been made to prevent such depredations by mixing wormwood, colcoquintida, and other hitters in the paste; but it appears that the only effectual remedy is the sprinkling of some finely pulverized alum and a little finely ground pepper on the paste, between the book and the leather cover. The progress of depredations already commenced has been stayed by strewing ground pepper among the damaged leaves.

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The mischief that would be occasioned by *humidity*, *Moisture*, which is always to be apprehended at certain seasons of the year, may be prevented by allowing a free circulation of air in the library, particularly by leaving the windows and shelves open in fine weather; but care must be taken not to leave them open in the evening, least moths should come in and deposit their eggs, the larvæ of which would ravage the books.

Dust is to be dreaded, not only because it is favourable to the multiplication of insects, but especially because it tarnishes the binding. But this evil may be sufficiently guarded against, by means of well-cased book-cases, and by adopting the precaution already noticed, of beating them together occasionally, and also of dusting them gently with a soft linen (not wollen) cloth.

The depredations of rats are formidable only to persons who will take no precautions against them, or only in little frequented places, or in warehouses, where books are piled up in large heaps. These animals, however, will (it is said) rarely begin to gnaw books when they can find plenty to drink.

Where a library consists of a limited number of volumes, the alphabetical arrangement of them on the shelves is as convenient as any that can be adopted. Of late years, indeed, this method of disposing books has been successfully applied to very large collections, with the exception of early printed volumes and other rare works, which cannot be too carefully preserved; but where this method is adopted, a classed catalogue is absolutely necessary. In the older libraries, the volumes are for the most part disposed according to classes.

In the classification of a library the great objects of attention are to divide and subdivide into different classes all those works, which contain the objects of our knowledge; each primary class is to be considered as a trunk or stem bearing branches, boughs, and leaves. The difficulty to be surmounted, in

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tion of
books.

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establishing the proper order between these different parts is, 1. to fix the rank, which the primary classes ought to hold; and 2. to refer to each of them the prodigious number of branches, boughs, and leaves that belong to it. One advantage, to be derived from these divisions and sub-divisions, is, that they enable us to find with ease the books which we may be seeking in an extensive library or catalogue; and of ascertaining readily the best book on the subject we are studying, or concerning which information is required. The following table will exhibit the principal classes, together with their respective divisions and subdivisions, which ought to be found in a classed catalogue, to the completion of which an alphabetical Index of authors and books is indispensable.

CLASS I. THEOLOGY. *Holy Scriptures*.—*Hebrew Bibles*, Editions Principles, et Primariz (those which have been adopted as the bases of subsequent impressions); *Polyglott Bibles*, *Hebrew Bibles* with critical apparatus.—*Ancient Versions* of the Bible.—The Septuagint and other Greek translations, Syriac, Arabic, Persian, Ethiopic, Armenian, and other Oriental versions of the Old Testament.—The *Latin Vulgate version*.—*Modern Versions* in various languages. *The New Testament*.—Editions of the New Testament in Greek.—*Ancient Versions* thereof, viz. *Oriental*, *Peshito* and *Philoxenian* Syriac versions, *Egyptian*, *Arabic*, *Ethiopic*, *Armenian*, and *Persian*.—*Western translations*, the Gothic, Slavonic, and Anglo Saxon.—*Modern Versions* in various languages. *Harmonies* of the Old and New Testaments.—*Apocryphal Books*.—*Introductions* to the Study of the Holy Scriptures, State of the Text, and History of Translations.—*Commentators* and *Interpreters*; 1. Jewish, and 2. Christian.—*Prints*, *Histories*, *Dictionaries* and *Concordances* of the Bible.—*Manners and Customs* of the Jews.—*Councils*.—*Ecclesiastical Discipline*, *Rites*, and *Liturgies*.—Greek and Latin *Ecclesiastical Writers*.—*Sermons*.—*Defences* of Natural and Revealed Religion.—*Controversial Writers*.—*Miscellaneous Divinity*.—*Ecclesiastical History* (except that of the British Empire).—*Religion* of the Mahometans, Chinese, Hindoos, &c.

CLASS II. JURISPRUDENCE. *Introductions* to the study of Jurisprudence, and General Treatises on Law;—Law of Nature and Nations.—*Laws* of the Greeks and other ancient Nations except the Romans.—*Roman Civil Law*.—*Canon Law*.—*British Law*.—*Histories* of English Law, Statute and Common Law, and *Institutes* thereof.—*Criminal and Crown Law*.—*Ecclesiastical Law*.—*Judicial Proceedings*, (Treatises on the practice of the different Courts, and Reports of Cases therein adjudged).—*Commercial Law*.—*Miscellaneous* of English Law, comprising Arguments, Charges, Readings, &c. not referable to any other Division.—*Laws* of Wales.—*Laws* of Scotland.—*Laws* of Ireland. *Foreign Laws*.—Law of France, and of the other Nations of Europe, Asia, Africa and America.

CLASS III. SCIENCES AND THE ARTS. *Introductions* to and *Histories* of Sciences and the Arts.—General Treatises and Encyclopedias. *Division 1. SCIENCES*. *Philosophy*.—*Introductions* to and *Histories* of Philosophy.—*Works* of ancient Philosophers.—*Works* of modern Philosophers. *Logic*; *Metaphysics*; *Ethics*; *Politics*, and *Political Economy*; *Physics*, or *Natural and Experimental Philosophy*. *Chemical Philosophy*.—*Chemistry*, proper; *Vegetable*, *Animal*, and *Agricultural Chemistry*; *Chemistry*, applied to Arts and

Manufactures; *Meteorology*; *Electricity*; *Magnetism*; *Galvanism*; *Alchymy*. *Natural History*.—*Ancient Writers*.—*Dictionaries*.—*Systems* and *Elementary Treatises*. *Geology*, or *Natural History* of the Earth, of *Mountains* and *Volcanoes*. *Natural History* of *Waters*, *Analyses* of *Mineral Waters*. *The Mineral Kingdom*, *Mineralogy*, *Mines*, and *Mining*. *The Vegetable Kingdom*, or *Botany*. *The Animal Kingdom*, or *Zoology*.—*Natural History* of *Zoophytes*.—*Entomology*.—*Conchology*.—*Amphibious Animals* and *Reptiles*.—*Ornithology*.—*Natural History* of *Quadrupeds*.—*Natural History* of *Man*; *Cabinets* and *Catalogues* of *Collections*, *Museums*, &c.; *Memoirs* and *Transactions* of *Philosophical Societies*. *Medicine*.—*Anatomy*.—*Surgery*.—*Medicine*, proper; *Materia Medica* and *Pharmacy*.—*Legal Medicine*, or *Medical Jurisprudence*.—*Miscellaneous Medical Productions*, comprising *Medical Journals*, *Theses*, &c.—*Veterinary Medicine*. *Mathematics*.—*History* of the *Mathematics*.—*Ancient Mathematicians*.—*Dictionaries* and *Elementary Treatises* on *Mathematics*.—*Pure Mathematics*.—*Arithmetic*, *Algebra*, *Geometry*, *Logarithms* and *Mathematical Tables*.—*Treatises* on *Mathematical Instruments*.—*Mathematics* applied to calculations of *Probabilities*, *Life Annuities*, &c.—*Mechanical Philosophy*, or *Mixed Mathematics*.—*Mechanics*, strictly so called.—*Dynamics*, *Hydrodynamics*, including *Hydraulics*, *Hydrostatics*, and *Pneumatics*.—*Collections* and *Descriptions* of *Machines*.—*Astronomy* (including *Astrology*, *Treatises* on the *Calendar*, and the measurement of time by *Clocks* and *Watches*).—*Optics*.—*Catoptrics*, *Dioptrics*.—*Perspective*.—*Music*.—*Acoustics*.—*Navigation*. *Division 2. ARTS AND TRADES*. *Arts of Peace*.—*Dictionaries* and *Treatises* on *Arts*, *Trades*, and *Manufactures*.—*Agriculture*, *Rural* and *Domestic Economy*.—*The Fine Arts*, *Painting*, *Engraving*, *Sculpture* and *Civil Architecture*.—*Art of Memory*.—*Gymnastic* and other *Mechanical Arts*.—*Pyrotechny* or *Art of making Fire Works*.—*Gymnastic Exercises*.—*Wrestling*, *Riding*, *Swimming*, *Dancing*, *Hunting*, and *Fishing*.—*Games* of *Chance* and *Amusement*. *Art of War*.—*Military and Naval Architecture*.—*Military Tactics*.—*Naval Tactics*.

CLASS IV. HISTORY. On the Study and use of History and Historians. *Division 1. GEOGRAPHY* ancient and modern. — *Atlases* and *Maps*.—*Maritime Geography*. *Voyages and Travels*.—*Introductions* to *Voyages* and *Travels*.—*Collections* of *Voyages* round the World.—*Voyages* towards the North Pole, and for the Discovery of a North-East and North-West Passage.—*Voyages and Travels* in the different Countries of Europe.—of Africa.—of America and the West Indies. *Division 2. CHRONOLOGY* or *UNIVERSAL HISTORY*.—*Various Antiquities*.—*Inscriptions*, *Ruin Obelisks*, &c. *Marbles*, *Gems*, *Seals*.—*Tables* of *Ancient Coins*, *Weights*, and *Measures*.—*Coins* and *Medals*.—*Mythology*. *Ancient History* of the World, Jews, Phœnicians, &c.—*Grecian History* and *Antiquities*.—*Roman History* and *Antiquities*. *Division 3. MODERN HISTORY*. (1) General History of Europe. (2) *British History*.—*Topography* and *Antiquities* of England. *Civil History* of England.—*General History*.—*Histories* of England during particular reigns in chronological Series, and *Memoirs* relative thereto.—*Naval and Military History*. *Documentary History* of England.—*Parliamentary History*, including *Rolls* and *Journals* of *Parliament*.—*Treatises* and *State Papers*, *Documents* relative to the Mint,

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Public Revenue and Expenditure, Trade, Customs, and Excise, &c.—Title and Succession to the Crown—Heraldry, Peerages, and Genealogical History. *Ecclesiastical History of England. History of Scotland*:—Topography of Scotland—Civil History of Scotland—Documentary History of Scotland—Ecclesiastical History of Scotland. *History and Topography of Wales. History of Ireland* previously to the Union with Great Britain:—Topography of Ireland—Civil and Documentary History of Ireland. Norman, Western, and other Islands contiguous to Great Britain. (3) *History of European States*.—Denmark and Norway—Sweden—Russia—Poland—Germanic Empire—History of the House of Austria (including that of Hungary)—Prussia—Belgium (the United Provinces and Netherlands)—France—Switzerland and Geneva—Spain—Portugal—Italy—the Ottoman Empire. (4) History of the different Asiatic Countries. (5) History of America and the West Indies. *Division 4. BIOGRAPHY. Historical and Biographical Dictionaries*—Lives of Eminent Persons, British and Foreign.

CLASS V. BELLES LETTRES. General Introductions to the Study of the Belles Lettres. *Bibliography*:—Origin and Progress of Language and Letters—Art of Writing—Art of Printing—Treatises on Books—Treatises on Libraries and their arrangement—Catalogues of Public and Private Libraries, comprising both Manuscripts and Printed Books—Catalogues of Libraries sold by Auction—Periodical Bibliography, or Reviews and other Literary Journals. *Grammar, Classics, &c.*—Treatises on Universal Grammar—Grammars of various Languages—Dictionaries and Lexicons—Greek Classic Authors, with translations of, and commentators on them, in various languages—Latin Classics in like manner—Modern Miscellaneous Writers in the Latin Language. *Philology*:—Criticism, and Rhetoric. English Poetry and the Drama. *Romances, Novels, Adventures and Fictions Voyages. Polygraphy* (Collective Works of Authors who have written on different subjects) *Literary Miscellanies*:—Facetiae, Proverbs, Livres François, &c.

§ VII. Treatises on Bibliography.

The subjects, which fall within the province of Bibliography, being very numerous and diversified, different writers have applied themselves to the elucidation of particular topics. The following are more particularly worthy of notice to those who wish to prosecute the study of this science.

1. *Dictionaries of and Introductions to Bibliography*.—1. Boudart (S.) *Traité Élémentaire de Bibliographie*, 2 parts, 8vo. Paris, 1804, 1805. This little work discusses the qualifications of Bibliographers, the principal works of which a library ought to consist, the rarity and depreciation of books, the choice of books and editions, the formation of a library, the difference between ancient and modern editions, &c. 2. Peignot (Gabriel) *Dictionnaire Raisonné de Bibliologie*, 8vo. vols. I. II. Paris, 1802, vol. III. (Supplément) 1804. This Dictionary explains the different terms relative to Bibliography, printing, languages, manuscripts, &c. and contains historical notices of the principal ancient and modern libraries, the different philosophical sects, the most celebrated printers, and Bibliographers, with lists of their works, and an exposition of the principal bibliographical systems that have been proposed for the classification of a library. 3. Peignot (Gabriel)

Manuel du Bibliophile, ou Traité du Choix des Livres, 2 vols. 8vo. Dijon, 1823. This compilation contains a great variety of useful and curious information relative to the formation and arrangement of a library. The second volume, besides a biographical and critical account (in alphabetical order) of the most distinguished writers ancient and modern, contains a useful classified catalogue of the best works in every department of literature. The bibliographical notices of French books and editions are very useful. 4. Horne (Thomas Hartwell) *An Introduction to the Study of Bibliography, to which is prefixed a Memoir on the Public Libraries of the Ancients*, London, 1814, 2 vols. 8vo. Every topic, which can properly claim the attention of the Bibliographer, is more or less illustrated in this work, to which the preceding article is materially indebted. The second volume contains special notices of all the principal writers on Literary History, the knowledge of Rare Books, Catalogues of Public and Private Libraries, &c. &c. which cannot be noticed in this article. Numerous well executed engravings enhance the value of this Introduction. 5. Dibdin (T. F.) *The Library Companion*, London, 1823, 8vo. This work professes to furnish a Manual towards the acquisition of useful and valuable, as well as rare and curious books in the several departments of Divinity, History, Bibliography, Voyages and Travels, the Belles Lettres, Sports, Pastimes, Antiquities, the Fine Arts, Reviews, Journals, the best Treatises on Education, &c. The prices of the more valuable and uncommon books are mentioned.

II. *Works, treating on Rare Books*.—1. De Bure (G. F.) *Bibliographie Instructive, ou Traité de la Connaissance des Livres rares et singuliers, &c. disposé par ordre des matières*, &c. Paris, 1765, 7 vols. 8vo. 2. De Bure (G. F.) *Supplément à la Bibliographie Instructive; ou Catalogue des Livres du Cabinet de M. Louis Jean Gaignat*, Paris, 1769, 2 vols. 8vo. 3. Née de la Rochelle, *Bibliographie Instructive*, tome X. Paris, 1782, 8vo. These three works form but one collection, which may still be consulted with advantage, though some subsequent Bibliographers have detected mistakes in them. Vol. VII. contains a notice of the works printed in the fifteenth century, and described in the first six volumes. The tenth or last volume contains a table, designed to facilitate the discovery of the anonymous books cited in the preceding volumes. 4. Santander (M. de la Serna) *Dictionnaire Bibliographique choisi du quatorzième siècle*, Bruxelles, 1806, 3 vols. 8vo. A most elaborate work, to which all Bibliographers are indebted for a fund of interesting and important information. The first volume contains an able sketch of the history of printing in Europe; the second and third present descriptions of the principal editions printed in the fifteenth century. 5. Osmont (J. B. L.) *Dictionnaire Typographique, Historique, et Critique des Livres rares, singuliers, estimés, et recherchés en tous genres*, Paris, 1769, 2 vols. 8vo. A scarce work; which, though in some respects superseded by later bibliographical dictionaries, may yet be advantageously consulted for Italian literature. 6. Laire (Fr. Xavier) *Index Librorum ab inventa Typographia ad annum 1500, chronologicè dispositus, cum notis historicis typographicis-litterariis illustratissimus*, Senonis, 1791, 2 vols. 8vo. Valuable for its bibliographical information. The books described in this work, were part of the Library of the Cardinal de Brienne: a second part of this

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catalogue appeared at Paris in 1792 (chez de Bore and), and a third catalogue in 1797 (Paris, chez Mungé), both in octavo. Yet all these catalogues are said to give an imperfect idea of M. de Bienne's library which he contemplated to make public. 7. Brunet (J. C.) *Manuel du Libraire, et de l'Amateur des Livres*; contenant, 1. Un nouveau Dictionnaire Bibliographique. 2. Une Table ou forme de Catalogue Raisonné, Paris, 1820, 4 vols. 8vo. The third and best edition of the most compendious and correct Bibliographical Dictionary extant: the first edition appeared in 1810, in three volumes, the second in 1814, in four volumes. The third edition is much enlarged, particularly in the notices of English books. 8. Van Praet (M.) *Catalogue des Livres, imprimés sur velin, de la Bibliothèque du Roi*, Paris, 1833, 5 tomes, in 4 volumes, 8vo. The compiler of this catalogue is considered as one of the most profound Bibliographers in Europe, and has for many years been at the head of the Royal Library at Paris, which is singularly rich in books printed on vellum. They are described with great minuteness. 9. Peignot (Gabriel) *Répertoire Bibliographique Universel*; contenant la notice raisonnée des Bibliothèques Spéciales publiées jusqu'à ce jour. 9. Peignot (Gabriel) *Répertoire des Bibliothèques Spéciales, Curieuses, et Instructionnelles*, Paris, 1810, 8vo. The first of these works treats on the special Bibliographies, which have been published on almost every branch of science and literature; the second contains an account (1) of works of which few copies were printed; (2) of books printed on coloured paper; (3) of books, the text of which is engraved; (4) of books published under the name of Ana. 10. Peignot (Gabriel) *Essai de Curiosités*; contenant une notice raisonnée des ouvrages les plus beaux, dont le prix a excédé 1000 francs dans les ventes publiques, Paris, 1814, 8vo. This little volume contains numerous instances of the enormous prices which the lovers of rare books have given for them at public auctions. A Supplement to it was printed at Paris, in 1809, entitled, *Variétés, Notices, et Raretés Bibliographiques*; Recueil, faisant suite aux *Curiosités Bibliographiques*. The *Annales Typographiques* of Maittaire, (Hagae comitum, Amstelodami et Londini, 1719-41,) in five volumes, quarto, with the Supplement published by Denis, (Vienne, 1789,) in two quarto volumes, the *Annales Typographici* of Panzer, (Norimbergæ, 1791-1803,) in eleven quarto volumes, and the Rev. T. F. Dibdin's *Typographical Antiquities* (4to. vols. 1-IV. London, 1810-19), ought not to pass in silence. These works contain a vast fund of Bibliographical information, and are to be found in most public libraries.

The writers on Bibliography in the English language, though not so numerous as those on the Continent, have, nevertheless, contributed much to the diffusion of this branch of literature. The following are a few of those who have treated on the knowledge of rare books. 1. Oldys (William) *The British Librarian; an Abstract of Scarce Books, in all Languages*, London, 1738, 8vo. A scarce and correct work. 2. Savage (James) *The Librarian; being an Account of Scarce, Valuable, and Useful English Books, Manuscript Libraries, Public Records, &c.* London, 1808-9, 3 vols. 8vo. This work is particularly useful, as it points out the number of plates which ought to be found in complete copies of rare and costly books. 3. Beloe (Rev. William) *Anecdotes of Literature and Scarce*

Books, London, 1809-19, 6 vols. 8vo. Many interesting anecdotes are here given, but the Bibliographical notices are not always to be depended upon. 4. Clarke (Dr. Adam) *A Bibliographical Dictionary; containing a Chronological Account, Alphabetically Arranged, of the most Curious, Scarce, Useful, and Important Books, in all Departments of Literature, from the Infancy of Printing to the nineteenth century*, Liverpool and Manchester, 1802-4, 6 vols. 12mo. This work contains a biographical notice of each author, (sometimes a little too prolix) and of his works, a distinct notation of the editions, principles et optima, and the price of each article, (where it could be ascertained) from the best London catalogues, and the public sales of the most valuable libraries, both at home and abroad. A Supplement to this Dictionary, entitled *The Bibliographical Miscellany* was printed at London, in 1806, in two volumes, 12mo. 5. Groswell (Rev. William Parr) *Annals of Parisian Typography; containing an Account of the earliest Typographical Establishments of Paris, and Notices and Illustrations of the most Remarkable Productions of the Parisian Gothic Press*, London, 1818, 8vo. An accurate compilation, enriched with numerous interesting notes relating to the History of Literature; and designed principally to show the particular influence of the Parisian Gothic Press upon the early English Press. 7. Brydges (Sir Egerton) (1) *Censura Litteraria; containing Titles, Abstracts, and Opinions of Old English Books, with Original Disquisitions, Articles of Biography, and other Literary Antiquities*, London, 1805-9, London, (second and best edition, 1816,) 10 vols. 8vo. (2) *The British Bibliographer*, London, 1810-13, 4 vols. 8vo. (3) *Restituta; or the Titles and Characters of Old Books in English Literature, and their Authors*, revised, London, 1814, 2 vols. 8vo. Many hundred curious volumes in Old English Literature are here described; though some of the articles are unnecessarily prolix. 7. The Rev. T. F. Dibdin is the most voluminous and laborious of our English Bibliographers, not fewer than eight distinct works have issued from his pen, exclusive of those already noticed, viz. (1) *The Director; or Periodical Work relating to Bibliography and the Fine Arts*, London, 1807, 2 vols. 8vo. (2) *An Introduction to the Knowledge of Rare and Valuable Editions of the Greek and Latin Classics*, third edition, London, 1806, 2 vols. 8vo. (3) *Bibliomania, or Book-madness; a Bibliographical Romance*, London, 1811, 8vo. Almost every topic, connected with Bibliography is noticed in this amusing and now rare work. (4) *Bibliotheca Spenceriana; or a Descriptive Catalogue of early Printed Books, and of many Important First Editions in the Library of Earl Spencer*, London, 1814-15, 4 vols. super-royal, 8vo. This superb collection of books contains upwards of 46,000 volumes; among them are sixty-four editions from the press of William Caxton, the first English printer, which are reputed to be worth £12,000 sterling. The present catalogue describes, 1. Books printed from wooden blocks about the middle of the fifteenth century; 2. Early printed Bibles, and parts thereof, in various languages; 3. Liturgical Works; 4. Works of the Fathers of the Christian Church; 5. Editions of the Greek and Latin Classics, in Alphabetical order; 6. Miscellaneous Literature, in the Latin, French, Italian, and English languages. The possessors of this work, to complete it, should procure, (5) *Ædem Athorpiense*, London, 1822, 2 vols. super-royal 8vo. These splen-

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did volumes contain an account of the Mansion, Books, and Pictures, at Althorp, the residence of Earl Spencer, together with a Supplement to the *Bibliotheca Spenceriana*. To render this work complete another volume now nearly finished, must be had, viz. *A Descriptive Catalogue of the Books Printed in the Fifteenth Century, lately forming part of the Library of the Duke di Casano Serra, and now the property of George John Earl Spencer, K. G. with a general Index of Authors and Editions contained in the present volume, and in the Bibliotheca Spenceriana and Edes Althorpiana*, 8vo. 1823. (6) *The Bibliographical Decameron; or Ten Days Pleasant Discourse on Illuminated Manuscripts, and Subjects connected with early Engraving, Typography, and Bibliography*, London, 1817, 3 vols. super-royal 8vo. This work is, in strictness, a supplement to the *Bibliomania*, though it forms a distinct publication. The engravings are very numerous, and admirably executed. (7) *A Bibliographical, Antiquarian, and Pictorial Tour in France and Germany*, London, 1821, 3 vols. super-royal 8vo. Full of curious Bibliogra-

BIBLIOMANCY, (from *βιβλίον* a Book, and *μαντρία* Divination,) Divination by Books. This mode of penetrating into futurity was known to the ancients under the appellation of *Sortes Homerice*, and *Sortes Virgiliane*. The practice was, to take up the works of Homer or Virgil, and to consider the first verse that presented itself as a prognostication of future events. Sometimes, however, they transcribed different verses on separate scrolls, one of which they drew, and acted upon accordingly. From Paganism, this superstitious practice was introduced into Christianity in the fourth century; and the Christians consulted the Bible for the same purpose. Whatever text presented itself, on dipping into the Old or New Testament, was deemed to be the answer of God himself. Absurd as this practice was, it gained ground by the countenance of some of the clergy, some of whom permitted prayers to be said in the churches for this very purpose. Others, however, laudably attempted to suppress it: for, in the council of Vannes, (in Gaul,) held a. n. 465, it was ordained, that "whosoever, of the clergy or laity, should be detected in the practice of this art, should be cast out of the communion of the church." In 506 this decree was renewed by the council of Agde; and that of Auxerre, in 578, among other kinds of divination, forbade the *Sortes of the Saints*, (*Sortes Sanctorum*) as they were called; adding, "Let all things be done in the name of the Lord." But these ordinances gradually became slighted; for we find the practice again noticed and condemned in a capitulary or edict issued by Charlemagne in the year 793. In the twelfth century, this mode was adopted as a means of discovering heretics. One Peter of Thou-louse being accused of heresy, and having denied it upon oath, a person who stood near took up the Gospels on which he had sworn, and opening them suddenly, the first words he saw were those addressed by the lemoine to Jesus Christ, "What have we to do with thee, thou Jesus of Nazareth?" (*Mark*, i. 34.) Which, says the puritanical relater, agreed well with such an heretic, "who had nothing to do with Christ." (*Gataker, Of the Nature and Use of Lots*, p. 330.)

Bibliomancy was also practised, not only in the common occurrences of life, and by private individuals,

phical and Antiquarian information, and illustrated with numerous highly-finished engravings, and fac-simile wood-cuts. (8) *Specimen Bibliothecæ Britanniæ. Specimen of a Digested Catalogue of Rare, Curious, and Useful Books in the English Language, or pertaining to British Literature and Antiquities*, London, 1808, 8vo. The work announced in this specimen (of which forty copies only were printed,) was never completed.

III. The Catalogues of Public and Private Libraries are extremely numerous; many of them are enriched with valuable Bibliographical notes. For an account of them the reader is necessarily referred to Horne's *Introduction to Bibliography*, vol. ii. p. 564—733, and to Mr. Dibdin's *Bibliomania and Bibliographical Decameron*. It is much to be regretted that our *Clarendon Catalogue* have hitherto been published of the contents of the British Museum, or of the splendid collections of books, which are known to be deposited in the libraries of the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin.

but also by the highest dignitaries of the Gallican church, on the most public occasions, and particularly on the election of Bishops. When a Bishop was to be elected, it was customary to appoint a fast, usually for three days: afterwards the *Psalms*, the *Epistles* of St. Paul, and the *Gospels* were placed on one side of the altar, and small billets, with the names of the candidates upon them, on the other. A child, or some other person, then drew one of the billets; and the candidate, whose name was inscribed on it, was declared to be duly elected. On one of these occasions, when the see of Orleans was vacant, one Saint Euvert caused a child to be brought, that had not yet learned to spell; he then directed the infant to take up one of the billets. The child obeyed, and took up one on which was written the name of Agnan, who was proclaimed to be elected by the Lord. But, for the more general satisfaction of the multitude, Euvert consulted the sacred volumes. On opening the *Psalms*, he read "Blessed is the man, whom thou choosest and enuuest to approach unto thee, that he may dwell in thy courts." (*Psal.* lxx. 4.) In the *Epistles* of St. Paul he found, "Other foundations can no man lay, than that is laid, which is Jesus Christ." (*1 Cor.* iii. 11.) And in the *Gospels* he opened on the passage, "Upon this rock will I build my church, and the gates of hell shall not prevail against it." (*Matth.* xvi. 18.) These testimonies were accounted decisive in favour of Agnan; all the suffrages were united, and he was placed in the episcopal chair of Orleans, amidst the acclamations of the people. A similar mode was pursued of the installation of Abbots, and the reception of Canons; and this custom is said to have continued in the cathedrals of Ypres, St. Omer, and Boulogne, so late as the year, 1744, only with this difference, that, at Boulogne, the newly chosen Canon drew the lot from the *Psalms*, instead of the *Gospels*. (*Mém. de l'Académie des Inscriptions*, vol. xix. p. 287—296, et seq.)

The practice of Bibliomancy likewise obtained in the Greek church. A single instance, out of many that might be given, will prove its existence and injurious tendency. On the consecration of Athanasius, (who had been nominated to the Patriarchate of Constantinople, by the Emperor Constantine Porphyrogen-

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netus,) the officiating prelate, Caracalla, Archbishop of Nicomedia, opened the Gospels upon the words, "For the devil and his angels." (*Matt. xxv. 41.*) The Bishop of Nice first saw them, and adroitly turned over the leaf to another verse, which was instantly read aloud. "The birds of the air came and lodged in the branches thereof." (*Matt. xiii. 32.*) But as this passage appeared to be irrelevant to so grave a ceremony, that which had first presented itself, became gradually known to the public. In order to diminish the unpleasant impression thus produced, the people were reminded, that, on a similar occasion, another Patriarch of Constantinople had accidentally met with a circumstance equally inauspicious, by opening on the words, "There shall be weeping and gnashing of teeth." (*Matt. viii. 12.*); and yet this Patriarchate had been neither less happy nor less tranquil than formerly. The ecclesiastical historian, who has recorded this fact, seems to have given some credence to this superstitious practice: for he gravely remarks that, whatever had been the case under former Archbishops, the church of Constantinople was violently agitated by the most fatal divisions during the Patriarchate of Athanasius. (Townley's *Illustrations of Biblical Literature*, vol. i. p. 113—118.)

Another kind of Bibliomancy, not very dissimilar from the *Sortes Sacerdotum* of the Christians, was the *סור סורי* (Barn-Kol) or *Daughter of the Voice*, in use among the Jews. It consisted in appealing to the very first words heard from any one, when reading the Scriptures, and regarding them as a voice from heaven, directing them in the affair concerning which they were inquiring. The following is an instance.—Rabbi Acher, having committed many crimes, was led into thirteen synagogues; in each synagogue a disciple was interrogated, and the verse he read was examined. In the first school the following words of the prophet Isaiah were read: "There is no peace unto the wicked:" (*Isa. lviii. 22.*) in another, these words of the Psalmist: "Unto the wicked God saith, what hast thou to do to declare my statutes, or that thou shouldst take my covenant in thy mouth?" (*Psal. l. 16.*) Similar sentences being heard in all the synagogues against Acher, it was concluded that he was hated by God! (Basnage's *Hist. of the Jews*, p. 165.) This species of divination received its name from being supposed to succeed the oracular voice delivered from the Mercy seat, when God was consulted by the Urim and Thummim. (*Erod. xxviii. 30.*) It is a tradition among the Jews, that the Holy Spirit spoke to the Israelites, during the tabernacle by Urim and Thummim, under the first Temple by the prophets, and under the second Temple, after the cessation of the prophets, by the Bath-Kol. (Lewis's *Antiq. of the Hebrew Republic*, vol. i. p. 112—114. Pridenax's *Connection*, part ii. book v. sub anno 107 B. C.)

BIBLIOTHECARY, } *Βιβλίον* a Book, and *θησαυρ*
BIBLIOTHECAL, } a Depository; the store
BIBLIOTHEC'S, } room or depository for books;
BIBLIOTRARY, } now commonly called the library.

What I sold in my epistle to my revered and worthy friend master Doctor James, the incomparably industrious and learned *Bibliothecary* of Oxford, I profess still, that I hold those Canons of the Apostles unexceptionally.

Hell. Honour of the Married Clergy, book i. sec. 28.

This invention of erecting libraries, especially here at Rome, came from Asinius Pollio, who by dedicating his *bibliotheca*, con-

taining all the books that ever were written, was the first that made the writs and works of learned men, a public matter and a benefit to a commonwealth. *Helland. Plin.*, li. fol. 323.

There, and a world of controversies were fierce to enlarge the *bibliothecal* store;
While clowns make antiquity their boast,
And all pretend to imitate its moat.

Byron. On Church commodes, part 6.

If to adore an image be idolatry,

To deny a book is idolatry.

Id. Upon the Ep. of Goussier's, doctrine of Grace.

The word BIBLIOTHECA is also used to denote a collection of books or treatises written by different authors on particular subjects, as well as a digested catalogue of all the writers who have treated on a certain subject. Of the former class is the *Bibliotheca Veterum Patrum*, or collection of the works of the early Fathers of the Christian church, published by Dupont and others at Lyons, in 1677, in thirty folio volumes: of the latter are the *Bibliotheca Græca, Latina, Antiquaria*, and *Ecclesiastica* of the celebrated Bibliographer John Albert Fabricius; the *Bibliotheca Sacra* and *Bibliotheca Historique de la France*; Mure's *Bibliotheca Heraldica*; (London, 1692) the *Bibliotheca Anglo-Poetica*, published by Messrs. Longman and Co. in 1815, which is a catalogue of many hundred articles, some of them the rarest pieces of Old English Poetry extant; the *English, Scotch, and Historical Library* of Bishop Nicholson. Almost every branch of human science now has its *Bibliotheca*.

BIBLISTS (*Biblistæ*) or BIBLE-DOCTORS, an appellation given by some writers of the Church of Rome, to those who profess to adhere to the Holy Scriptures as the sole rule of faith and practice, exclusive of all tradition and the supposed authority of that church. Towards the close of the twelfth century, the Christian doctors were divided into two parties, the *Biblici* and the *Scholastici*: the former were called Bible-Doctors, or doctors of the sacred page, because they explained the doctrines of Christianity, in their manner, by the Sacred Writings. In the course of the thirteenth century, the Holy Scriptures, together with those who studied them, fell into neglect and contempt; and the *Scholastici* or Schoolmen, who taught the scholastic theology with all its trifling subtleties, prevailed in all the colleges and universities of Europe, until the time of Luther.

BICE, or BIEZ. *Barh. Lat. bisia*, grey; a pale blue colour prepared from the lapis *Armenicus* (smalt.) A green colour formed by mixing the blue with ornament, bears the same name; as do also certain compositions of indigo and verditer with chalk.

BICUTITAL, } *Lat. biceps* (bis *ceps*) from bis,
BICEPTOUS, } *bis*, two, and *ceps*, Gr. *κεφαλή*, the head.

Two headed.

If by the art of *Tellurology*, a permutation of flesh, or transmutation be made from one man's body into another, so if a piece of flesh be exchanged from the *bicipital* muscle of either parties arms, and about them both, an alphabet circumscribed; upon a time appointed as some conceptions affirm, they may communicate at what distance soever. *Brown. Vulgar Errors*, p. 84.

It is not denied there have been *bicipites* persons with the head at each extrem, for an example hereof we find in Aristotle.

BICKER, } Skinner mentions the Welsh,
BICKERING, } *bicere*, conflicts. But he is strongly
BICKERMENT, } inclined to believe it of Anglo Saxon origin. He suggests the verb *picke*, to fight with

BIBLIOTHECARY.
BICKER.

BICKER-
—
BID.

pikes. In the A. S. *pyca*: Dutch, *picken* or *bicken*, *pickeren*; Ger. *bicken*, to peck at. To be always pecking at, attacking, skirmishing; squabbling, or quarrelling with: also, to move unsteadily, to quiver.

Bismes the castel of Gloucester and Biscufid al so
Ther was ofte bicker gylt, and smale burne idio.

R. Gloucester, p. 538.

Whan þou of þis art skere to be þorgh aliance,
þu is tyme to shere with þe kyng of France.

R. Breunet, p. 256.

And crye we on al þe comune, þat þei come to unite
Ther to abyde and lyghere azyen Bichale children.

Piers Plowman, p. 396.

Tho the barons aide the toune, and the castel the king,
Ther was ofte bismes henn gret bickering.

R. Gloucester, p. 540.

Thus the Frenchmen lying before the town, many frays and
bickeryages were made atween the Flemyshe and theym, in theyr
both paynes.

Fabyan, Ann. 1307.

And at the field fought before Blythcum, ere the battalles
joynd, two eagles had a conflict, and bickered together in all theyr
sights.

Holland, Sutorius, fol. 263.

In this so terrible a bickering, the Prince of Wales being then
but sixteen years old, slew his wonderful towardsme, laying on very hotly with spear and shield.

Stowe, A. D. 1346. King Edward III.

So stood they both in readiness thereby,
To toyne the comite with cruel intent;
When Arthegull, arising haply,
Did stay awhile their greedy bickering,
Till he had questioned the cause of their dissent.

Spenser, Florio Quere, book v. can. 4.

Mantime unnumber'd glittering streamlets play'd,
And hurried every where their waters shewn;
That, as they bicker'd through the sunny shade,
Though restless still themselves, a lulling murmur made.

Tamara, Cottle of Indolence, can. 1.

And indeed several histories of those times make no secret of
it, where they show the bickering between prince Henry and the
afterward favourite Car, in regard to the countess of Essex, and to
mention other motives.

Old's Life of Blough, clxxi.

From which, meanwhile, disputes of every size,
That is to say, misunderstandings rise;
The springs of ill, from bick'ring, up to battle,
From wars and tumults, down to little strife.

Byron, The Three Black Crows.

BICKERTON'S ISLAND, an island of the South
Pacific Ocean, about the 19th degree of south latitude,
and the 175th of west longitude. It is called Lattai
by the natives, and was discovered by the Spanish
Captain Morello, in 1781. It consists principally of
a conical mountain, having its base covered with a
fertile soil, and its sides clothed with forests, while
its summit exhibits volcanic appearances. Its chief
products are cocoa nuts and bananas.

BICKERTON'S ISLAND is also a name given to a small
island in the gulf of Carpentaria, and about four miles
from the shore of New Holland.

BICO'RN, } Lat. *bi*, *bicus*, two, and *cornu*, a
Bico'RNUS. } horn; *cornu*, Vassius thinks is from
the Syriac, *cornu*. Two horned.

We should be too critical to question the letter *V*, or *bicorvus*
element of Pythagoras, that is, the making of the horns equal.

Boetius, Fulgur Icarus, p. 318.

BID, } Goth. *biddan*; A. S. *biddan*; Ger.
BID'DEN, } *bieten*; D. *bidden*; Swe. *bejda*.
BID'DEN, } To bid, to invite, to solicit, to re-
quest, to pray, to require, to demand, to command.

To require, or demand, sc. for a certain price; to
offer, or propose to give.

BID.

To þe eldest he seide first, "Doxter ich bidden þe
"Sei me al cleen þis herre, how maner þu hauest me."

R. Gloucester, p. 29.

þe fader was þo glad y now, and had hire vnderstode,
To whom heo wolde y married be þo þride dei ys konde.

Id. p. 30.

"þow fore ich bidden, þat ich maner my stat holde þow ge,
"And þat þou of kyn Bretagne more wynne þow ge."

Id. p. 54.

And gat vor al ys sorowful, as þi fyrste ys.
þow biddynge of Seþys Dumtun, ys soule com to bys.

Id. p. 280.

So aþein Edmunde þei held it half a geve,
þei wold þe sege no hard, þei sent a marcenere,
þei lide forto geþe at his wren biddynge,
If he þun saue wilde aþein Henry our kyng.

R. Breunet, p. 323.

Ac ich praye þe queþ. Hunger er þow wende
Of beggers and of lyghers, what best be to done
For ich wot wel be þow wende þei wold ful þe.

Piers Plowman, fol. 138.

This carpenter said his devotion,
Of beggers and of lyghers, what best be to done
Awaiting on the rule, if he it were.

Chaucer, The Millers Tale, v. 3641.

Or if you list to bid him thence go,
Trill this pla, and he will tansh anon
Out of sight of every maner wight.

Id. The Spicers Tale, v. 10641.

The smile is fette, and wise therein,
Whereof he bade his wife becom,
Drinke with thy father, dune he saide,
And she to his biddynge com,
And take the smile, and what his lile
She drinketh, as she, whiche nothing wist
What cap it was.

Geow, Conf. Am. book i. fol. 23.

And he seide his seruants for to clepe men that wren bide to
the weddingis and thei wolden no come. Estocore he seide othere
seruants, and seide seyn ys to the men that ben bidden to the
feste, Lo, I have maad reuy my note, my bulis and my veltalia
ben slayne, and alle thinge ben reuy, come ys to the weddingis.

Wiclyf, Matthew, chap. xxii.

And [he] sent forth his seruantes, to call them that were bidden
to the weddinge, and they woulde not come. Agayne he sent forth
other seruantes, sayinge, tell them whiche are bidden: beholde, I
have prepared my dynner, myne oxen and my fillings are killed,
and al thynges are reuy, come vnto the marriage.

Matth. 1551.

Now nothing lacketh but crumming of the guests, that the pre-
parations be not made in vain. But they againe neglected the
bidders. And when the bidders called vpon them, every man made
his excuse.

Idell, Matthew, chap. xxii.

The world is wondrous fearful now, for danger bids men
doubt.
And make how chaunceth this? or what meaneth all this neede?

Geow, A Glean, &c.

A princess being born, and above, with those maids,
All noble like herself, in bidding of their leads
Their ballades bequestid vpon her to deured
Which there should after live.

Derwent, Poly-Othion, Song 13.

Adelwulf king of the Danes came vpon him with a great
power, and bade him battell, wherein Corricus and Adelwulf,
kings of the Pagans were vices.

Stow, The West Saxons, Ann. 900.

For myrde, I was not infer'd so,
By any Tribun, that any power, should bid them any blowes;
In nothing leare they blame of me.

Chapman, Hen. II, book i. fol. 4

BID.
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BIDE.

Y^e Frenche kyng and his cotseyale wrote agayne to y^e kynge of Castil, *lydding hym to take no thought nor doubte, for within y^e month of January he wold give Engleide no muche mdo.*
Frasart. Cronycle, v. li. C. 50.

LEP. Here's more news.

MAN. Thy biddings have been done, and euerie house Most noble Caesar, shall thus haue report How 'tis abroad.

Shakespeare. Antony and Cleopatra, fol. 343.

Of other care thy little reckoning make,
Thus how to scramble at the shearer's feast,
And shove away the worthy bidden guest.

Lyndes, l. 118.

Sir Roger, who is very well acquainted with my humour, lets me rise and go to bed when I please, dine at his own table or in my chamber as I think fit, sit still and say nothing without bidding me be merry.

Spectator, No. cxi.

In the thirty sixth year of his age he repaired to Long-Lane, and looked upon several dresses which hung there deserted by their first masters and exposed to the purchase of the best bidder.

Id. No. ccxii.

Have I not said, not what I ought,
But what by earthly master taught?
Did I e'er weigh, through duty strong,
In thy great biddings, right and wrong?

Churchill. The Ghost, book iv.

BIDDING OF THE BEADE, a charge anciently given by the parish priest, requiring his parishioners to come to prayers on some special occasions. The custom is still retained in the church of England, in the notice given out on Sundays of days appointed to be kept holy in the ensuing week.

BIDALE, Sax. *biddan*, to pray. An invitation of friends to drink ale at the house of some poor man, who thereby hopes for charitable contributions for his relief. It is still used in the west of England; and is mentioned Stat. 26 Henry VIII. c. 6.

BIDASSOA, a river which rises in the Pyrenees, and forms a part of the line of demarcation between France and Spain before it falls into the Bay of Biscay. It is navigable for a short distance from its mouth, and was long a subject of contention between these powers. It has been known by different appellations, as the Andaye, from the adjacent tows of that name, the Gastalabar, the Vidassa, and the Vidasson. After a variety of claims to the exclusive possession of this river had been urged both by France and Spain, it was agreed by treaty between Louis XII. and Ferdinand I. that it should be common to both nations. The Isle of Phenassins, which is formed in its estuary, was the spot where the treaty of the Pyrenees was signed in 1659.

BIDE, } A. S. *bidan*, *abidan*. To stay or remain,
BIDOW. } to tarry, to dwell, to continue, to wait,
to expect.

To stay under or support, to endure.

The next Latene tide Sir Lowys went his way,
Na laenger wild he bide, for jing jay men mot say.
R. Brunne, p. 227.

That of long time here have I bene,
Within this yle biding as quene,
Lining at ease, that erer right
Moe perfit joy hath no might.

Chaucer's Dream, fol. 357.

Shame shall make him bide by his promise though he were such a man, that I could not compell him, if he would deny it.

Tyndall's Works, fol. 442.

WESTM. Farwell faint-hearted and degenerate King,
In whose cold blood no spark of honour bide.
Shakespeare. King Henry VI. part iii. fol. 148.

Na cruel guard of diligit care, that keep
Coward's woe awake, as things too wise for sleep:
But reversed discipline, and religious fear,
And soft obedience, find sweet lodging here.

Crooke. A Religious House.

We have bene but yuell cotseyaled to take this way; yet it had bene better to haue gone by Saynt Omers than to bide in this danger.

Frasart. Cronycle, v. l. C. 413.

They are in marvellous awe at the Squadrils, and very simple people, and live marvellous awfully; for they brought us to their biddings about two miles from the harbor, where we saw their women and lodging, which is nothing but the skin of some beast layd upon the ground.

Hickes. Voyages. M. Thomas Cuddeih, v. iii. fol. 809.

And now too soon for us the circling hours
This divided time have compassed, wherein we
Must bide the stroke of that long threaten'd wound;
At least if so we can.

Milton. Paradise Regained, book i.

For thou art not a God that takes

In wickedness delight

Evil with thee no biding makes

Foots or mad men stand not within thy sight.

Id. Psalm 3.

The wary Dutch this gathering storm foresee,

And darst not bide it on the English coast;

Behind their trench/rens shallows they withdraw,

And lay their courses to catch the British boat.

Dryden. Anna Maria, st. 179.

BIDEFORD, a seaport market and borough town on the river Torridge in Devonshire. The greater part is built on the declivity of a steep eminence on the western bank, the remainder on the foot of a hill at the other side. In the civil war Bideford declared for the Parliament, but was soon afterwards taken by the Royalists. It is remarkable as being the last place in England from which any persons were convicted under the statute against sorcery and witchcraft. Three women, Temperance Lloyd, Mary Trembles and Susannah Edwards were tried, condemned, and executed in the year 1682. The particulars are published under the title, *A true and impartial relation of the informations against three witches, who were indicted, arraigned, and convicted at the Assizes holden for the County of Devon, at the Castle of Exeter, August xiv. 1682, with their several confessions.* The confessions of the prisoners themselves were held to be strong proofs of their guilt, and in these they persisted even on the scaffold.

At the close of the seventeenth century, the exports from Bideford to Newfoundland, were exceeded only by two other ports in England; its import trade by one only. In Queen Anne's reign, it was so exposed to the depredations of privateers, that it was known by the name of the *Golden Bay*. For sixty years from 1700, tobacco was the great import article at Bideford. The number of vessels now employed is about 100. They carry coals and elm to the southern parts of the county, oak bark to Ireland and Scotland, and partake of the herring and Newfoundland fisheries. The chief manufacture is coarse brown earthenware. Dr. Shebbeare, a well known political writer and the author of *Chrysal*, was born and educated here. The church is a rectory. The population, in 1821, 4063. Poor's rates, in 1803, at St. 6d. 4^d 72. 12s.

BIDENS, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Syngenesia*, order *Polygamia Aequalis*. Generic character. Receptacle plane, palmaceous. Calyx of many leaves with many foliaceous bractes at the base; corolla sometimes radiant. Seeds crowded with two-five persistent awns, which are rough with minute deflexed bristles.

BIDE.
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BIDENS.

BIDENS.
—
**BIELO-
OZERO.**

A genus chiefly of herbaceous annual plants, with compound flowers; about twenty species have been described; three only are natives of Europe: two of these, viz. the *B. cernua*, Nodding Bur-Marigold, and the *B. tripartita*, or Trifid Bur-Marigold, are met with in Britain.

BIDENTAL. } *Bis, binus*, two; and *dens*, a tooth.
BIDE'NTATE. } Forks two teeth, two prongs.

His management of forks is not to be helped when they are only *bidentate*. *See* ft.

[Oniscus.] With seven scales, the last *bidentate*.
Presumpt. British Zoology.

BIDENAL, in *Roman Antiquities*, from *Bidens*, the sheep offered to the gods at the death of any person by lightning. The place where an occurrence of this nature took place, was immediately deemed sacred, enclosed with a wall of stones, or stakes, or sometimes only with ropes, and the body of the sufferer either buried there or suffered to lie on the ground where it had fallen. The place was called *Bidentale*, from the sacrifice being a sheep of two years old; and there were priests especially appointed to perform the necessary ceremonies wherever any lightning fell; the Romans considering it as an indication that the gods desired to have such a spot sacred to their worship.

BIDET, *bidet*, Fr. of unknown etymology. A little nag or curtail. Cotgrave.

I will return to my self, mount my *bidet*, in a dudge; and correct upon my curtail.

Ben Jonson. Masque Chlondius, l. 155.
BIDI-BIDI, in *Zoology*, a name of the *Rallus Javanicus* of Latham.

BIELAU, a manufacturing town of Silesia, in the circle of Reichenbach, containing between 6000 and 7000 inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in weaving serge, fustian, and muslin, great quantities of which are exported. It contains several good houses, with four Catholic and Lutheran churches, and a castle.

BIELEFELD, a town of the Prussian States, the capital of the county of Ravensberg in Westphalia. It contains nearly 6000 inhabitants, who are mostly engaged in flourishing manufactures of leather, soap, woollen, linen, and thread; but the chief trade is in linen, which formerly caused a considerable balance in favour of the place. It stands about twenty-five miles east of Munster, in lat. 51° 53' N. and long. 8° 27' E.

BIELGOROD, an old town of European Prussia, near the southern borders of the government of Kursk. It was built by the grand Duke Wladimir in 990, and is an Archbishop's sec. Bielgorod covers a large space of ground, and contains 9000 or 10,000 inhabitants, who carry on a good trade in the products of the surrounding country, as honey, wax, tallow, leather and soap. This town submitted to the arms of Potemkin in 1790, and is nearly seventy miles south-west of Kursk, in latitude 50° 55' N. and long. 35° 54' E.

BIELLA, or **BIELLA**, also sometimes called **BIOGLIO**, a populous town in Piedmont, the capital of the district of Biellese. It stands near the rivers Cervo and Auresa, and covers the declivity and summit of a hill, including several churches and monasteries, and a population of 8950 inhabitants. It is about thirty-five miles north-east of Turin, in lat. 45° 28' N. and long. 7° 36' E.

BIELO-OZERO, (*White lake*) a lake in European Russia, in the government of Novogorod, about thirty

miles long and nearly twenty broad. It appears to derive its name from its bottom, being chiefly composed of white clay, which in stormy weather causes a strong white foam to rise to the top of the water. It receives several streams from the surrounding country, and the Schekuna issues from it, and connects it with the Volga. It abounds with fish.

BIENNE, a small district of Switzerland, which lies between the lake of the same name, and a branch of the Jura mountains. It was encompassed by the Canton of Berne, Solcure, the Principality of Neuchâtel, and the Bishopric of Basle; but was annexed to the canton of Berne, by the congress of Vienna, in 1815. The extent of this little state was about 150 square miles, and the population nearly 6000. The Bishop of Basle was the sovereign, and it, therefore, presented the phenomenon of a Protestant state under a Catholic ruler; but his power was at all times greatly limited by the ancient privileges of the people, and it was, therefore, rather nominal than real. The language of the state was provincial German, but as it bordered upon Neuchâtel, many of the people spoke a kind of corrupt French. As Biemme formed an important pass into Switzerland, it was early taken possession of by the French, when they invaded Switzerland in 1798; when it was annexed to their empire, and included in the department of the Upper Rhine.

BIENNE, the capital of the above district, is situated on the river Saas, at the northern extremity of the lake of the same name, and near the foot of Mount Jura. It is called Biel by the Germans, and contains about 2700 inhabitants, who are active and industrious, and carry on various manufactures, besides being engaged in trade with the surrounding districts. Among the branches of industry, there are iron forges, manufactures of wire, leather, and chintz. The town stands about fifteen miles north-west of Berne.

BIENNE LAKE, of a lake of Switzerland, in the above district, about nine miles long and four broad, lying north-east of that of Neuchâtel, with which it is connected by the river Thielle. This lake is skirted on both sides with picturesque scenery, and productive vineyards, interspersed with country houses; while the town of Nidau, forms a pleasing object on its eastern shore. Towards the southern extremity is the small island of St. Peter, sometimes called *Rousseau's Island*, from its having been the place of that singular man's retirement and residence, when the violence of the populace drove him from Moitier, where Frederick, King of Prussia, had promised him protection. It is an undulating and well wooded island of about two miles in circuit, commanding the lake of Biemme with its diversified borders; and so partial was Rousseau to this spot, that he deemed the two months he spent there, though there was only a single house on the island, as the happiest period of his life. "So happy," he says, "that I could have passed my whole existence without even a momentary wish for another situation."

BIENNAL, *bis*, and *annus*, a year.
Living, lasting or enduring, two years.

You can by so culture or art extend a fœtal stalk to the stature and signum of an oak: then, why should some be very long-lived, others only annual or biennial? *Ray on the Creation*, part i.

In (the Eastern Mallee) flourished in the physic garden very well two years, and flower'd extremely, but did not perfect seeds, and being a biennial plant, is since entirely decay'd.

Millett. Gardener's Dictionary.

**BIELO-
OZERO.**
—
**BIEN-
NIAL.**

BIER. **BIER,** } A. S. *bearan*, to bear, that which
BIRN-BALKS. } bears. Usually applied to that which
 bears a corps to burial; hy R. Gloucester; to that
 which bears a sick person; & a litter.

Uter, ye gods kynge, (of whom we speke by rote)
 Was felde after þat he was in horse bere y' loore.

R. Gloucester, p. 165.

And he cam sygh and tocheide the bere, and thai beare, stode,
 and he seyde yonge man Y seye to thee rise up.

Wiclif. Luke, ch. vii. 41.

Womā, saith he, make no more weping. And when he had
 so said, he came unto the bere wherem the dead int was carried,
 and put his hand to it. And immediately they whiche carryed the
 corpe staid.

Udall. Luke, ch. vii.

It is a shame to behold the insatiableness of some covetous
 persons in their dolours: that where their secretours left of their
 land a bread and sufficient bere, to carry the corpe to the
 Christian sepulture, how men pinch at such bere, which by
 long use and custome ought to be unobtainably kept for that purpose.

Hemley for Elegance Werke, part iv.

Truly so long as he [Strabo] lived, they feared his greatness
 obtained by arms, for indeed he was a noble captain: but being stricken
 with a thunderbolt, and dead, they took him from the bere wherem
 his body lay as they carried him to burial, and did thereto great
 villany.

North. Plutarch, fol. 526.

But when Heliodorus, I wot not whether by sickness or by
 some devised violence, was dead (loth I am to say so much,
 would God the thing itself could not speak it) when his corpe
 was carryed forth to be buried by the bere, many honourable
 personages went before it, as occurrences in black.

Holland. Amosant, fol. 350.

I know not why

I love this youth, and I have heard you say,
 Loue's reason's, without reason, The bere at doore,
 And a demand who is't shall dye, I'd say
 My father, not this youth.

Shakespeare. Cymbeline, fol. 387.

A bir is next prepared,

On which the lifeless body should be rear'd,
 Cover'd with cloth of gold, on which was laid
 The corpe of Arctur, is like robes away'd.

Dryden. Palæmon and Arctur, book iii.

Honorio dead, the funeral bell

Call'd ev'ry friend to bid farewell.

I join'd the melancholy bir,

And dropp'd the unavailing tear.

Cotton. Platan the last Death.

BIESBOSCH, a large lake or arm of the sea, in
 South Holland, between Dort and Gertruydenburg,
 which was formed, in 1421, by the bursting of the
 dykes. By this lamentable catastrophe, which hap-
 pened on the 19th of November to that year, more
 than seventy villages, containing 100,000 inhabitants,
 were suddenly overwhelmed in a watery deluge. A
 few small islands, rising but little above the surface of
 the water, are all that remain of this once fruitful
 tract.

BIFID, *Bi* and *fido*. To cleave in two; cleft in
 two.

[Crab.] With a *bifid* snout; heart-shaped, small tuberculated
 body, &c.

Pennant. British Zoology.

[Lobster.] With jointed body; legs eleven on each side; tail
 bifid, &c.

Id. Ib.

The characters (of the hemlock) are: the leaves cut into
 minute segments, the petals of the flowers bifid, &c.

Miller, in F. Cicuta.

BIFOLD. Twofold. Thus, the quarto Shakespeare.
 The first folio reads by *foote*.

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O madness of discourse!
 That came sets up, with, and against thyselfe
 thy *foote* authority: where reason can reason
 Without perdition, and loose assume all reason,
 Without result.

Shakespeare. Troilus and Cressida, fol. 102.

BIFORM, } *Bi* and *forma*. "The English form
BIFORMITY, } and *france*, "Tooke says, "are the
 past participle of the A. S. *freman*, *facere*;" and the
 Latin *forma*, by a common transposition, he considers
 to be from the same verb.

Having two forms or shapes; double formed.

And, from whose mouth-teeming womb, the earth
 Receiv'd, what much is mourn'd, a *hijem* birth.

Crowell. Transl. Urid. Metam. book viii.

Strange things he spoke of the *biformity*
 Of the Dæmons; what amongst sort
 Of living rights; how monstrous-shap'd they be;
 And how that song and beast in one consort.

Merc. Song of the Swan, part i. ch. iii. at. 70.

BIFRONTED, *bi* and *frons*; the front or forehead.
Frans, Vossius thinks, may be from Gr. *ὑπερῖν*, *more*,
 because the front or forehead is the index of the mind.
 Having two fronts; double fronted.

Licitors, gag him: doc.

And put a case of vizards o're his head,
 That he may look bifronted, as he speaks.

Ben Jonson. Festaster, act v. sc. 3.

The condition
 Of our affairs exacts a double care,
 And, like bifronted Janus, we must look
 Backward as forward.

Mansinger. The Maid of Honour, act ii. sc. 3.

BIFURCATED, } *Bi*, two, and *furca*, a fork;
BIFURCATION, } of uncertain origin.
 Separated, divided, cleft asunder, like a fork. See
 FORK.

The first a Cataphract and far derived similitude, it [the
 mandrake] holds with man; that is, in a bifurcation or division of
 the root into two parts, which some are content to call thighs.

Brown. Vulgar Errors, p. 105.

The mouth (of the lesser lamprey) is formed like that of the
 preceding; on the upper part is a large bifurcated tooth.

Pennant. British Zoology.

BIG, *r*.

Bio, *adj*.

Bi'gger, or

Bi'oly,

Bi'gness,

Bi'g'lied,

Bi'g'ned,

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Perhaps from the A. S. *byrgan*,
byrgan; Swe. *byrga*; English, to
 big, to build. *Edifcare, struere*,
adstruere, to build, to pile or heap
 up; and thus to increase the
 bulk or size, to enlarge, to form
 into a large mass, to magnify.

Dr. Jamieson says, "that a
biggin is a house property of a
 larger size, as opposed to a cot-
 tage." He also produces, from
 Ritsen, some instances of the use of *biggy*, signify-
 ing habitable, commodious; ood others where it may
 signify *big*, i. e. large. Ritsen gives no explanation,
 but evidently considers them the same word differently
 applied.

& of Gryme a *banher*, men reds gill in ryme,

Just he *bigged* Grymshy Gryme just ilk hyme.

R. Bruce, p. 26.

Kithen & houses breast, nocht þan wild he spare,

þer þe *bigg* had *bigg*, he mad it wald he bare.

Id. p. 62.

BIG.

But they can double their revell
To bigger bees, and bigger horn hold.
Chaucer. The Flowman's Tale, fol. 93.

But on a day well armed bright and sheere
Hether and maye wryght out went
With spere in hand, & bigger bowe bent.
Id. Troilus, book iv.

I beseech you lay an bigger hartien vp5 vs then those fayrful
fathers dyd which thought that sufficient.
Frith. Works, p. 145.

He will destroy thy *lygly* landys,
And siew all that before thy standys
Ande full many a lyfe.
Ruscon. Africal Romances, v. iii. p. 10.

Sche sayde, God, of myghtys moost,
Fader and sone, and holy gost,
As y dud serry thys dede,
Vt y gyttin be of thys,
Brenge me to thy *lygly* byss,
For thy grette goodnes.
Id. v. iii. p. 71.

The holy armye brent he there,
And lefte that *lygly* hows full barre.
That surely was to see.
Id. v. iii. p. 63.

Then came oon *lygly* Awdremouche,
The furste *lygly* of Anteoche,
And enshabyed cuntryes cire.
Id. v. iii. p. 1.

And surely saying that in this chapter he hawleth *lygly*, and
scoldeth stronglye and railleth rhyfely, and lyeth polumously
eis is all hys matter beynde marceyously feble and weake.
Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 701.

In the soner folowynge, about Mary Magdalene tyde fell *lygly*
of such *lygly* nature that it slewe both men and bestys.
Falgon, v. i. ch. 238.

[William Rufus] was of person a square man, red coloured, &c.
... not of any great station, though somewhat *lygly* belind.
Sire. Anno, 1087. William Rufus.

Go, take phycke, dost upon
Some *lygly* nam'd composition,
The oraculous doctor's myxle bils,
Certain hard words made into pills;
And what at length shall get by these?
Only a costlier disease.
Crashaw. In Praise of Lenten.

From those clear pearly cliffs which see the morning's pride,
And check the surly lips of Neptune when they chide,
Unto the *lygly* waves in the Iberian stream,
There Time still unyokes his fiery-hoofed team.
Dryden. Poly-Otton, Song i.

There if he can with terms Italianate
lygly-naming sentences, and words of state,
Fair patch me up his pure lambic verse,
He ravishes the gauding scaffolds.
Hall. Satire iii. book i.

And those which erewhile were so wale and wine, waxt forward
enough after the cunt, and grew to speake *lygly*.
Senior. Tactus, fol. 194.

Hence oftentimes authoritie
Looks *lygly* than a bull,
With suiters poore too sternly quicke,
In helping them too dull.
Warner. Athens's England, book ix.

The elephants of that cuntry be stronger then those that be
made tame in Aphrike & their *lygly* do answer vnto their
strength.
Brande. Quintus Curtius, fol. 233.

He look'd a lion with a gloomy stare,
And a're his eyebrows hang his matted hair;
lygly'd and large of limbs, with sinews strong,
Broad shoulder'd, and his arms were round and long.
Dryden. Palaeus and Arcite, book iii.

Your *lygly*-bellied hottie may revish your eye,
But how insulde you'll look when your hottie is dry?
Farley. Women, a Ballad.

Mar. O Lucia, Lucia, might my *lygly*-beats heart
Vent all its griefs, and give a loose to sorrow,
Marcia could answer thee in sighs, keep pace
With all thy woes, and count not tear for tear.
Addison. Cato, act iv. sc. 1.

Now driven before him, through the arching rock,
Came tumbling, leaping on heaps, the unnumber'd flock;
lygly-sides' d' ewes, and goats of female kind.
Pope. Odyssey, book ix.

BIGAM, } Gr. *bigamos*, *his* or *his*, twice, and
BIGAMOUS, } *twice*, to unite in marriage.
BIGAMY, } A bigame is one twice married,
BIGAMY, } whether the first spouse be living or
not. A divorced woman who married again was also
called a bigame.

And therefore was it alleged against this goldsmith that he was
lygly; this good woman perceiving that her former marriage
suddenly shortens her husband's days, came into the open courts
before the judges and affirmed by her oath the contrary to the truth,
that she was never married to no man other than to the *lygly*
goldsmith.
Hall. King Henry VIII.

It is the kind of man
Sith Lameth was, that is so long gone,
To be in love as false as ever he can,
He was the first father that began
To loven two and was in *lygly*.
Chaucer. Of Queen Anselme, &c. fol. 236.

Which is a plain proofe y^e covering y^e publick of any an wises
tho one & the forbidding of *lygly* by y^e wedding of one wife after
another, was the special ordinance of God & not of Saint Poule.
Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 229.

Greater is the wonder of your strict chastite, than it would be
a nouell to see you a bigame.

Warner. Athens's England, Addition to, book ii.

Saint Chrysostome saith, that S. Paule suffereth not them,
that haue twice married, to attaine such a reame. By these
words, saith M. Harding, Chrysostome condemneth the impure
lygly of our holy gospellers.
Jewell. A Defence of the Apologie, fol. 173.

lygly, according to the canonists, consisted in marrying two
virgins successively, one after the other, or once marrying a
widow.
Blackstone. Commentaries, iv. 163. note b.

BIGAMY, in its original and proper signification,
denotes the act of being twice married, and was ap-
plied, by the Canonists, to what, under their law, was
considered an offence; namely, the marrying two or
more virgins in succession, one after the death of the
other; or the once marrying a widow. This was
made an offence by a canon of the Council of Lyons,
in the year 1274, during the Popehood of Gregory
the Tenth, under the authority, as has been supposed,
of the words of St. Paul's First Epistle to Timothy,
ch. iii. v. 2. where it is enjoined that a Bishop should
be "the husband of one wife." This fantastic restric-
tion was sanctioned and adopted by our law, in the
fourth year of Edward the First; and, as the ecclesi-
astical canon had pronounced Bigamists to be "omni
privilegio clericali privati," the statute (4 Edw. I. st. 3.
c. 5.) deprived them of benefit of clergy. This en-
actment, however, was repealed by a statute of the
more enlightened and reformed reign of Edward the
Sixth (1 Edw. VI. c. 12. s. 16.) and Bigamy, in the
sense of the canon law, was no longer an offence or
incapacity in our code. The word is now applied to
that which would more correctly be termed poly-
gamy—the having two or more wives living at one
and the same time—a practice, the criminality of
which is demonstrable from the first principles of the
social and domestic compact, without recurring to

BIG.

BIGAMY.

BIGAMY. any overstrained construction of isolated passages of Scripture. Our writers on Crown Law have properly arranged it under the class of offences against the public economy; and it seems to be with equal propriety, and only with more specific classification, that Filangieri, the eloquent and philosophical commentator on the science of legislation, has ranked it amongst the offences against public coötenancy. (*Scienza della Legislazione*, lib. iii. cap. 47.) By the ecclesiastical law of this country, a second marriage, during the life of the first wife or husband, is simply void, and it was only in the reign of James the First, that secular punishment was awarded to it. It was, by a statute of the second year of that reign, cap. 11. made felony, though not without benefit of clergy. The 18th of Elizabeth, c. 7. s. 2 and 3, (a statute not noticed by Blackstone,) inflicts the punishment of branding in the hand, and imprisonment for any term not exceeding one year; and by an enactment of the last reign, (35 Geo. III. c. 67. s. 1.) Bigamy is subjected to the same punishments with grand or petit larceny, the effect of which is, that the burning in the hand may be commuted for seven years' transportation, and the limit to the duration of the imprisonment is wholly taken away. The statutes, however, against second marriages, except out of their penal operation, persons whose first husband or wife has been absent for seven years, without the knowledge of the party re-marrying, though that absence be within the King's dominions; or has been absent out of the kingdom, whether with or without the knowledge of the party remaining in England. It is also no offence to marry during the life of a first husband or wife, where there has been a divorce of the former marriage; or where that marriage has been declared void by sentence of an ecclesiastical court. There is a further exception touching marriages contracted within the age of consent, on which, in the unsettled state of our Marriage Laws at the present time, it would be needless, and, perhaps, misleading, to enlarge.

BIGATI, Roman silver coins stamped with a *biga* or two horse chariot, one of the emblems of Victory. *Nota argenti fuisse bigæ atque quadrigæ, et deinde Bigati quadrigatique dicti.* Plin. xxxiii. 3. The *Bigati*, *Quadrigati*, and *Victorini* were all of equal value, and differed only in their impress. Each may be considered as the *Dennarius*. In the French coinage two heads, one upon the other, (as in the coinage of our William and Mary) are of frequent occurrence: and they are known by the term *bigari*, which Spertingius (*de nummis non cussis*, 265.) very reasonably derives from *Bigatus*. Others with less probability have deduced it from *boisier*: an etymology against which the learned Jurisconsult vehemently protests. *Nihil de oculis illi vultus promittant. Num quomodo Ludovicus et Carolomagnus aliqui qui in nummis hujusmodi representantur, capitebus juxta ocella teguntur dicemus?*

BIGDRY RIVER, one of the branches of the Missouri, which it enters in the twenty-ninth degree of latitude, where its channel is at least half a mile broad; but in the dry season it is frequently reduced to a few standing pools.

BIGGIN, a kind of cap, Mr. Stevens says, at present worn only by children, but so called from the cap worn by the *Beguins*, an order of Nuns. "From the *biggen* to the nightcap;" Mr. Gifford interprets; "from infamy to age."

Here is nothing but a little fresh straw,
A patient for a convalescent, and that soon too,
An old woman's *biggen*, for a night cap.

Manager. *The Picture*, act iv. sc. 2.

A *biggin* he had put about his breast,
For in his bosom he felt a sore pain.

Spencer. *Shepherd's Calendar*, May.

— Sleep with it now,
Yet not so sound, and half so deeply sweet,
As her whose love (with loosely *biggen* bound)
Soores out the watch of night.

Shakespeare. *Henry IV. Second Part*, fol. 94.

You that have suck'd the milk of the court, and from thence have been brought up to the very strong meats and wine of it; been a courtier from the *biggen*, to the night cap: (as we may say) and you, to offend in such a high point of ceremony, as this! and let your apostles want all marks of solemnity!

Bon Jonan. *The Silent Woman*, act iii. sc. 6.

BIGGLESWADE, a market town in Bedfordshire, on the river Ivel. The church, (a vicarage) which was formerly collegiate, was built in 1230. In the year 1785 the greater part of this town was destroyed by fire. The population in 1821, was 2778. Poor's rates in 1803, at 5s. 9d. £1792. 17s. 8½d.

BIGHORN RIVER, one of the North American streams, which rises in the Rocky mountains near the sources of the Platte and the Yellow Stone rivers, and having passed through the eastern range of these mountains, joins the latter river in the 47th degree of latitude. It is navigable for canoes to a great distance, and flows through a fine open and rich country, well stocked with timber, and abounding with beavers and other wild animals. Though sometimes visited by roving bands of Indian hunters, it is yet destitute of permanent settlers.

BIGHT, Swe. *bygan*, to bend, is used in nautical language to express the double part of a rope which is folded; also a small bay between two forks of land.

BIGNONIA, in *Bolany*, a genus of plants, class *Dialysmia*, order *Angiosperma*. Generic character: calyx quinquefid, cyathiform; throat of the corolla campanulate, corolla quinquefid, ventricose below; pod bilocular; seeds with membranaceous wings.

English name, Trumpet Flower. Of this genus fifty-four species are described by Willdenow, they are chiefly natives of the tropical parts of the New World, and form many fine ornaments of the hot-houses and green-houses of this country. For figures see Rheed's *Hortus Malabaricus*; *Botanical Magazine*; Andrews's *Repository*; Catesby's *Carolus*; Plumier, *Plantes de l'Amérique*, Paris, 1693; Aublet *Plantes de la Guinée*, &c.

BIGOT, The French at this day apply the word *bigot*, to one superstitiously religious, not certainly from the oath *Be'cotice*, *be-got*, as Menage thinks; but rather from the A. S. *bigan*, *colere*; and hence also *bigiae*, a religious woman, Wachter, in V. Beiu-Gott.

Cotgrave says, *bigot*, an old Norman word, (signifying as much as *de par Dieu*, or our for God's sake) made good French, and signifying an hypocrite, or one that seemeth much more holy than he is; also a scrupulous, or superstitious fellow.

Wher findest thou a swinker of labour

Have me to his confessor?

Two Emperours, and Duchesses,

These Quakers, and the Conventuall,

These Abbesses, and eke bigias.

Chaucer. *Remount of the Rose*, fol. 148

BIGGIN.

BIGOT.

BIGOT.

BIJOR.

This Proclus, though he were a superstitious Pagan, much addicted to the multiplying of gods, (subordinate to one supreme) or a *bigot* polytheist, who had a humour of deifying almost every thing, and therefore would have this nature forsooth to be called a Goddess too; yet does he declare it not to be properly such, but *altruely* only. *Cutworth. Intel. Syst. fol. 686.*

It hath been indeed of late confidently asserted by some, that never any of the ancient philosophers dream'd of any such thing as incorporeal substance; and therefore they would bear men in hand, that it was nothing but an upstart and new fangled invention of some *bigotical* religionists. *Id. ib. fol. 18.*

Because he [Julian] was an emperor, and had so great an animosity against Christianity, and was so *bigotically* or *bigotically* zealous for the worship of the gods. *Id. ib. fol. 274.*

It may be doubted, with good reason, whether there ever was in nature a more abject, slavish, and *bigotted* generation than the tribe of Beaux Esprits, at present so prevailing in this island. *Spectator, No. cccxxiv.*

To take up half on trust, and half to try,
Name it not faith, but longing bigotry.
Dryden. The Hind and the Panther, part I.

They are terribly afraid of being called *bigots* and enthusiasts; but think there is no danger of falling into the opposite extreme, of lukewarmness and want of piety. *Porteus. Sermon I. v. 1.*

Nor think the Muse, whose sober voice ye hear,
Constructs with *bigot* from her solemn laws;
Casts round religion a robe the mist of fear,
Or shades with horrors, what with smiles should glow.
Mason. Epitaph on the Death of a Lady.

A rich chain of great pearls and small vases, red and gold, are other ornaments to our *bigotted* sorceries. *Psalmist. Journey from Chester.*

I shall only in one word mention the horrid effects of *bigotry* and *arrier*, in the conquest of Spanish America; a conquest on a low estimation effected by the murder of ten millions of the species. *Burke. Fineducation of Natural Society.*

BIHAR, a country in the eastern part of Hnagury, bordering on the western confines of Transylvania. It consists partly of plains, and is partly a mountainous district; the former are chiefly inhabited by Hungarians, and the latter by Walachians, the whole population exceeding 200,000, who are esteemed superior both in purity of language and morals to the rest of the Hungarians. This district derives its name from the town of Bihar which is its capital.

BIJOR, as it is erroneously written in the *Asya Achari*, (ii. 156. 2vo edition) or *BAJAWA*, or *BAJWA*, as it ought to be written, in the opinion of Major Rennell, is the Bazin of the historians of Alexander. This is one of those widely extended mountainous districts in Afghanistan, which are occupied almost exclusively by the Yūsufzāi tribes. It consists, as the rest of those provinces do, in a group of valleys enclosed by lofty mountains, and watered by copious streams. Rod, the largest of these valleys, is nearly forty miles long and almost equally broad. The Yūsufzāi are not the only occupiers of this district, for the Mohammads and several other Afghan tribes possess different portions of it. Abd'ul Fazl estimates its length at 25 cōs, (62½ geographical miles) and its breadth, he says, is from 5 to 10, (12½ to 25 geographical miles.) It is bounded on the east by Scwād, on the south by Bierām; on the west by Gaznūrgal, and on the north by Catōr, or Catwer. This country, and Panj-cūrah, which are placed under the southern projection of the Hindū

Cush, (the Paropamisus of the ancients) receive the south-west monsoon with considerable violence; though the valleys at their feet scarcely feel it. The low lands are fertile, and the mountains probably contain minerals, but the internal warfare perpetually maintained by the independent tribes of Yūsufzāi, is highly unfavourable to civilisation, and renders this country almost impervious to travellers, especially to Europeans. (*Asya Achari*, ii. 155; Hamilton's *Hindustan*, ii. 536; and Rennell's *Memoir*, 159—161.)

BIKANIR, or BUCANIR, is a Rājāpūt, or native Indian principality, in the centre of the province of Ajmir. It is bounded on the north by an extensive desert and the country of B'hātis; on the east by Harijānāh and the Shicāwātī territory; on the south by the dominions of the Jaudpūr and Jag-pūr Rājās; and on the west by Jeselnār and the Great Western Desert. Though at a considerable elevation above the level of the sea, the surface of this country is flat, and the soil consists of a light brown sand, unfavourable to cultivation, and depending entirely on the periodical rains for its crops. Rājārū (*Holcus spicatus*) and the other kinds of Indian grain, are almost its only produce. Horses and bullocks of an inferior description, are also imported to the neighbouring provinces, which furnish in return the necessary supplies. The principal towns are the capital of the same name; and Chūrū. Rāj-gām, and Bāhadrā are also considered as strong fortresses by the natives.

Bikanir, in lat. 27° 57' N. and long. 73° 2' E. at first derives the traveller by an appearance of splendour, but his expectations are disappointed on a nearer inspection. It is the contrast between an assemblage of habitations and the dreary wilderness surrounding it, which occasions this delusion. A well, 300 feet deep, near the fort inhabited by the Rājās, is the most remarkable object in the place, and the strongest evidence of the misery of the surrounding country. The fortifications, which are considerable in the estimation of the natives, consist in a strong wall, flanked with round towers at intervals, and the whole is commanded by a large fort at one of the angles. Bikanir also possesses some lofty houses and temples.

Chūrū, the second town in this principality, is situated in lat 28° 12' N. and long. 75° 35' E. It is a mile and a half in circumference, and is surrounded by naked hills of sand. Being entirely built of a white lime-stone, it has externally a neat, and even a showy appearance, when contrasted with the surrounding country. The stone is occasionally mixed with shells, and is found in large beds in several parts of the neighbouring desert. Chūrū is rather a dependency on the Rājās of Bikanir, than a part of his dominions. It was occupied by the British troops for a few days in 1818. (Hamilton's *East India Gazetteer*; Rennell's *Memoir of a Map of Hindostan*; Elphinstone's *India*.)

BI'LBO, } A kind of sword or rapier, and
BI'LMOX, } also of stocks for the feet; so called
BI'LMOXSMITH, } because made at Bilbon.

Tell that brave man of hope,
He shall the Mountain's God in th' breast of all their troops,
To answer his proud braves; our *Bilboes* be as good
As his, our arms so strong.

Deighton. Poly-Oibion, Song xxi.

Having once attempted to run away, I laid him in the *bi*, threatening to cut off his head.

Hobbs. Voyages, &c. M. Ralph Lane, iii. fol. 292.

BIJOR.

BILBO.

BILBO. } I was also conveyed to their lodgings, which gathered tribute
BILE. } for the King of Denmark, where I saw a pair of *bilboes*; and
I asked whether they were for the Lappians, (if needs were) and
they said no, but only for their own company if they should
choose to be rarely.

Heliog. Voyage, &c. (Stephen Burroughs) v. l. fol. 295.

It was not so of old: men took up trades,

That have the craft they had seen bred in right,

An honest *bilboe-smith* would make good blades,

Jonson. To my Faithful Servant.

BILBOA, originally BELTAG, the Good Ford, is a town of Spain, and the capital of Biscay Proper, pleasantly situated on the margin of a navigable river, at a short distance from the Bay of Biscay. It was built in 1300, by Diego Lopes de Haro, and soon became a flourishing town in consequence of its spacious harbour. The houses are in general well built, with projecting roofs, which shelter the streets from the sun and rain. The streets are paved with large square stones, and are kept clean and cool by several canals that pass through them, and convey water from the river. Bilboa contains several churches and cloisters, with a population of about 15,000 individuals, and carries on an extensive commerce. It is the port where most of the Spanish wool is shipped for England, France, Holland, and other parts of the north of Europe. The whole amount of this export is estimated at between 50,000 and 60,000 sacks of two hundred weight each. Its other exports are iron, chestnuts, oil, and wine. Bilbon, however, is not only an outlet for the produce of Spain, but the port through which the northern provinces of that kingdom are chiefly supplied with foreign merchandise. In time of peace it is frequented by vessels from England, France, Holland, and Hamburg, which supply it with salt, fish, hemp, materials for ship-building, colonial produce, British and French manufactures, drugs, and other articles. The number of vessels which annually enter the harbour is between 500 and 600. Bilboa was possessed by different parties during the late war in Spain. It stands about fifty miles south of St. Sebastian, in latitude 43° 14' N. and longitude 2° 42' W.

BILCOCK, in Zoology, a synonyme of the *Rallus aquaticus*, or Water Rail.

BILE. A. S. *bile*, *ulcus*; Dutch, *buyle*; Ger. *buhel*; Swe. *beld*. Junius says, *buyle vel puyte est tuber, a puylen; proferre, prominere*. Wachter, that *beld* is a stroke, a blow; the mark made by a blow; a tumour; from the A. S. *bisan*, to give a blow, to strike, yet he doubts whether the signification can be transferred from a tumour (*a tubercula*) to an ulcer (*ad ulcera*). See BOIL.

And there was a beggar Lazarus by name: that lay at his gate full of sores, and covetous to be filfilled of the crumms that fell down from the riche man's board: and no man gaf to him, but bound him camon and likkiden hise *byles*.

Wiclif. Luke, cap. xvi.

When there is a *byle* in the skynne of any mans flesh, and it is headed and after in the place of the *byle* there appeare a whyte ruyne, either a shynynge white somewhat redysh, let him be wene of the prent.

Bible, 1551. Lev. cap. xiii.

BILE, } Smith, in his translation of Thucydides,
BILIOUS. } renders *ἀποεικταπενος χολή*, a discharge of bile. In the old translation from the French by Nicols, the word does not occur. The Lat. *bilis*, Vossius has no doubt is from the Greek *χολή*.

By means whereof, with a payne yet more vehement, they annoyed by the mouth, *stomach* and bitter humors.

Nicols. Thucydides, fol. 57.

But when once settled in the stomach, it excited vomiting, in which was thrown up all that matter which physicians call discharges of bile, attended with excessive torture.

Smith. Thucydides, book ii.

The liver minds his own affair;

Kisly supplies our public uses,

And parts and strains the vital juices;

Still lays some useful *bile* aside;

To tinge the chyle's insipid tide:

Else we should want both gibe and satire;

And all be blam'd with pure good-nature.

Prior, Ales, can. i.

Why *bilious* juice a golden light puts on,

And floods of chyle in silver currents run.

Garrth. Dispensary, can. i.

BILE, the fluid secreted by the liver. It is usually said to be collected in the gall bladder, and conveyed into the intestines through the biliary ducts. Various animals, however, as the horse, the elephant, the rhinoceros, with several besides, are without a gall bladder; and, indeed, in some of the insect tribe, which secrete bile in considerable quantities, we rather infer the presence of an organ that supplies the office even of a liver, than actually demonstrate its existence.

In treating on the subject of bile, we shall, 1st, advert to the mode in which the fluid is formed in the more perfect animals; we shall 2ndly, state its chemical composition; 3dly, mention its probable uses; and lastly, the circumstances connected with, and consequent upon its morbid conditions. On these several heads we shall in the present article be brief and general, since their more ample discussion will find fitter places, according to the arrangement of our work, under ANATOMY, CHEMISTRY, PHYSIOLOGY, and MEDICINE.

Secretion of Bile. The organ by which the Bile is secreted, (the liver) is the largest gland in the body. Its situation, in man, is immediately under the diaphragm, it occupies a great part of the upper region of the abdominal cavity, lies principally on the right side, but extends across the abdomen to the left. Upon its under surface is found the gall bladder, which is mostly of an ovate figure, and from which a canal or duct, as it is named, is sent out; this duct being formed by the neck of the organ first twisting and bending upon itself, and then projecting forwards.

The peculiarity of the liver, as an organ of secretion, consists mainly in this, that while other glands are supplied with arterial blood only, from which to elaborate their respective fluids, this is furnished likewise with a large quantity of blood from the venous system; for there is a very considerable vessel made up of veins from the stomach, omentum, intestines, spleen, and pancreas, that enters the liver in the manner of an artery, and becomes minutely ramified through the substance of the organ. It has been supposed by some physiologists that the secretion of Bile is solely affected through the medium of this venous blood; and they have conjectured that the blood from the hepatic artery, properly so called, is destined merely for the nourishment of the viscus; it is, however, to be observed, that the ramifications of the artery itself are traceable into the pori hilari, or beginning of the hepatic ducts; and in one instance recorded by Mr. Abernethy, the vein of which we have been speaking,

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terminated directly in the vena cava, or great ascending vein of the body, without having entered the liver; notwithstanding which, Bile was found in the hepatic ducts, that had of course been secreted from the hepatic artery.

The biliary ducts arise by extremely minute branches, from the extremities of the blood vessels, and gradually uniting as they proceed through the substance of the liver, become larger and larger tubes, and at length from one trunk, which is situated in what is named the sinus of the liver; this trunk is the hepatic duct; it is about the diameter of a common writing pen; running on the right side of the great vein above mentioned, it soon unites with the duct from the gall bladder, and the union forms the common duct (*ductus communis choleferus*) by which the secreted fluid is conveyed directly into the duodenum. The mode then in which Bile is formed and transmitted where there is a gall bladder is this; the port biliary secretes it from the blood, they convey it into the hepatic duct, whence a portion of it gets into the gall bladder, which thus constitutes a reservoir for the fluid, and in which it undergoes some change. Now when the stomach is full, and more than the ordinary flow of Bile is required for the purposes of what has been called the second digestion, the gall bladder by its plenitude of the stomach and duodenum is stimulated and forced to the discharge of its contents; and thus a quantity and kind of Bile apportioned to the exigencies of the case is sent through the gall duct, and gets with the Bile immediately from the liver, into the common duct, to be conveyed into the intestine.

"I attended (says Dr. Monro,) a patient to whom there was a liver abscess, and a preternatural communication had thereby been formed between the organ affected and the lungs, through which all the Bile flowed, and was discharged by coughing; but the quantity of Bile discharged by coughing was different at different times. It was always greater after meals, and especially for an hour or two after dinner." Several experiments instituted by the French physiologist, Bichat, go also to prove what has been above advanced respecting the variations in the quantity and quality of the Bile, as the different circumstances of the system demand this change. "It appears (says Bichat) that the fluid is constantly secreted but in greater proportions during digestion; 3dly, that the Bile which is secreted during abstinence, is divided between the duodenum and gall bladder, the portion which goes into the latter acquiring a more bilious character, (*un caractère d'aigre, une teinte foncée*;) which he adds is doubtless necessary towards completing the digestive process; 3dly, when the aliment passes into the duodenum, all the hepatic Bile which before divided itself between the intestine and gall bladder, now goes into the former, and even in greater abundance; and besides this the gall bladder itself is called on to empty its contents upon the alimentary mass in the duodenum.

Of the chemical composition of the Bile. Cadet, Ramsay, Thénard, and Berzelius, are the principal authorities on this head; but the result of their several investigations has not been uniform. Thénard gives the following as the composition of human Bile; 1000 of water, with 100 of solid matter, consisting of from 2 to 10 of a yellow matter insoluble, which is suspended in the Bile, 42 of albumen, 41 of resin, 5.6 of soda,

and 4.5 of phosphates of soda and lime, sulphate and muriate of soda, and oxide of iron. The Bile, Thénard tells us, is less resinous than common when the liver is enlarged; and when the disease is considerably advanced, it is principally albuminous, having little of the bitter principle. Bile is most frequently of a brownish yellow colour; sometimes it is green, and not unfrequently it is nearly colourless.

Berzelius denies the presence of resin as a constituent principle in Bile. He further states, that what has been considered albumen, is in reality mucus. Bile, says Berzelius, really consists of a peculiar bilious matter, which may be obtained separate and pure. "By mixing fresh Bile with sulphuric acid diluted with three times its weight of water; a yellow precipitate first appears, which is to be removed, being chiefly mucus; fresh acid is then added as long as any precipitate is formed; the mixture is to be heated gently for some hours, and the green precipitate which is left is to be well washed with water. The sulphuric acid may be abstracted by digesting it with carbonate of barytes and water; the pure bilious matter remains in solution, communicating a green colour and all the peculiar properties of Bile. When dried it resembles entire desiccated Bile; it is soluble in alcohol but not in ether, but is converted by ether into a kind of fatty substance. It yields no ammonia in distillation, and therefore contains no nitrogen. According to Berzelius, Bile is composed of 80 of this bilious principle, 3 of mucus of the gall bladder, 9.6 of alkalis and salts, (common to all secreted fluids) and 907.4 of water."

With respect to the varieties of the Bile in different animals, Thénard found that of the sheep, dog, and cat to be similar in its composition to the ox; which according to his analysis, contains in eight hundred parts water 700, resin 16, picromel (a peculiar saccharine substance which he was the first thus to designate,) 69, yellow matter 4, soda 4, phosphate of soda 2, muriate of soda and potash 3.5, sulphate of soda 0.8, phosphate of lime and magnesia 1.7, oxide of iron a very small quantity. The Bile of the hog is without albumen or picromel, but contains resin in large quantities. Birds' Bile differs from that of quadrupeds in containing a large quantity of albuminous matter, and in its picromel not being so saccharine. Its resin is not so abundant. The Bile of fishes is for the most part less bitter than that of quadrupeds. Bile mixed with water in every proportion; acids decompose it. Its solution changes violet or mallow to a green; alcohol coagulates it.

Uses of the Bile. Bile being, as we have seen, formed in a great part from venous blood, while other secretions take their rise from arterial blood, it has been supposed by some that the liver which secretes it is a decarbonizing organ; while others have imagined that the principal office of the liver is to separate hydrogen and convey its excess from the system. "The secretion of Bile under these points of view may be regarded (it is said) as subordinate to respiration, and as freeing the blood from principles which could not without inconvenience be entirely abstracted by the action of the air." These notions, however, are at best hypothetical, and it has been remarked by an acute physiologist, that "before the doctrines they teach can be proved to be more than conjectural, there is one point essentially necessary to be proved; which is, that

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Bile has, for a long time, been considered a highly important agent in completing what is called the second digestion; and some very recent experiments of Mr. Brodie have served to establish as fact, what before had been rather matter of conjecture: viz. that its presence and action are absolutely necessary towards the formation of chyle; since upon tying the choleduc duct of animals, and thus preventing the fluid from access to the cyme, no chyle was formed. Against the opinion that Bile is necessary for the completion of the chyloferous process, "it is no argument," says Dr. Murray, "that this fluid cannot be discovered by any of its properties in the chyle; for these may be changed by the combination, or some of its principles only may enter into the composition of that fluid, while others are discharged as excrementitious."

That the peristaltic action of the intestinal canal is much aided by a due secretion and flow of Bile, is a generally received notion; yet, as Dr. Good has remarked, in his late comprehensive and excellent work entitled, *The Study of Medicine*, "the peristaltic action is peculiarly brisk in hievery though the intestines are without this fluid; and there are also (he adds) a few other circumstances relating to the Bile, that yet stand in need of explanation. The hepatic Bile, or that secreted into the hepatic duct, is mild and sweet; the Bile found in the gall bladder is pungent and bitter; whence we might infer that it is the gall bladder that secretes the bitter principle. Yet in children the gall-bladder Bile is as sweet as that of the hepatic duct; and in various insects a Bile powerfully bitter, is secreted without either gall bladder or liver. Who shall develop the cause of these discrepancies? Who shall unfold to us the use of the bitter principle of the Bile, or explain why it is necessary to the animal economy in the adult state, and not necessary in a state of infancy?"

Bilious disorders. The derangements of which the bilious secretion is susceptible are various. Its quantity may be too large or too small—its qualities may be too mild or too acrimonious; or after secretion, it may meet with different impediments to its due transmission through its appropriate channels. An excess or redundancy of Bile is often attended with very considerable commotion of the whole frame—a commotion of which this redundancy is frequently both cause and effect: an instance of which is presented to us in the disorder named yellow fever—in this disorder the bilious secretion is rendered both redundant and acrimonious by the general excitation of the system, while the excitement or irritation thereby produced, is still further heightened and materially modified by the inordinate flow of the hurried and morbid secretion, and by the fluid secreted being partly re-admitted into the general mass of circulation.

The disease called *cholera* is another instance of the derangement consequent upon an inordinate secretion of Bile, and of its displacement; for in this case Bile gets into the stomach where it has no natural right of entrance, and vomiting and purging, with other derangements, are the consequences. In a word, yellow fever, bilious fever, cholera morbus, bilious colic, and bilious diarrhoea, are all *mutatis mutandis* allied

diseases, and all furnish examples of both redundancy and acrimony in the bilious discharge.

A deficiency of Bile is marked by a pallid hue of countenance and languid habit of body; it is accompanied by indigestion, fur although the chymiform or digestive process of the stomach is effected without the aid of Bile immediately, yet, where Bile is deficient, torpor is present, and that torpor pervading the whole frame is especially manifested by a defective action in the stomach. The reason why flatulency, acidity, irregularity in the alvine evacuation, and clay-coloured stools attend a deficiency of Bile is sufficiently plain: flatulency and acidity being the consequences of fermentation unchecked by vital power, and a due admixture of animal secretions; the discolouration of the discharges being more directly occasioned by the absence of the colouring matter of the Bile. Now, as acrimony, for the most part, connects itself with redundant secretion, so does inefficiency in quality, in the general way, accompany a morbid diminution in quantity, as is instanced in chlorosis, hypochondriasis, mesenteric atrophy and other disorders of debility; in these cases there is not merely too little Bile, but it is in too dilute a condition, in consequence of the prevailing torpor as affecting the absorbents, that the watery parts of the secretion are not, as in states of health, re-absorbed, and therefore the Bile is insufficient for the purposes of stimulating the intestines. This dilute state of the Bile is often apparently the cause of worms; and hence, probably, as suggested by Darwin, one of the principles of antihelminthic agency consists in imparting tone to the liver, and character to the bilious secretion. To the manifestations of malady connected with this condition of the Bile, the term *bilious* is too loosely applied; it is by no means infrequently the case, that a redundancy of the fluid in question is imagined when the reverse is actually the case; and even when the bilious organs shall be only affected as part of the connected agency in living functions. To attribute every thing to the liver and the Bile is to mistake, indeed, not alone with the vulgar. A great deal of medical hypothesis, as in its proper place we shall have occasion to shew, (see *MESENTERIC*) has been reared upon too slender a foundation, the hepatic viscous being its chief corner stone.

Obstruction of Bile. The Bile, after it has been duly secreted, may be prevented from getting into the duodenum by various causes, and in that case the disease called jaundice is more or less completely constituted; the Bile finding an impediment to its usual outlet, is thrown back upon the system, and imparts a yellowness to the whole surface of the body, accompanied by great depression of spirits, (an almost invariable consequence of the fluid being mixed with the blood after secretion.) There appear to be two ways by which the obstructed Bile thus finds an entrance among the mass of circulating fluids, namely regurgitation and absorption—that is, the secretion is either in a sort of mechanical manner thrown back upon the blood vessels, or the absorbing agency is set to work to carry it into the system by a more circuitous route.

The obstruction itself is either partial or general, either temporary or permanent, either connected with a particular condition of the secreting organ, and its ducts, or occasioned by an extraneous impediment to a free flow of the secreted matter. Partial jaundice

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takes place when the obstruction, though considerable is not complete; as when gall stones may not occupy the whole diameter of the gall passages, or when the coats of these passages may have become thickened by disease. General jaundice for the most part implies a thorough obstruction. As instance of temporary jaundice is afforded by the yellowness often accompanying pregnancy, the gravid uterus so displacing the relative situation of the abdominal viscera, that the hepatic ducts become unduly pressed upon; a permanent jaundice is produced by a chronically disordered state of the liver and its appendices. Of these several conditions and their remedies, we shall have occasion to treat under the article *Melanura*, and we purpose in this place limiting ourselves to the consideration of *biliary calculi*, the *modi generandi* of which does not appear to have been very satisfactorily made out; for there is something in their composition beyond what can be referred to absorption and consequent inspissation. From these concretions being most commonly found in the gall bladder, it is supposed that their formation is the result of changes which the bile undergoes while it remains in that organ; but besides that this is no explanation of the changes themselves, we find occasionally that the concretions are generated in the substance and body of the liver.

The biliary calculi that are found in the human subject, consist principally of that peculiar substance which is named by *Phorcroy adipocere*. Chevreul is disposed to regard this base of biliary calculi in the light of a peculiar animal principle, which he denominates *cholesterine*; a substance which we are told "is fusible at 230°, and on cooling concretes into a crystalline mass: rapidly heated to about 400°, it evaporates in dense smoke; it is insoluble in water, and nearly so in cold alcohol; boiling alcohol dissolves about $\frac{1}{4}$ its weight. It is soluble in nitric acid, but not convertible into soap by the alkalis."

Biliary concretions are proposed to be arranged under four classes.

1st. That kind of gall stone which has a white colour, and is crystallized, shining, laminated structure; it is soluble in oil of turpentine, and in pure alkalis. Nitric acid also dissolves it, but the latter solution is precipitated in an altered state by the admixture of water.

These gall stones are usually of an oval form; they are whitish and have the appearance of spermæli; they are generally about the size of a sparrow's egg.

The second kind are polygonal or round in their formation; they are of a light greyish brown colour; they have an external covering of concentric layers, and within are composed of a matter either crystallized, or having the appearance of coagulated honey.

The third species are perhaps the most frequently met with—they are compounded of the two preceding kinds.

The fourth differ from the others in neither being soluble in alcohol nor oil of turpentine. Haller gives several examples of this sort of calculus, which does not, like the others, inflame when heated, but becomes red and changed into an ash, like charcoal.

"There is (says Dr. Monro) a fifth but very rare kind of biliary calculi, which as far as I know has not been described, which is of a jet black colour, of a shining appearance, and seldom attains a large size; it is very irregular on the surface. I have never seen

such calculi but in the ductus communis choledocus." The above account, however, pretty nearly answers to the description given of the fourth species.

The calculi that are found in the gall bladder of quadrupeds have been thought to consist almost entirely of inspissated bile; but although their composition is for the most part much less complicated than bilious concretions in the human subject, something more than inspissation of the fluid must, as it has been well observed by Dr. Bostock, contribute to their formation; for they are insoluble both in alcohol and water, which is not the case with merely inspissated bile. It is a remarkable circumstance that horses and oxen are obnoxious to the formation of these calculi during the winter season especially, that they become jaundiced in consequence, and that when spring brings its green pasture the jaundice leaves them; and Dr. Darwin presents us with the following recital in reference to biliary disorder even in the human subject. "The largest stone (says he) that I ever saw, was from a lady who had parted with it some years before, and who had abstained above two years from all kinds of vegetable diet, to prevent as she supposed a colic of her stomach, which was probably a pain of the biliary duct. On resuming the use of some vegetable diet, she recovered a better state of health, and formed no new bilious concretions."

This case would have been more interesting had the narrator favoured us by stating the chemical composition of the discharged concretion, and whether it had more than ordinary resemblance to the calculi of the quadruped animals, since such information might have led to practical inference; but to enter into the question of solvents, and preventives, and correctives of these substances, would be to open too wide a field for present disquisition; and for more ample details we must again refer the reader to the article *Melanura*.

BILGE. The glossarist to Gavia Douglas says: Now *bulge*, Sax. the sides of a ship or any such like standing out, a Ger. *bulg*, (*bulga*) yet a bunch (center) Dr. Jamieson says, it seems naturally allied to the Swed. Gothic *bulg-in*, to swell. *Bilge* is applied to

That which *bulges* or *bellies* out; in the whole expanse, or *bulk* of the ship's bottom. A ship is said to *bilge*, when after striking upon a rock, &c. she opens her *bulge* or *belly* so as to admit the water.

Of chols men they take
Ane grete newmer, and hid in *bilgis* derms
Within that beik, in moor hage castres;
Schortly the belly was stufed every dale,
Full of knyghtis army in plate of stele.

G. Douglas. *Ewerdes*, book ii. fol. 29.

But as we came out at the said Goldenore gate, the Trinitie came on ground on certain rocks, that lye to the northward of the said gate, and was like to be *bilged* and lost.

Hakluyt. *Voyage*, by M. Anth. Jenkinson, l. fol. 310.

The next morning, at day-break, she [the Wager] struck on a sunken rock, and soon after *bilged*, and grounded between two small islands, at about a musquet-shot from the shore.

Anson. *Voyage round the World*, book ii. ch. ii.

BILIMBI TREE, a species of the *Aceraceæ*.

BILITZ, or **BELITZ**, a small principality and town in Anstrian Silesia, encompassed by the lordship of Plesse, the principality of Teschen and the kingdom of Poland. The town of Bilitz stands on the river Biala, opposite the town of that name, with which it

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BILLY. is connected by a bridge across the river. Most of the houses were destroyed by fire in 1808, and many of the inhabitants, who are between three and four thousand, are employed in weaving cloth of various kinds.

BILK. Mr. Gifford says, "Bilk seems to have become a cant word about this (Ben Jonson's) time, for the use of it is ridiculed by others, as well as Jonson. It is thus explained in Cole's *English Dictionary*, 'Bilk, nothing; also to deceive.' Lye;—from the *cloth bilikan*, which properly signifies *insultando illudere*.

Tus. Hee will ha' the last word, though he take *bills* for't.
Hoot. *Bills*? what's that?
Tus. Why nothing, a word signifying nothing; and borrow'd here to express nothing.

B. Jonson. Tale of a Tub, act i. sc. 1.

[He] was then ordered to get into the coach, or behind it, for that he wanted no spectators; but he said you dog you, say he, don't you *bilk* me.

Spectator, No. ccccxxxiii.

Patrons in days of yore, like petrosus aw,
Expected that the bard should make his bow
At coming in, and ev'ry now and then

Hint to the poet that they were more than men;

But, like the patrons of the present day,

They never bid'd the poet of his pay.

Churchill. Independence.

B I L L.

BILL, v. } A. S. *bile*, the bill, beak, or nib of a bird,
BILL, n. } the nose or snout of a beast or fish, the
snout or beak of a ship. Sommer. Perhaps from the
A. S. *pullian*, to pull. The beak, that which pecketh;
the bill that which pulleth. So in Latin, *vellicare*,
(from *vellicare*, to pull,) is to pull, as a bird does.

And of a roven, which was tolde,

Of ayre leaved wythe *nylle*,

She take the beak, with all the *lille*.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 105.

No sooner had the bird the maiden *cyde*,

But, leaping on the rocke, downe from a bough

He takes a cherry up, (in which he but now

Had hither brought, and in that place had laid

Till to the cleft his song had drawne the maid)

And flying with the small stone in his bill,

(A choicer fruit, than hangs on Bacchus' hill)

In fair Marina's bosom took his rest,

A heavenly seat fit for so sweet a guest:

Where Citherea's doves might *bill* sit,

And gods and men with envy look on it.

Brewer. British Pastoral, Song 3.

On whose [the snp's] swelling sides, four handles fixed were

And upon every handle sat, a pair of doves of gold;

Some *bill* and some pecking urel.

Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book xi. fol. 154.

Forthwith from out the ark a raven flies

And after him, a surr messenger,

A dove sent forth once and again to spy

Orcen tree or ground whereon his foot may light;

The second time returning, in his bill

An olive leafe he brings, pacific signe.

Milton. Paradise Lost, book xi.

On the other side, Tom Fiddle and his pretty spouse, wherever
they come, are *bill* at such a rate, as they think must do our
hearts good who behold 'em.

Spectator, No. ecc.

Still amorous, and fond, and *bill*,

Like Philip and Mary on a shilling.

Batler. Hudibras, part iii. can. 1.

His eyes with milder beauties beam,

Than *bill* doves beside the stream.

Moor. Solomon, part iii.

O let them ne'er, with artificial note,

To please a tyrant, strain their little *bill*,

But sing what heaven inspires, and wander where they will.

Batler. The Minstrel, book i.

BILL. } A. S. *bill*; Dutch, *byl*; Ger. *beil*;
BILLETS. } so called from its great resemblance to
BRILMAN. }

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the bill of a bird. Junius thinks *billets* are pieces of wood cut with a *bill*.

Agayne Ioks how rascally a thing it were if a philosopher would with his cloke & long beard scip about the stage. A play a parte is an interlude: or els holde a *bill* & a net in his hande in the place where the swordplayes are wont to fight at viternance, and sing theyr accustomed song.

Udell. Mark, Pref. to, fol. 5.

For where before tymes there were sent over, for the eyde and truyngh of the townes, and cities, brought under the obeynauce of the English nation thousands of men, ayte and mete for the warre, and defence: now were sent into France, hundreth, yea scores, some rascall, and some not able to drawe a bow or carry a *bill*.

Hall. King Henry VI. fol. 130.

When that the stake of wood was reared up

Under the ayre within the inward court

With close oak and *billets* made of fyrr,

With garlandes she doth all beset the place.

Barry. Aeneid, book iv.

And there withall he mightily bounced the bord,

In rush'd his *bill*-men, one himself bestird,

Laying at Lord Stanley whose braine he had surely clef,

Had he not downe beneath the table cleft.

Mirrow for Magistrates, p. 427.

He in the morninge named the Mayre of the cite to apparell in armour the beste and most comenly persons of the cite, whiche brought to him iii. m. archers and iii. m. *bills* beynde them that were deputed to defende the cite.

Hall. King Henry VI. fol. 14.

The souldiers Englishmen were all asleep except the watch, the which was slender; and yet the stout aries, bowes and *bills*, bowes and *bills*; which is a signification of extreme desire, to avoide the present danger in all towns of war.

Knox. History of Reform, fol. 91.

Cocceus Preculus a *bill*-man of the garde had a suite with his neighbour about a small parcel of ground, which lay downe his between them, Otho with his owne money bought his neighbours whole ground, and freely bestowed it upon him.

Sextus. Tacitus, fol. 18.

Envy, when it is once conceived in a malicious heart, is like fire in *billets* of jasper, which (they say) continue more yeares than one.

Hall. Cont. Ann and Penance, i. 999.

Firing the wood cut in length like our *billets*, at the ends, and joyning them together so close, that though so flame or fire did appeare, yet the best continued without intermission.

Sir Francis Drake. Revised, fol. 56.

Preserve this greasing branch, O hear my prayer,

Spare me this one, this one poor *bill* spare;

That, having many fires and flames without,

Its ancient testimonial may last good,

In future times to prove, I once had wood!

King. The Last Bill.

BILL.

Come, pierce your old broadsides, we'll start us in sherry,
For this is the season to drink and be merry;
That, reviv'd by good liquor and *billes* together,
We may have the blood stirs, and defy the cold weather.
Piscus. Imitation of Horace, book i. ode 9.

The ranks of *bill-men* in order to battle are always environ'd
with pike men; for the *bill-men* serve specially for execution if
the enemy be overthrown. *Oldys. Life of Raleigh, xl.*

Though winter reigns, our labours never fail:
Thou all day long we hear the sounding fail;
And oft the beetle's strenuous strokes descends,
That knotty block-wood into *billets* rends.

Scott. Amateurs Eleg. 3.

BILL, *n.* } Spelman. *Schedula, libellus, syngra-*
BILL, *n.* } phus; A. S. *bilie*, unde *Græco* Barb.
BILLET, *n.* } *βίλλας*; Gallie and Belgie, *billet*. The
BILLET, *n.* } verb occurs in our old translators;
BILMAKER. } *conspicere militem*, in modern usage, to
enlist, to enroll, to put or write upon the muster roll;
is rendered—to *bill* by Sir Henry Savile; and Sir
Thomas North, through the medium of Amyot's
French, renders *recense* *en* *va* *co* *na*, by the same verb.

To *billet* a soldier or other person is by note, *bill*,
or particular in writing, to appoint his quarters or
lodgings. A *bill* seems to be applied to a statement in
writing of certain particular things, as a *bill* of indictment,
a *bill* of costs, a *bill* of exchange; the first
setting forth the particular offences charged; the
second, the particular sums claimed; and the last,
the particular sum to be paid, the time when, the
place where, &c.

This *salut* chert came forth a ful gret pas,
And asid; & lord, if that it be your will,
As loth we right upon this plaine *bill*,
In which I plain upon Virginias,
And if that he wol seyn it is not thus,
I wol it prove, and faden good winnens,
That soth is that my *baile* wol expresse.

Chaucer. The Decretes Tale, v. 1299B.

For when there is any dissention between 2 parties, and every
of hem seynteneth his cause, and seith, the contrarye, thanne
bothe parties writen how causes in 2 *billes*, and putten hem in the
hand of mynt Thomas; and soon he catcheth away the *billes* of
the wrong cause, and holdeth still the *bilis* with the righte cause.
Sir J. Mandeville. Travels, cap. xvi.

He desired to have a *bill* drawn of the *supre* resignation, that
he myght be paygth in the rebornall thereof.
Falgon. Ann. 1389.

This *bill* putteth he fourth in y^e pore beggers name. But we verely
thinke if they self bease as much wit as their p^recious lacketh,
they had lever see their *lylander* burned, then their *supplication*
speide.
Sir Thomas More. Works, fol. 302.

Again, whereas divers of their neighbours, and of the *Ities*
themselves, (whom they had *bilied* in their hands of *accident*) stole
away and ran to their enemies. *North. Plutarch, p. 522.*

Polopidas seeing every man afraid of this eclipse above, he
would not compell the people to depart with this fear, nor with as
ill hope to hazard the loss of seven thousand Thebans, bring all
billed to go this journey. *Id. ib. p. 332.*

Which bring of itself a burdensome thing, was made much more
impossible, by the avarice and lewd disposition of the officers,
who *bilied* chiefly such as were old or impotent persons, and
then for money released them. *Servis. Tacitus, fol. 144.*

The father of Alesius desired, and said that he had cast in no lot
for him; and it seemed unto every man that there was some error
in writing of those *bilis* or names for the lottery.
Holland. Plutarch, fol. 157.

The peers and captains of Israel are driven manacled through the
Assyrian streets, and *billeted* to the several places of their
perpetual servitude.
Hall. Cost. The Utter Destruction of Kingdome of Israel, l. 1288.

Seldome ever hath extremity of mischief seized, where easier
afflictions have been first inflicted before.
Id. Cost. Human Dispersed, &c. l. 1339.

Item, you have caused the sixt of October last past, at
Hampton Court for the defence of your owne cause, diners *seditions*
bilis to be written in counterfeited hands, and secretly to be thrown
abroad in diners partes of this realm.

Stowe. Ann. 1540. Edward VI.

Thickest thou that they be coblers, tapers, or such like base
mechanicall people, that write these *bilis* and scrolls which are
found daily in thy priors chair, and not the ablest men and best
citizens that do it? *North. Plutarch, fol. 828.*

Robin, you must know, is the best man in town for carrying a
billet; the fellow has a thin body, swift step, secure look, suffi-
cient sense, and knows the town. *Spectator, No. 498.*

Our countrymen could not forbear laughing when they heard a
lover chasing out a *billet-doux*, and even the superintention of a
letter set to a tune. *Id. No. 29.*

As he never said—no—to any request in his life, he has given
them a *bill*, drawn by his wife, in upon a merchant in the city,
which I am to get changed.
Goldsmith. The Goodnature'd Man, act iii. sc. 1.

I write this, Eliza, at Mr. James's whilst he is dressing, and
the dear girl, his wife, is writing beside me, to thee—I got your
melancholy *billet* before we sat down to dinner.
Sterns. Letter 84.

BILL, a word of very various use in Legal phrase-
ology. The definition, at once the most comprehen-
sive and the most accurate, may, perhaps, be that of
the learned and laborious author of the *Law Dictionary*.
"It is a declaration in writing, expressing either the
wrong the party complaining hath suffered by the
party complained of, or else some fault committed
against some law or statute of the realm; and this
Bill is sometimes addressed to the Lord Chancellor of
England, especially for unconscionable wrongs done
to the complainant, and sometimes to others having
jurisdiction, according as the law directs."

The *Bill* "addressed to the Lord Chancellor" is a
Bill in Equity, that is, the formal statement made in the
style of a petition, wherewith a complainant or *Orator*,
as he is termed in the *Bill*, commences his suit; set-
ting forth at length the circumstances of fraud, breach
of trust, hardship, or the like, under which he suffers,
without remedy by common law; and humbly praying
that he may be relieved at the hands of the Court, and
that the Defendant may be compelled to answer, upon
oath, the matters charged against. This *Bill* is
ordinarily the second stage in all pleadings in Courts
of Equity.

Actions in the Courts of Common Law are com-
menced either by "Original" or by "Bill"; that is,
by an original writ issuing out of the Court of Cham-
ber, (or at least, by process, supposing in legal fiction,
such a writ to have issued,) and returnable to the par-
ticular Court of Law; or by *Bill* filed in the first
instance in that particular Court.

A *Bill of Middlesex* is a process of the Court of
King's Bench, forming a part of the scheme whereby
it obtains its jurisdiction in civil actions. To explain
this, will require some examination of the history of
that Court.

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BILL. In the time of William the Conqueror, a tribunal was instituted in the King's palace, called *aula regis*, the functions of which were both legislative and judicial. This Court followed the royal household to all the progresses and expeditions of the monarch, to the great delay and hindrance of justice between its suitors. To obviate these evils, the Court of Common Pleas was established, for the trial of all suits between subject and subject; and it was provided, by Magna Charta, that it should not follow the Crown, but hold its sittings constantly at one and the same place. Hence the origin of that Court—then and thenceforth, seated at Westminster. When Edward the First finally settled our plan of judicial economy, the Court of Chancery having assigned to it the power of issuing *original writs*, (see above) whence it has been termed "*officina brevium*," and the Court of Exchequer having, from that time, the exclusive and appropriate control in all fiscal suits, the Court of King's Bench naturally arose out of the remnants yet left of the civil and criminal functions of the *aula regis*. Like that Court, it derives its name from its locality to the King's palace, and from the King himself sitting there in person: as was, in reality, the case for some time, and is still supposed to be so in fiction of law; in pursuance of which, this Court is always described, in legal processes, as "the Court of our Lord the now King, before the King himself." The principal subject matter of its jurisdiction was all criminal offences, or "*Pleas of the Crown*," and also trespasses committed "with force and arms," and against the King's peace, and all similar grievances, which, though rather to be considered as private injuries, are, in some degree, of a criminal nature, and which subjected a defendant not only to compensation in damages to the party complaining, but also to a fine to the King. Finch, L. 196. It was further made the Court of Appeal from all inferior Courts of record: but it is out of its jurisdiction to trespass, that its present universal cognizance of civil suits has grown up. When a Plaintiff complained of a trespass, which he did by Bill filed in this Court, a process issued thereon, to bring the Defendant in, to answer to the complaint; and it was held, that, as soon as he was brought in, and either in the actual or supposed custody of the marshal, he could not be charged, even with any civil matter, in any other Court, 31 H. VI. 10. b. 4 Inst. 72. If, then, the Plaintiff had any other cause of action against him, he might, as soon as he had got him in the custody of the Court, exhibit his Bill for this latter ground of complaint, and then, waiving the trespass, proceed upon that only. The precept of the Court, whereby, (after an intervening process of attachment, on which we need not enlarge,) the Sheriff was commanded to bring in the Defendant, was called a *Bill of Middlesex*, of Kent, of Essex, &c. &c., accordingly as the Court chanced to be sitting in one or another county at the time of its issuing: and as it now constantly sits in the first mentioned county, the former is the name always used. If, on the Sheriff's return of the writ, it appeared that the Defendant was not in his county, a subsequent process issued to the Sheriff of any other county, in which he might be, to the same effect; and, from the allegation in such process, that the Defendant *lurks* (*latitat*) in that county, the name of *latitat* has been applied to the writ. In process of time, the fiction of a trespass having been commonly resorted to, in order to give jurisdic-

tion to the Court, it became usual, and is now the regular practice, to sue out the *latitat* upon a supposed plaintiff of trespass, without any such plaintiff being, in reality, filed, and without issuing a Bill of Middlesex, or the attachment. But where the Defendant is actually in the county of Middlesex, no *latitat* need issue; but a *Bill of Middlesex* is, in reality, sued out; the original plaintiff and the attachment being, in such case, the only fictitious parts of the proceedings.

By Statute 13 Charles II. st. 2. ch. 2. a Defendant, in suits arising out of debts of a certain amount, is made liable to arrest if he do not give bail. This useful safeguard to Plaintiffs was, however, inapplicable in the Court of King's Bench—the original supposed ground of action there, being, as we have seen, a trespass only. The court here, to prevent any diminution of its acquired jurisdiction in personal actions, fortified fiction by fiction, adding what is called an "*ac etiam*" clause, to the *Bill of Middlesex*, whereby the Defendant is ordered to answer "to a plea of trespass, and also" to the other hailable matter of complaint. Thus, says Blackstone, h. 3. ch. 19, "the complaint of trespass gives the Court cognizance, and that of debt authorizes the arrest."

A *Bill of Exceptions* is a formal statement drawn up during the trial of a cause, and sealed by the Judge, wherein an objection is stated to some decision of his, upon a point of law, either in wrongly admitting or refusing evidence, or a challenge of a juror, or in misstating the legal effects of facts received in evidence. The intent of this is, to enable the party against whom judgment is given, should he appeal by writ of error to a superior tribunal, to have this alleged judicial mistake taken into consideration. This, by the common law he could not do, as objections of this nature would not appear on the face of the record, or written pleadings; and, to remedy this defect, the right of tendering to the Judge a Bill of Exceptions was provided, by "the statute of Westminster the second," 13 Edw. I. ch. 31. and it is made compulsory on the Judge to affix his seal to it.

A *Bill of Exchange* is a written request addressed by one person to another, desiring him to pay a sum of money to some third person, or to any person to whom either that third person, or the first person himself, who makes the request, may afterwards order it to be paid, and that, either immediately, or at any specified distance of time. This is presented to the person to whom it is addressed, for his assent (or acceptance.) If he gives his assent to it, he notifies it by signing his name on the Bill, with the word "*accepted*," and, from that time, he becomes liable to pay it, according to its tenor. The party, in whose favour it is drawn, indicates to what person it shall be paid by indorsing it—that is, by writing on the back of it to that effect, and authenticating it by his signature.

The person who makes the Bill is called the *drawer*; he to whom it is addressed the *drawee*; and, when he has accepted it, the *acceptor*; he to whose favour it is drawn, the *payee*; and any other person whom he appoints, by indorsement, to receive the money, the *indorsee*; and all parties into whose hands it may come, by subsequent circulation, *holders*. When the *payee* writes nothing, but his name on the back, he is said to *indorse it in blank*, and it is thenceforth payable to any holder.

It has been the policy of our law to recognise and

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adopt, with regard to these Bills, the custom and law of merchants, though, in some particulars, at variance with its own principles, a policy of much advantage to our commercial dealings and interests. The increase of those commercial relations has, in later times, made the law on the subject of Bills of Exchange, a very important and extensive branch of legal study. There is a voluminous work on this head by Mr. Chitty, and a very accurate, comprehensive and luminous treatise by the present Mr. Justice Bayley.

Bill of Indictment is the formal written statement of the offence imputed to a prisoner, which is, in the first instance, laid before the Grand Jury; and if, upon examination of *ex parte* evidence, they declare it to be "a true Bill," the prisoner is arraigned and takes his trial upon it; the evidence in order to convict him, being necessarily to correspond with the allegations in the indictment. A late work by Mr. Starkie, entitled, "*A Treatise on Criminal Pleading*," (3 vols. 8vo. London, 1822.) will be found the most useful guide to the practitioner of criminal law, in the several offices to be observed in framing indictments.

Bill of Lading, a memorandum signed by masters of ships, acknowledging the receipt of the goods intrusted to them by one merchant to be carried to another. There are usually triplicate copies; one for each merchant, and the third for the captain.

Bill of Rights. This great and important statute is the second of the first year of William and Mary; and is so called, as being declaratory of the rights of British subjects. On an enactment at once so familiar and so comprehensive, it will suffice to refer to Blackstone, vol. i. p. 128.

Bill of Sale is a contract, by a deed under seal, whereby the proprietor of goods and chattels passes his right and property in them to another; and being made solemnly, and with the seller's seal affixed, he is bound by it, and not allowed to shew, as he might in the case of a mere *parol* contract, that it was made without good or valuable consideration, and that, therefore, in law the property did not pass, and no action can be maintained to recover it. See *ASSUMPSIT*, under which word we explained the principle "*ex nudo pacto non oritur actio*."

We have not spoken of *Bills in Parliament*. It is known to our readers, that this is the appellation given to all legislative measures during their progressive stages of enactment. When they have passed both houses of Parliament, and received the Royal assent, they become *Acts*, or *Statutes*.

Bills of Mortality, weekly returns of the Births and Burials which take place in and near London. These Bills were first computed after the Plague in 1592, at which time they included 109 parishes. This number has since been increased to 146.

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BILLARD, or BILLET, in Zoology, a name given to the young *Gadus Carbonarius*, or Coal Fish.

BILLARDIERA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Protandria*, order *Monogynia*. Geoeirc character: petals five, alternate with the leaflets of the calyx;

stigma simple. Berry superior, many-seeded. Smith. *Specimen of the Botany of New Holland*, 1.

A New Holland genus, first introduced by the late Sir Joseph Banks. Two species are described in the *Hortus Kewensis*. *Botanical Magazine*, 601, and 1313

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BILLIARDS, from the French *billard*, the mace or stick with which the game is played, probably from the Latin *pila*, a ball. A game played with ivory balls, upon a rectangular table, usually about twelve feet long and six wide, covered with fine green cloth, surrounded with cushions, and having appended at each of the angles, and at the middle of the two longest sides bags called pockets, into which the object of the player is to force either his own or his adversary's ball, or both, after they have struck each other. The balls are struck either by a cue or a mace. The cue is a straight rod between five and six feet in length, and tapering till its smaller extremity, with which the ball is struck, becomes about half an inch in diameter. The mace is a straight rod with a broad head affixed to the end with which the ball is struck.

The following, according to Mr. Hoyle, are the different games played on a Billiard table, and their several rules:

"1. *The White Winning Game*, played with two

white balls, is twelve in number, when two persons play; and fifteen when four play; scored (independently of forfeitures) from winning hazards only.

"2. *The White Losing Game*, also twelve in number, played with two white balls, is the reverse of the winning; the points being scored from losing and double, or winning and losing hazards.

"3. *The White Winning and Losing Game*, is a combination of the two preceding; all balls put to by striking the adversary's ball first, reckon towards the game.

"The three preceding games should be made introductory to the knowledge of those with three or more balls, which are more complicated and difficult.

"4. *Choice of Balls*.—In which the player chooses his ball each time, an in calculable advantage, generally played against the losing and winning game.

"5. *The Bricole Game* signifies being required to strike a cushion from whence the ball is to rebound so as to hit that of the adversary, reckoned equal to

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giving eight or nine points. When both parties play *bricole*, the game is ten, scored from *bricole hazards*, and forfeitures.

"6. *The Bar-hole Game*, so styled because the hole which the ball should be played for is barred, and the player strikes for another hole. When this is played against the common game, the advantage to the last-mentioned is calculated at six points.

"7. *One-hole*, in which all balls that go into one hole are counted, and the player who best lays his ball at the brink of that particular hole, has the advantage. The lead should be given from that end of the table where the last hazard has been made.

"8. *Hazards*, so styled as depending entirely upon making of hazards, no account being kept of game. Many persons may play at a table with balls that are numbered, though to avoid confusion seldom more than six play at once. The person whose ball is put in pays a fixed sum for each hazard to the player, and he who misses pays half the same to him whose ball he played at. The only general rule is not to lay any ball a hazard for the next player, which may best be done by always playing upon him whose turn is next, and either bringing his ball close to the cushion, or putting it at a distance from the rest.

"9. *The Doublet Game* is ten in number, played with two balls, most commonly against the white winning game, and no hazard is scored unless made by a reversion from the cushion, calculated as equivalent to giving five points.

"10. *The Commanding Game*, where the adversary fixes upon the ball which the striker is to play at, reckoned equal to having fourteen points out of twenty-four: usually given by a skilful player against the common game of an indifferent one.

"11. *The Limited Game* is very seldom played. In it the table is divided by a line, beyond which, if the striker passes his ball, he pays forfeit.

"12. *The Red or Winning and Losing Carambole Game*, consists of twenty-one or twenty-four points, reckoned from caramboles, and from winning and losing hazards, equally; both white and red. Each of the white hazards and carambole counts two; the red hazard three points.

"13. *The Winning Carambole* (or red) game is sixteen or eighteen in number, obtained (independently of the forfeitures, which every game has peculiar to itself,) by winning hazards and caroms only.

"14. *The Losing Carambole* is nearly the reverse of the winning, and consists of sixteen or eighteen points, made by caramboles, losing, and double hazards; counted as in the winning and losing game.

"The carambole games are played with three balls; one red which is neutral, and termed the *carambole*; the other two white: one of them allotted to each player. The *carambole* is placed upon a spot on a line even with the stringing nail at the bottom of the table, and after leading from the upper end, the striker is either to make the winning or losing hazard, according to the particular game, or to hit with his own ball the other two successively; for which stroke, called a *carambole* or *carom*, he obtains two points.

"15. *The Russian Carambole* varies from the common carambole in the following particulars:

"The red ball is placed upon the usual spot; but the player at the commencement of the game, or after his ball has been holed, is at liberty to place it where

he pleases. The leader, instead of striking at the red ball, should lay his own gently behind the same, and the opponent may play at either of them; if the said opponent plays at and bores the red ball, he scores three; then the red ball is to be replaced upon the spot, and the player may take his choice again, always following his stroke till both balls are off the table, he gains two points for every carambole; but if in doing that he bores his own ball, then he loses as many as otherwise he would have obtained; and if he strikes at the red ball, caramboles and holes that ball and his own, he loses five points; and when he bores all three balls he loses seven, which respective numbers he would have won had he not holed his own ball.

"16. *The Caroline or Carline Game* is played either on a round or square table with five balls, two white, one red, another blue, and the caroline ball yellow. The red ball is to be placed on its usual spot, the caroline ball exactly in the middle of the table, and the blue ball between the two at the lower end of the table. The striking spot is at the upper end, in a parallel line with the three balls. The game is forty-two scored from caramboles and hazards; the red hazard counts three, the blue two, and the yellow when holed in the caroline or middle pocket is reckoned at six points.

"17. *The Four Game* consists of two partners on each side at any of the common games, who play in succession after every winning hazard lost.

"18. *The Cushion Game* consists in the striker playing his ball from the top of the balk cushion instead of following his stroke upon the table, and is generally played in the winning or winning and losing game, reckoned equal to giving six points.

"19. *Fortification Billiards*.

"Rules and Regulations to be observed at the White Winning Game

"1. String for the lead and chance of balls.

"2. In stringing, the striker should stand with both feet within the limits of the corner of the table, and not place his balls beyond the stringing nails or spots, his adversary alone is bound to see that he stands and plays fair, otherwise he is not subject to any forfeiture.

"3. If the leader follows his ball with either mace or cue, beyond the middle hole, his adversary may make him lead again.

"4. Immediately after a hazard has been won, the balls are to be broken, and the striker is to lead as at first.

"5. When a hazard has been lost in either of the corner holes, the leader, if his adversary requires it, is to lead from the end of the table where the hazard was lost, but if the hazard was lost in either of the middle holes, the leader may play from either end of the table.

"6. If the striker miss his adversary's ball, he loses one point, and if by the same stroke he bores his own ball, he loses three points.

"7. Whether the stroke is foul or fair, if the striker holes his own or both balls, or forces either or both of them over the table or on a cushion, he loses two points.

"8. If the striker forces his adversary's ball over the table, and his adversary should chance to stop the

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same, so as to make it come on the table again, the striker nevertheless wins two points.

"9. If the striker forces his own ball over the table, and his adversary should stop and cause it to come on the table again, the striker loses nothing, but retains the lead, because his adversary ought not to stand in the way or near the table.

"10. If the striker misses his adversary's ball, and forces his own over the table, and it should be stopped by the adversary, he loses one point, but has the lead if he chooses.

"11. If the striker who plays the stroke, should make his adversary's ball go so near the brink of a hole, as to be judged to stand still, and it should afterwards fall in, the striker wins nothing, and the ball must be put on the brink where it stood, for his adversary to play at the next stroke.

"N.B. There is no occasion for challenging the ball if it stops.

"12. If the striker's ball should stand on the brink of a hole, and in attempting to play it off he should make the ball go in, he loses three points.

"13. If a ball should stand on the brink of a hole, and should fall in before or when the striker has delivered his ball from his mace or cue, so as to have no chance for his stroke, in that case the balls must be replaced and the striker play again.

"14. The striker is to pass his adversary's ball, more especially if he misses the ball on purpose, then his adversary may oblige him to place the ball where it stood, and play until he has passed.

"15. If the striker play with a wrong ball he loses the lead.

"16. If the ball should be changed in a hazard, or game, and not known by which party, the hazard must be played out by each with their different balls and then changed.

"17. If the striker play with his adversary's ball, and holes or forces the ball he played at, over the table, it is deemed a foul stroke.

"18. If the striker plays with his adversary's ball, and misses, he loses one point, and if his adversary discovers that he hath played with the wrong ball, he may part the balls and take the lead.

"19. In all the before-mentioned cases with the wrong ball, if the error be not discovered, the adversary must play with the ball the striker played at throughout the hazard, or part the balls and take the lead.

"20. Whoever proposes to part the balls, and his adversary agrees to it, the proposer loses the lead.

"21. Two missings do not constitute a hazard, unless previously agreed to on the contrary.

"22. When four people play, each party may consult with, and direct his partner in any thing respecting the game, &c.; and the party who misses twice before a hazard is made, is out, and it is his partner's turn to play, and though his adversary should hole a ball, so as to make a hazard at the stroke following the said two missings, yet the party who did not make the two missings, is to play, as he cannot be supposed to be out who has not made a stroke.

"White Losing Game.

" - At beginning you must string for the lead, and

the choice of the balls, the same as in the rules at the white winning game.

"2. If the striker misses the ball, he loses one; and if his ball goes into a hole by the same stroke, he loses three points.

"3. If the striker holes his adversary's ball, he loses two points.

"4. Forcing either or both the balls over the table, or on a cushion, reckons nothing, but the striker loses the lead.

"5. If the striker holes his own ball, he wins two; and if he holes both balls, he wins four points.

"6. If the striker holes either of the balls, and forces the other over the table, &c. he loses the lead only.

"The rest of the articles of regulations, &c. as in the winning games, are likewise to be observed.

"The White Winning and Losing Game.

"Is a combination of the two preceding; and all the balls put in by striking the adversary's ball first, reckon towards the game.

"The Winning and Losing Carambole Game, played with Three Balls, Two White and One Red.

"Is twenty-one or twenty-four in number, reckoned both from winning and losing hazards and caramboles, being by far the most full of variety, and of all other games the best calculated to afford amusement: the chances are so numerous, that the odds of it are not usually calculated, but generally laid according to fancy, or the custom of the table.

"The twenty-one game is more common, but that of twenty-four is more fashionable.

"Rules, &c. in the Winning and Losing Carambole Game; the General Laws and Regulations of which are applicable to all the other Games.

"1. The game commences by stringing for the lead and the choice of balls.

"2. In stringing, the striker must place his ball within the striking ring; and if his adversary desires it, must stand within the limits of the corner of the table.

"3. He who, after playing at the bottom cushion, brings his ball nearest to the cushion, at the upper or bank end of the table, wins the lead, and chooses his ball.

"4. After the first person has strung for the lead, if the adversary who follows should make his ball touch the other, the said adversary loses the lead.

"5. By holing his own ball either in stringing or leading, the player loses the lead.

"6. Should the leader follow his ball with either mace or cue beyond the middle hole, it is so lead: and his adversary may make him lead again.

"7. The leader must place his ball within the ring, between the striking nails or spots at the upper end of the table; and the same must be observed after every losing hazard has been got.

"8. The red ball is to be placed on the lower of the two spots, at the bottom of the table.

"9. When either of the white balls has been holed, &c. it must be replaced in, and played from the striking ring, as at the commencement of the game.

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"10. When the red ball hath been holed or forced over the table, it must be replaced on the same spot as at the beginning of the game, and the present striker is bound to see it thus replaced, otherwise he cannot win any points while it is off the spot, and the stroke he may make is deemed foul.

"11. If the striker does not hit his adversary's ball, he loses one point, and if by the same stroke he pockets his own ball, he loses three points and the lead.

"12. If the striker forces either of the balls over the table, he loses the lead.

"13. If the striker forces his own, or either of the other balls over the table, after having made a carambole or hazard, he gains nothing and also loses the lead.

"14. If the striker hit both the red and his adversary's ball with his own ball he played with, this is called a *carambole* or *carom*.

"15. If the striker with his own holes his adversary's ball, he wins two points.

"16. If the striker holes the red ball, he wins three points.

"17. If the striker holes his own off his adversary's ball, he wins two points.

"18. If the striker holes his own off the red ball, he wins three points.

"19. If the striker holes both his adversary's and the red ball, he wins five points.

"20. If the striker, by playing at the red ball first, holes his own and the red ball, he wins six points.

"21. If the striker, by hitting the white ball first, holes both his own and the adversary's ball, he wins four points.

"22. If the striker, by striking at the red ball first, holes both his own and his adversary's ball, he wins five points:—three for holing his own ball off the red, and two for holing the white ball.

"23. If the striker plays at his adversary's ball first, and holes his own ball and the red, he wins five points:—two for holing his own ball off the white, and three for holing the red ball.

"24. If the striker plays at his adversary's ball, and holes it, at the same time that he pockets both his own ball and the red, he wins seven points:—two for holing his own ball off the white; two for holing his adversary's; and three for holing the red ball.

"25. If the striker plays at the red, and holes his own ball off the same, and the red ball, and his adversary's, by the same stroke, he wins eight points:—three for holing his own ball off the red; three for holing the red; and two for holing the white ball.

"26. If the striker makes a carambole, and by the same stroke pockets his adversary's ball, he wins four points:—two for the carambole, and two for the white hazard.

"27. If the striker makes a carambole, and pockets the red ball, he wins five points:—two for the carambole, and three for the red hazard.

"28. If the striker caramboles and holes both the red and his adversary's ball, he gains seven points:—two for the carambole; two for the white; and three for the red ball.

"29. If the striker makes a carambole by striking the white ball first, and holes his own by the same stroke, he wins four points:—two for the carom; and two for the white losing hazard.

"30. If the striker makes a carambole by striking the red ball first, and by the same stroke pockets his own ball, he wins five points:—two for the carambole, and three for the red losing hazard.

"31. If the striker plays at the white ball first, and makes a carambole, and also holes his own and his adversary's ball, he wins six points:—two for the carambole, and two for each white hazard.

"32. If the striker plays at the red ball first, and caramboles and likewise holes his own and his adversary's ball, he gains seven points:—two for the carom; three for the red hazard, and two for the white hazard.

"33. If the striker caramboles by playing first at the white ball, and also holes his own and the red ball, he wins seven points:—two for the carom; two for the white losing hazard; and three for the red winning hazard.

"34. If the striker caramboles by striking the red ball first, and at the same time holes his own and the red ball, he wins eight points:—two for the carom; three for the red losing, and three for the red winning hazard.

"35. If the striker caramboles by striking the white ball first, and holes his own and his adversary's, and the red ball, he wins nine points:—two for the carambole; two for each of the white hazards; and three for the red hazard.

"36. If the striker caramboles by striking the red ball first, and by the same stroke holes his own and the red, and his adversary's ball, he gains ten points:—two for the carambole; three for the red losing; three for the red winning, and two for the white winning hazard.

"37. After the adversary's ball is off the table, and the two remaining balls are either upon the line, or within the stringing nails or spots, at the upper end where the white balls are originally placed in leading, it is called a *bank*; and the striker who is to play from the ring, must strike the opposite cushion, to make his ball rebound, so as to hit one of the balls in the bank; which if he doth not, he loses one point.

"38. It sometimes happens after the red ball has been holed or forced over the table, that one of the white balls so occupies its place, that it cannot be put upon its proper spot without touching the same. In such a case, the marker must hold the red ball in his hand, while the striker plays at his adversary's ball, and immediately afterwards replace the red on its proper spot, so that it may not prevent a carambole, &c.

"39. If the striker plays with the wrong ball, that is a foul stroke.

"40. If the striker is going to play with the wrong ball, no person in the room ought to discover it to him, except his partner, when they are playing a double match.

"41. If the striker plays with the wrong ball, and his adversary does not discover it, he may reckon all the points gained by the stroke, and the marker is obliged to score them.

"42. If the striker, after having made a hazard or carom, moves with his hand or stick, either of the balls which remain upon the table, the stroke is deemed foul.

"43. If a ball is found to have been changed during the game, and it is not known by which player, the

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game must be played out with the balls as they then are.

"44. No one hath a right to take up or otherwise move a ball, without permission of the adversary.

"45. If a striker touches his ball with the instrument twice, the stroke is foul.

"46. If a striker is impeded in his stroke by his adversary or a spectator, he has a right to recommence the stroke.

"47. If the striker should accidentally move his own ball, without intending at the time to make a stroke, he loses no point; but the adversary may replace the ball.

"48. If the striker touches his ball, and makes his mace or cue go over or past it, he loses one point.

"49. If either of the players, in the act of striking, happens to move his own, the adversary's, or the red ball from the place it occupied on the table, the stroke is foul.

"50. When the striker's, and either of the other balls are so close as to touch, and in playing the former off, the latter is moved from its place, the stroke is considered foul.

"51. If the striker, in attempting a stroke, does not touch his ball, it is no stroke, and he must strike again.

"52. If, when the balls are very near each other, the striker should make his ball touch the other, it is to be considered a stroke, though not intended as such.

"53. If the striker plays upon a ball which is still running, the stroke is foul.

"54. Whoever stops a ball when running, loses the lead, if his adversary does not like the ball he has to play at the next stroke.

"55. Whoever retains the adversary's cue or mace, when in the act of striking, makes the stroke foul.

"56. If the striker interrupts the course of his own ball, when running towards a hole, after having made a miss, and it is the opinion of the marker that it would have entered the pocket, had it not been interrupted, he loses three points.

"57. And if the striker interrupts, stops, or puts his adversary's ball out of its course, when running towards or into a hole, he is subjected to the same forfeiture.

"58. If the striker, after having made a hazard, or carambole, interrupts the course of his own ball, the stroke is foul; and he cannot score any of the points he may have thus made.

"59. He who blows upon a ball when running, makes the stroke foul; and if his own ball was running towards a hole, or near a hole, and he is seen by his adversary to blow upon it, he loses two points.

"60. If the striker plays with both feet off the ground, the stroke is deemed foul.

"61. Whoever strikes the table when the ball is running, makes the stroke foul.

"62. If the striker throws his mace or cue upon the table so as to balk his adversary, he causes him to make a foul stroke.

"63. If a ball is made to go extremely near the brink of a hole, and after seemingly standing still, falls into it, the striker wins nothing, and the ball must be put on the same brink where it stood, before the adversary makes his next stroke; and if it should fall into

the hole at the instant the striker hath played upon his ball, so as to prevent the success of his stroke, the striker's and the adversary's balls must be placed in the same relative position, and the striker play again.

"64. He who will not play the game out loses the same.

"65. If a person agrees to play with the cue, he is obliged to play with it during the whole of the game or match; but if no agreement hath been made, he may at any time change it for the mace, and vice versa. But when the parties agree to play mace against cue, the mace player hath no right to use a cue, nor has the cue player any right to use a mace, without permission.

"66. When a person agrees to play with a cue, he must play every ball within his reach with the point thereof; and if he agrees to play with the butt of the cue, he has no right at any time to play with the point, without permission. Also, when the parties agree to play point and point of the cue, neither of them has any right to use the butt; but every person who plays with a cue, may use occasionally a long cue, and in such case he may play with the point of a long cue or a mace.

"67. If the striker should make his mace or cue touch both balls at the same time, it is deemed a foul stroke, and if discovered by the adversary, he wins nothing for any points he might make by the stroke, and the adversary may break or part the balls.

"68. Whenever a foul stroke is made, it is at the option of the adversary either to part the balls, and play from the striking ring, as at the beginning, or if the balls happen to be in a favourable position for himself, to suffer the preceding striker to score the points; which the marker is obliged to do, in every case where the balls are not broken.

"69. The adversary only is bound to see that the striker plays fair, which if he neglects, the striker wins all the points which he may have made by that particular stroke, and the marker is obliged to score them.

"70. No person has a right to discover whether a stroke be fair or foul until asked, unless during a four match; and in that case, none but the player or his partner have a right to ask it.

"71. Should a dispute arise between the players concerning the fairness of a stroke, the marker alone is authorised to decide, and from his decision there is no appeal; but if he happens to be incompetent, the majority of the disinterested company then present, should decide the dispute.

"72. Whoever proposes to part the balls, and his adversary agrees, the person who made the proposal loses the lead.

"73. No person in the room has a right to bet more than the odds on a hazard or a game; but if he err through ignorance, he should appeal to the marker, or the table of the odds.—Each person who proposes a bet, should name the precise sum; and also should be extremely careful not to offer a bet when the striker had taken his aim, or is going to strike; and no bet ought to be proposed on any stroke, that may have any tendency to influence the player.—If A proposes a bet which is accepted by B, it must be confirmed by A, otherwise it is no bet.—If any bets

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are laid on the hazard, and the striker should lose the game by a miss, at the stroke in question, it cannot be a hazard. The game being out by a miss. In all cases the betters are to abide by the determination of the players, and the betters have a right to demand their money, when their game is over.

"74. Every person ought to be very attentive, and listen for the stroke, before he opens the door of a Billiard room.

"75. The striker has a right to command his adversary not to stand facing or near him, so as to annoy or molest him in his stroke.

"76. Each party is to take care of his own game, and his adversary has no right to answer any questions; as,—if the ball be close?—if he touch the ball? &c. &c.

"77. The marker should make those persons who do not play, stand from the table, and give room for the players to pass freely round.

"78. Those who play ought to be particularly careful and attentive to their strokes, when any bets are depending thereon: but even should they play carelessly, the bets must in every case be decided by the event.

"79. No person hath a right to discover to the player in what manner he may play his ball. But if done, and discovered by the adversary, he may prevent the striker from scoring the points he has made by the stroke. Neither, after a stroke hath been played, hath any one a right to detect any error the striker may have committed.

"RED OR CARAMBOLE WINNING GAME, PLAYED WITH THREE BALLS, TWO WHITE AND ONE RED.

"The game is sixteen or eighteen in number, formed from winning hazards and caramboles.

"There are two methods of playing this game: one by the players striking alternately, in which the number of points is usually sixteen; the other where the players follow their successful strokes, and then the points are eighteen; the latter mode is now generally used.

"The red or carambole winning game is full of variety; and there being so many chances in it, which make it a game of great uncertainty, the odds are not calculated, but bets are generally laid according to fancy, or to the custom of the table.

"1. Striking for the lead, &c. as in the winning and losing game.

"2. The red ball is to be placed on a spot made for that purpose, in the centre, between the stringing nails at the bottom of the table, higher up than in the carambole winning and losing game.

"3. After the first striker has played, his adversary is to play next, and so on alternately; or the striker is to follow his gaining stroke, as may have been agreed upon.

"4. If the striker misses both balls, he loses one point; if by the same stroke he pockets his own ball, he loses three points.

"5. If the striker caramboles he wins two points.

"6. If the striker holes his adversary's ball, he wins two points.

"7. When the striker holes the red ball, he wins three points.

"8. If the striker holes his adversary's and the red ball by the same stroke, he wins five points.—Two for the white, and three for the red ball.

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"9. If the striker caramboles, and at the same time pockets his adversary's ball, he wins four points.—Two for the carom, and two for holing the white ball.

"10. If the striker caramboles and holes the red ball, he wins five points.—Two for the carom, and three for pocketing the red ball.

"11. If the striker caramboles, and by the same stroke holes both his adversary's and the red ball, he wins seven points.—Two for the carambole, two for the white, and three for the red hazard.

"12. Forcing either of the balls over the table, as in the winning and losing game, reckons nothing.

"13. If the striker forces his ball over the table, and at the same time makes a carambole, or holes either of the other balls, he gains nothing by the stroke.

"14. When the striker forces either his adversary's or the red ball over the table, and by the same stroke holes his own, he loses nothing.

"15. If the striker makes a foul stroke, and at the same time holes his own ball, he loses two or three points, according to which ball he struck first.

"16. If the striker plays with the wrong ball, and at the same time makes a losing hazard, he loses either two or three points, according to which ball he struck first, and the stroke is considered foul.

"17. If the striker plays with the wrong ball, and misses both the remaining balls, he loses one point, and if the ball should go into a hole, he loses three points and the stroke is deemed foul.

"18. If the striker, playing at the baulk, holes his own ball, he loses three points.

"19. If the striker pockets either or both the balls, or caramboles when the balls are within the baulk, he wins ten, three, five, or seven points, according to the stroke.

"20. When the striker plays from the spot or circle, at either of the balls within the baulk, he is to pass one of the balls, otherwise it is no stroke.

"21. When the striker's ball and the red ball are within the baulk, he is not obliged to pass the ball.

"22. When either of the white balls has been holed, and the red or the white stands so near that the striker cannot pass his ball without touching the other, the marker must hold the red ball in his hand, as directed in the 37th rule of the winning and losing game.

"23. If either of the balls should be either before, behind, or one side of the spot, so that the striker is able to place his own ball without touching the other, he must play the ball as he can from the spot, neither of which balls must be moved to make way for him.

"RED OR CARAMBOLE LOSING GAME, PLAYED WITH THREE BALLS, TWO WHITE AND ONE RED.

"The game is sixteen or eighteen in number, as in the red winning game, scored by caramboles, losing and double hazards.

"The red or carambole losing game requires greater judgment than the winning, and depends materially on the skill of the player; the chances in it may happen sometimes in very more than at the winning carambole game, and especially if the players do not properly understand the skilful part.

"1. The game begins in the same manner as the carambole winning game.

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"2. If the striker misses both the balls, he loses one point : and if he holes his own ball by the same stroke, he loses three points.

"3. If the striker hits the red ball first, and holes it, he loses three points, and the ball must be immediately replaced on its proper spot.

"4. If the striker hits the white ball first, and holes it, he loses two points.

"5. If the striker holes the white and the red ball by the same stroke, he loses five points, viz. two for holing the white ball, and three for the red.

"6. If the striker makes a carambole, and holes either his adversary's or the red ball only, he wins nothing for the carambole, and loses two points if he struck the white, and three if he hit the red ball first.

"7. If the striker makes a carambole, he wins two points.

"8. If the striker makes a carambole by striking the white ball first, and should hole his own ball by the stroke, he wins four points, viz. two for holing the white, and two for holing his own ball on the white.

"9. If the striker makes a carambole by striking the red ball first, and by the stroke should hole his own ball, he wins five points, viz. two for the carambole, and three for holing his own ball on the red.

"10. If the striker makes a carambole by striking the white ball first, and by that stroke should hole his own and his adversary's white ball, he wins six points, viz. two for the carambole, two for holing his own ball on the white, and two for holing his adversary's on the white ball.

"11. If the striker makes a carambole by striking the red ball first, and by the said stroke should hole his own ball, and his adversary's white ball, he wins seven points, viz. two for the carambole, three for holing his own ball on the red, and two for his adversary's white ball.

"12. If the striker makes a carambole by striking the white ball first, and by the said stroke should hole his own and the red ball, he wins seven points, viz. two for the carambole, two for holing his own ball on the white, and three for holing the red ball.

"13. If the striker makes a carambole by striking the red ball first, and by the said stroke should hole his own and the red ball, he wins eight points, viz. two for the carambole, three for holing his own ball on the red, and three for holing the red ball.

"14. If the striker makes a carambole by striking the white ball first, and should hole all three balls, he wins nine points, viz. two for the carambole, two for holing his own ball on the white, two for holing his adversary's white ball, and three for holing the red ball.

"15. If the striker makes a carambole by striking the red ball first, and by the said stroke should hole all the balls, he wins ten points, viz. two for the carambole, three for holing his own ball on the red, three for holing the red, and two for holing his adversary's white ball.

"16. If the striker holes his own ball on the white ball, he wins two points : and if on the red, three points.

"17. If the striker, by striking the white ball, should hole his own ball and his adversary's white ball, he wins four points, viz. two for holing his own ball on the white, and two for holing his adversary's ball.

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"18. If the striker, by striking the red ball, should hole his own ball and his adversary's white ball, he wins five points, viz. three for holing his own ball on the red, and two for holing the white ball.

"19. If the striker strikes his adversary's white ball, and holes his own ball and the red, he wins five points, viz. two for holing his own ball on the white, and three for holing the red ball.

"20. If the striker strikes the red ball, and holes his own ball, and his adversary's white ball, he wins five points, viz. three for holing his own ball on the red, and two for holing his adversary's white ball.

"21. If the striker strikes his adversary's white ball, and holes all three balls by the same stroke, he wins seven points, viz. two for holing his own ball, on the white, two for holing his adversary's white ball, and three for holing the red ball.

"22. If the striker strikes the red ball, and holes all the balls by the same stroke, he wins eight points, viz. three for holing his own ball on the red, three for holing the red ball, and two for holing the white ball.

"23. If the striker strikes the red ball, and holes his own and the red ball, he wins six points, viz. three for holing his own ball on the red, and three for holing the red ball.

"N.B. The rest of the rules and regulations are likewise to be observed, as in the rules for the carambole winning game, &c.

"THE SIMPLEST CARAMBOLE GAME, PLAYED WITH THREE BALLS, AS IN THE OTHERS.

"The game is twelve in number, arising from caramboles and forfeitures.

"This game, possessing very few chances, requires both skill and judgment, and is seldom played alone, but generally by able proficient against the winning and losing, or the winning game of novices, considered equal to going fifteen out of twenty-four points. It is also played two different ways ; in one the hazards lose, in the other they are not reckoned ; the first-mentioned is the customary method, where the striker upon making a hazard loses as many points as he by that stroke would have gained in either the winning or losing game.

"1. The game is begun as in the preceding caramboles.

"2. If the striker misses both balls, he loses one, and when he pockets his own ball, he loses three points.

"3. When the striker makes a carambole, he scores two, except he holes his own ball on that of the adversary, or holes the adversary's ball, and then he loses two points.

"4. And when he caramboles, and holes either his own ball on the red, or holes the red ball, he loses three points.

"5. And also should he hole both his own and the adversary's ball, then he loses four points.

"6. And when he holes both his own and the red ball, he loses five points if he played at the white, and six if he played at the red ball.

"7. And likewise if he holes all three balls at one stroke, he loses seven points if he play at the white, and eight when at the red ball.

"The rest of the rules and regulations used in this are similar to those belonging to the other games when they are not contradictory to any of the seven above-mentioned.

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"Fortification Billiards.

"For the better comprehending of the method of playing, the editor has added two cuts; the first shews how the forts, &c. are to be placed; the other is a plan of the table when mounted, accurately measured, by which the various angles are ascertained, and calculated for the experienced player.

"First, there are ten forts made of wood, in the form of castles, which are to have lead put in them for the purpose of making them heavy, so that in playing the balls they may not be moved from their places. In the front of each fort, at the bottom, is an arch, full wide and high enough to admit the ball, which is to be put through it to attack the fort, and within the arch of each fort a small bell is hung. Secondly, the pass through which each of the adversary's attacking balls must pass, before a fort can be taken. Lastly, the grand batteries, and ten flags or colours.

"Two of the forts, called the grand forts, are to be made larger than the rest, and to have an arch cut through them of the size the others have. Five of the forts, including one of the grand forts, one of the batteries, and five of the flags or colours, are usually painted red, and the forts and battery are to be pointed like brick-work, which colour denotes them to be English; on each fort one red flag is to be hoisted on the centre of the front thereof. The other five forts, grand fort included, battery and colours, are to be of a white colour; the forts and battery to be pointed with black like stone, are called French, one white flag to be hoisted on each as before mentioned.

"The pass, which serves for the purpose of both parties' attacking balls to go through, is to be made in form of the grand forts, but rather longer for distinction, and to have an arch of the size of the grand forts, and painted of different colours; viz. one of the ends where the arch is, of a red, to continue half way of each side, and the same on the top; the other end of the arch is to be white, and to continue in the same colour over the other half. There are likewise two flags to be hoisted on the pass, viz. one red and the other white; the red to be hoisted at the English end, and the white at the French end. The pass is to be placed in the centre of the table, the red end to face the English forts, and the white end the French forts.

"The limits of each party's quarter, is from the end cushion, where his forts are placed, to his pass on each side of the table. The red or English forts are to possess one and of the table, called the English quarter. The white or French forts are to possess the other end of the table, called the French quarter. The two forts in each quarter in the first angle from the pass are to be taken first, which are therefore called the advanced forts. The two forts in the second angle are to be taken next, which are called the reserved forts. Lastly, the grand fort, with the battery placed before the same, is the last to be taken.

"The height of the advanced and the reserved forts is to be five inches and a half, the breadth and length of the advanced forts five inches to the square, and the length of the reserved forts are five inches and a half, and the back of them to be rounded off. The height of the grand forts is to be five inches and a half, the breadth and length six inches and a quarter. The batteries are made in a triangular form, the height

of them is three inches, the breadth at the extremity is two inches and a half, and the length three inches and a half. The height of the pass is five inches and a half, the breadth six inches and a quarter, and the length seven inches. The height of the console in the forts where the attacking ball must enter, is three inches, the breadth two inches and a half, the depth two inches and three quarters.

"The bell which is to be within the arch in each fort, must be hung one inch and a half within it.

"The balls which are to be played with at this game, are to be one inch and three-eighths diameter.

"Description of the Cuts.

"The one is a plan for placing the forts, &c. &c. with the distances measured; the other is also a representation of the superficies of a Billiard table, with all the forts and castles properly placed.

"a a a, the balls; b, the pass; c c, advanced forts; d d, reserved forts; f, grand fort; g, battery.

"RULES FOR THE GAME OF FORTIFICATION BILLIARDS.

"The game is twenty in number.

"1. The player who strikes the opposite cushion, and brings the ball nearest the cushion he struck from, shall have the first stroke and have the red (or English) side of the forts, and must commence hostilities, and begin the attack.

"2. Each party has three balls, viz. one attacking and two defending balls.

"3. The balls are placed on the spots as on the plan; the attacking ball is put in the middle, the defending balls on each side thereof.

"4. The ball for the attack, on the red (or English) side of the forts) must be spotted with red, and the defending balls with small black circles.

"5. The ball for the attack on the white (or French) side of the forts must be plain white, and the two defending balls eight black spots on each.

"6. Before you can attack any of the forts you must make the pass.

"7. When you have made the pass, you must take down your adversary's colours, and then attack either of his advanced forts, which must be taken first.

"8. If, after you have made the pass, you do not take down your adversary's colours, you must make the pass again from your own side of the forts; but you must not return to the spot.

"9. If you take either of your adversary's forts, after you have made the pass, and have not taken down your adversary's pass colours: you lose two points and must return to your spot again.

"10. After you have regularly made a pass, and have taken a fort, you must return to your middle spot again.

"Note. Regularly making the pass, is when you have taken down the adversary's colours, conformable to article 7.

"11. When you have taken a fort you win four points.

"12. If you do not take down your adversary's colours when you have taken his fort, you are obliged to take the mid fort again, and must be put back those four points you won by the same.

"13. Missings at this game reckon nothing.

"14. After you have regularly made the pass, you

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are not obliged to go through it again during the game.

"15. In each fort there is a bell, which gives notice at being taken; which bell must be made to ring, otherwise the fort is not taken.

"16. The besieged may defend his own forts, or may send his attacking ball into the assaulter's quarters to attack his.

"17. The besieger must take his adversary's fort with his attacking ball.

"18. If the besieger should take his adversary's fort with either of his defending balls, he loses two points, and returns to his spot again.

"19. If the striker plays with either of his adversary's balls, he loses two points, and if he played on either of his own balls, that must be put on its proper spot again, if his adversary requires it.

"20. Either party may send his defending ball or balls into his adversary's quarter.

"21. After having taken the two advanced forts, you must take the two forts in the next angle, which are called the reserved forts; and lastly, the grand fort.

"22. He who does not take the forts according to the above direction, and takes either of the last for the first, loses two points, and must return to the proper spot again.

"23. After a fort hath been taken, or a ball holed or forced over the table, the striker is bound to place or to see the ball placed on its proper spot; and if he doth not, he shall reckon nothing for any forts, &c. he shall take during the time the ball is out of its place.

"24. After having taken a fort, either by storm or otherwise, if the adversary takes the ball out of the fort, although he doth not take down his colours, nevertheless the said fort is deemed as taken, and the colours are to be taken down.

"N.B. Taking a fort by storm is, when the party, having made his utmost effort, finds it so well defended and guarded by his adversary, that he is obliged to have recourse to stratagem, that is, by laying his ball in a proper angle, and striking the ball against the end cushion, and bringing the ball back again into his adversary's fort.

"25. If the striker forceth either of his adversary's balls into his own fort which hath not been taken, he makes him a prisoner of war, and wins six points.

"26. If the striker forces either of his adversary's balls into his own fort which hath been taken, it is no prisoner of war, but the said striker wins two points.

"27. If the striker forces either of his adversary's balls into his adversary's fort, he wins two points.

"28. If the striker holes any of his adversary's balls, for each ball so holed he wins two points.

"29. If the striker holes his own ball or balls, for each ball so holed he loses two points.

"30. If the striker forceth his adversary's ball or balls over the table, or on a fort or cushion, for each ball he wins two points.

"31. If the striker forces his own ball or balls over the table, &c. for each ball he loses two points.

"32. If the striker forces his adversary's ball over the table, or on a fort or cushion, or into a hole, and regularly takes his adversary's fort by the same stroke, he wins six points. But if by the same stroke the striker's ball should go into a fort which

hath been taken, or is out of the angle, he loses two points.

"33. If the striker holes his own or his adversary's ball, or forces them over the table, or on a fort or cushion, he loses two points.

"34. If the striker forces his ball into any of his own or adversary's forts, which had been taken, or into any of his adversary's forts out of the angle, he loses two points.

"35. When a ball is holed or forced over the table, or on, &c. such ball is to be placed on the proper spot; but if it happens that the spot should be occupied by another ball, in such case the ball is to be placed behind, so as not to touch the other ball.

"36. Whoever takes a fort after it has been regularly taken, and the colours are down, loses two points.

"37. When the adversary's ball is out of sight (that is, laylog behind a fort so that it cannot be seen,) and the striker hath a fancy to strike the cushion first, and hit the said ball backwards, by giving warning, saying, *I do not see*, if he should hit the said ball, he wins two points; but if he should not hit the ball, he loses two points.

"38. If, by the before-mentioned stroke, the striker should hit the ball, and hole his own ball, or force it over the table, or on a fort cushion, or into either of his own forts, or into either of his adversary's forts which hath been taken, or is out of the angle [See 21 and 22] he loses two points.

"39. If either of the adversary's balls should be before either of the striker's forts which hath not been taken, and (the said ball being out of sight) the striker hath a fancy to strike the cushion first, and hit the said ball backwards, to make a prisoner of war of his adversary's ball, by saying, *I do not see*, if he hits the ball, he wins two points, and if he makes a prisoner of war of his adversary's ball, he wins six points more, and his adversary's ball must return to its spot again.

"40. When the striker gives warning, saying, *I do not see*, his adversary, or the disinterested company, have a right to be judge thereof, or the marker, if any dispute should arise thereon.

"41. If the striker holes, or, &c. either of his adversary's defending balls, it is at his adversary's option to place the said ball on either of the proper spots, if they are both vacant.

"42. Whoever toucheth both balls with mace or cue, makes a foul stroke; therefore he cannot reckon any points made by the said stroke, if it is discovered by the opponent and proved to be so by the disinterested company and the marker; but if it is not discovered, the marker is obliged to reckon all the points made by the stroke. But if the said stroke is proved to be foul then it is at his enemy's option either to break the balls, or to make him return to his proper spot again.

"43. If the striker makes a foul stroke, and holes his own ball, or forces it over the table, &c. he loses two points for each of his own balls so holed or forced over the table; and it is at his adversary's option to put the balls.

"44. If the striker moves the ball it must be put back to the proper place it was moved from.

"45. Whoever blows on his enemy's or his own ball when running, it is deemed foul. [See article 42.]

BIL-
LIARDS.

BIL- LIARDS. "46. If the striker, by blowing on his own ball, should put it out of its proper course, especially when running near a hole, he loses two points; and it is deemed foul. [See article 42.]

"47. Whoever stops a ball with a stick or otherwise after the stroke, it is deemed foul. [See article 42.]

"48. Whoever plays with both feet off the floor, without permission from his enemy, it is deemed foul. [See article 42.]

"49. Whoever plays upon a ball when running, it is deemed foul. [See article 42.]

"50. Whoever retains his adversary's cue or mace, when playing, loses two points; besides it is foul. [See article 42.]

"51. Whoever gets the first twenty points, each fort being regularly taken is four points, wins the game.

"52. When four parties play a double match, he who plays before his turn loses two points.

"N. B. The rest of the necessary rules and regulations are to be found in the rules, &c. of the white winning game.

"ODDS AT BILLIARDS.

"Equal Players.

1 Love	is	5	to	4	5 to 4	is	5	to	4
2	3	..	2	6	7	..	4
3	7	..	4	7	2	..	1
4	2	..	1	8	4	..	1
5	5	..	2	9	9	..	2
6	4	..	1	10	21	..	2
7	9	..	2	11	12	..	1
8	10	..	1	6 to 5	is	3	to	2
9	11	..	1	7	7	..	4
10	56	..	1	8	3	..	1
11	40	..	1	9	4	..	1
2 to 1	is	4	to	3	10	9	..	1
3	3	..	2	11	21	..	2
4	7	..	4	7 to 6	is	4	to	3
5	2	..	1	8	2	..	1
6	7	..	2	9	5	..	2
7	7	..	1	10	5	..	1
8	9	..	1	11	11	..	2
9	10	..	1	8 to 7	is	7	to	4
10	32	..	1	9	2	..	1
11	36	..	1	10	9	..	5
3 to 2	is	5	to	4	11	5	..	1
4	8	..	5	9 to 8	is	5	to	4
5	9	..	5	10	11	..	4
6	3	..	1	11	3	..	1
7	7	..	2	10 to 9	is	9	to	4
8	6	..	1	11	5	..	2
9	7	..	1	11 to 10	is	10	to	9
10	21	..	1	11	5	..	2
11	22	..	1	11 to 10	is	10	to	9
4 to 3	is	7	to	5	11	5	..	2
5	8	..	5	11 to 10	is	10	to	9
6	5	..	2	11	5	..	2
7	3	..	1	11 to 10	is	10	to	9
8	5	..	1	11	5	..	2
9	6	..	1	11 to 10	is	10	to	9
10	20	..	1	11	5	..	2
11	21	..	1	11 to 10	is	10	to	9

11 to 10; or according to the stroke.

"When a Person who gives One Point to another, is,

1 All	is	5	to	4	5 All	is	5	to	4
2 to 1	..	3	..	2	6 to 5	..	8	..	5
3	7	..	4	7	9	..	5
4	2	..	1	8	4	..	1
5	5	..	2	9	9	..	2
6	4	..	1	10	10	..	1
7	9	..	2	11	11	..	1
8	10	..	1	6 All	is	6	to	5
9	11	..	1	7 to 6	..	7	..	5
10	36	..	1	8	5	..	2
11	40	..	1	9	10	..	4
2 All	is	5	to	4	10	11	..	4
3 to 2	..	3	..	2	11	6	..	1
4	7	..	4	7 All	is	6	to	5
5	2	..	1	8 to 7	..	9	..	5
6	7	..	2	9	9	..	4
7	4	..	1	10	5	..	1
8	9	..	1	11	11	..	2
9	10	..	1	8 All	is	7	to	6
10	25	..	1	9 to 8	..	4	..	3
11	26	..	1	10	3	..	1
3 All	is	5	to	4	11	7	..	2
4 to 3	..	4	..	2	9 All	is	7	to	6
5	7	..	4	10 to 8	..	5	..	2
6	3	..	1	11	11	..	4
7	7	..	2	10 All	is	8	to	7
8	6	..	1	11 or 10; or according to the stroke.				
9	13	..	2	4 All	is	5	to	4
10	21	..	1	5 to 4	..	7	..	5
11	22	..	1	6	2	..	2
4 All	is	5	to	4	7	11	..	5
5 to 4	..	7	..	5	8	9	..	2
6	2	..	2	9	5	..	1
7	11	..	5	10	12	..	1
8	9	..	2	11	13	..	1
9	5	..	1					
10	12	..	1					
11	13	..	1					

"When a Person who gives Two Points to another, is,

1 to 2	is	5	to	4	3 All	is	3	to	2
2 All	..	3	..	2	4 to 3	..	7	..	4
3 2	..	7	..	4	5	2	..	1
4	2	..	1	6	7	..	2
5	5	..	2	7	4	..	1
6	4	..	1	8	9	..	1
7	9	..	2	9	10	..	1
8	10	..	1	10	26	..	1
9	11	..	1	11	27	..	1
10	31	..	1	4 All	is	7	to	5
11	32	..	1	5 to 2	..	8	..	5
3 to 2	is	7	to	4	6	5	..	2
4	2	..	1	7	11	..	4
5	5	..	2	8	5	..	1
6	4	..	1	9	11	..	2
7	9	..	2	10	20	..	1
8	10	..	1	11	21	..	1
9	21	..	1					
10	30	..	1					
11	31	..	1					

BILLIARDS.	5 All is 7 to 5	7 All is 4 to 3	9 All is 8 to 5	10 All is 3 to 2	BILLIARDS.
	6 to 5 .. 7 .. 4	8 2 .. 1	10 to 9 .. 7 .. 2	11 to 10; or according to the stroke,	
	7 2 .. 1	9 5 .. 2	11 4 .. 1		
	8 9 .. 2	10 5 .. 1			
	9 5 .. 1	11 11 .. 2			
	10 15 .. 1				
	11 16 .. 1				
<i>When a Person who gives Five Points to another, is,</i>					
BILLIARDS.	6 All is 4 to 3	8 All is 5 to 4	1 to 5 is 5 to 4	7 All is 5 to 2	BILLIARDS.
	7 to 6 .. 3 .. 2	9 to .. 7 .. 5	2 3 .. 2	8 to 7 .. 4 .. 1	
	8 5 .. 2	10 3 .. 1	3 7 .. 4	9 11 .. 4	
	9 3 .. 1	11 7 .. 2	4 2 .. 1	10 13 .. 1	
	10 11 .. 2		5 5 .. 2	11 14 .. 1	
	11 6 .. 1		6 4 .. 1		
<i>When a Person who gives Three Points to another, is,</i>					
BILLIARDS.	1 to 3 is 5 to 4	6 All is 3 to 2	7 to 6 .. 3 .. 1	8 All is 2 to 1	BILLIARDS.
	2 3 .. 2	7 to 6 .. 7 .. 4	8 11 .. 1	9 to 8 .. 5 .. 2	
	3 All .. 7 .. 4	8 7 .. 2	9 6 .. 1	10 All is 3 to 5	
	4 to 3 .. 2 .. 1	9 4 .. 1	10 14 .. 1	11 to 10; or according to the stroke,	
	5 5 .. 2	10 6 .. 1	11 15 .. 1		
	6 4 .. 1	11 13 .. 2			
<i>When a Person who gives Six Points to another, is,</i>					
BILLIARDS.	7 9 .. 2	7 All is 3 to 2	6 All is 3 to 1	8 All is 5 to 2	BILLIARDS.
	8 10 .. 1	8 to 7 .. 5 .. 2	7 to 6 .. 7 .. 2	9 to 8 .. 11 .. 4	
	9 11 .. 1	9 3 .. 1	8 6 .. 1	10 6 .. 1	
	10 21 .. 1	10 11 .. 2	9 7 .. 1	11 7 .. 1	
	11 22 .. 1	11 6 .. 1	10 15 .. 1	9 All is 5 to 2	
			11 16 .. 1	10 to 9 .. 5 .. 1	
<i>When a person who receives One Point from another, is,</i>					
BILLIARDS.	4 All is 8 to 5	8 All is 4 to 3	7 All is 3 to 1	10 All is 2 to 1	BILLIARDS.
	5 to 4 .. 9 .. 5	9 to 8 .. 3 .. 2	8 to .. 11 .. 2	11 to 10; or according to the stroke,	
	6 3 .. 1	10 7 .. 2	9 6 .. 1		
	7 7 .. 2	11 4 .. 1	10 14 .. 1		
	8 7 .. 1	9 All is 4 to 3	11 15 .. 1		
	9 8 .. 1	10 to 9 .. 3 .. 1			
<i>When a Person who gives Four Points to another, is,</i>					
BILLIARDS.	5 All is 8 to 5	10 All is 5 to 4	11 to 10; or according to the stroke,		BILLIARDS.
	6 to 5 .. 5 .. 2				
	7 3 .. 1				
	8 6 .. 1				
	9 13 .. 2				
	10 19 .. 1				
<i>When a Person who receives Three Points from another, is,</i>					
BILLIARDS.	1 to 4 is 5 to 4	6 All is 7 to 4	7 to 6 .. 2 .. 1	8 All is 7 to 5	BILLIARDS.
	2 3 .. 2	7 to 6 .. 5 .. 2	8 11 .. 4	9 8 .. 1	
	3 7 .. 4	9 11 .. 2	10 25 .. 1	11 26 .. 1	
	4 2 .. 1	10 15 .. 1			
	5 5 .. 2	11 16 .. 1			
	6 4 .. 1				
<i>When a Person who receives Two Points from another, is,</i>					
BILLIARDS.	7 9 .. 2	7 All is 7 to 1	8 to 7 .. 4 .. 1	5 Love is 7 to 5	BILLIARDS.
	8 8 .. 1	8 to 7 .. 9 .. 1	9 13 .. 1	6 2 .. 1	
	9 9 .. 1	10 14 .. 1		7 5 .. 2	
	10 26 .. 1			8 6 .. 1	
	11 27 .. 1			9 7 .. 1	
				10 15 .. 1	
<i>When a Person who receives Four Points from another, is,</i>					
BILLIARDS.	5 All is 7 to 1	8 All is 8 to 5	3 Love is 5 to 4	5 8 .. 1	BILLIARDS.
	6 to 5 .. 2 .. 2	9 to 8 .. 9 .. 5	4 9 .. 6	6 9 .. 1	
	7 4 .. 1	10 4 .. 1	5 7 .. 2	7 16 .. 1	
	8 7 .. 1	11 9 .. 2	6 8 .. 1		
	9 8 .. 1		7 9 .. 1		
	10 24 .. 1		8 26 .. 1		
	11 25 .. 1		9 27 .. 1		

BIL-
LIARDS.
—
BILLOW.

"When a Person who re-
ceives Five Points from
another, is,
6 Love is 7 to 4
7 2 .. 1
8 5 .. 1
9 6 .. 1
10 14 .. 1
11 15 .. 1

"When a Person who re-
ceives Six Points from
another, is,
7 Love is 3 to 2
8 4 .. 1
9 5 .. 1
10 11 .. 1
11 12 .. 1

"When a Person who re-
ceives Two Points from
another, is,
4 to 2 is 6 to 5
5 4 .. 3
6 5 .. 2
7 3 .. 1
8 5 .. 1
9 11 .. 2
10 18 .. 1
11 19 .. 1

"When a Person who re-
ceives Two Points from
another, is,
6 to 4 is 4 to 3
7 3 .. 2
8 3 .. 1
9 7 .. 2
10 9 .. 1
11 10 .. 1

"When a Person who re-
ceives Four Points from
another, is,
8 to 6 is 3 to 2
9 7 .. 4
10 4 .. 1
11 9 .. 2

"When a Person who re-
ceives Two Points from
another, is,
10 to 8 is 3 to 1
11 5 .. 2

"When a Person who re-
ceives Four Points from
another, is,
7 to 4 is equal.
8 2 to 1
9 5 .. 2
10 7 .. 1
11 8 .. 1

"When a Person who re-
ceives Four Points from
another, is,
8 to 6 is equal.
9 5 to 4
10 3 .. 1
11 7 .. 2

"When a Person who re-
ceives Four Points from
another, is,
10 to 8 is 3 to 2
11 7 .. 4

"When a Person who re-
ceives Four Points from
another, is,
10 to 9 is 8 to 4
11 3 .. 2

"When a Person who re-
ceives Six Points from an-
other, is,
10 to 7 is 7 to 1
11 2 .. 1

"When a Person who re-
ceives Six Points from an-
other, is,
11 to 8 is 4 to 3'

BIL-
LIARDS.
—
BIN.

BILLON, Lat. *bullo*, base metal of gold or silver alloyed with copper.

BILLOW, *v.* } Swed. *Goth. bulg-is*, to bulge out,
BILLOW, *s.* } to swell. To swell or heave; usu-
BILLOWY. } ally applied to the swelling or
heaving of the waves.

But as a ship that under sails doth pass
The roaring billows and the raging streams,
And drawing nigh the wished port (alas)
Breaks on some hidden rocks her ribs and beams.
Fairfax. Godfrey of Boulogne, book ii. st. 84.

The mariner amidst the swelling seas,
Who seeth his bark with many a billow beaten,
Now here, now there, as winds and waves best please,
When thundering Jove with tempest list to threaten,
And dreadens in deep gulfs far to be eaten,
Yet leaves a memento by mere necessity
To save himself in such extremities.

Georgic. Chorus to Jocasta, act ii.

— O, do not think
You stand upon the rim, and behold
A critic on the inconstant billows dancing:
For so appears the fleet evanescent,
Holding due course to Harbours.

Shakespeare. King Henry F. fol. 77.

The beaten bark, her rudder lost,
Is on the rolling billows tost;
Her keel now plunges the seas, and soon
Her top-mast lifts against the moon.

Cotton. Water.

Within two days after, there arose another great storm, at the
north-east, and we lay a try, being driven far into the sea, and
had much ado to keep our backs from sinking, the billows was so
great. *Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. M. Ant. Jenkinson, l. 334.*

— No sleep could seize
His eyelids; he beheld the Pleiades,
The Pleiades, the Pleiades, that round doth move
About Orion; and keeps still above
The billows ocean. *Chapman. Ham. Ocl. book v.*

The billowing snow, and violence of the shower,
That from the hills disperse their dreadful store,
And o'er the sales collected rain pour.

Prior. Solomon, book iii.

— Their legions roam without a guide,
Like vessels lost on ocean's billowy tide,
Whose course wester'd the winds and tempests sway,
And chance conducts them o'er the watery way.

Levin. The Philist of Statues, book x.

Without this last [judgment] the vessel is tossed by every billow,
and will find shipwreck in every breeze.

Goldsmith. Citizens of the World.

When first the kingdom to thy virtues due
Rose from the billowy deep in distant view;
When Albion's isle, old ocean's peerless pride,
Towered in imperial state above the tide.

Marton. On the Marriage of the King.

BFINI, one of the Bahamas Islands, situated near
the north-west extremity of the Great Bahamas bank,
and the east point of Florida. It is difficult of access
from the numerous shoals with which it is surrounded;
but is covered with beautiful groves, and inhabited by
native Indians.

BIN, Skinner, and after him, Tooke, derive it from
the A. S. *pyndan*, to enclose, to pen, or pin. To bin,
differing merely in the application, from to pen or pin.
Any thing that encloses, that confines; as a corn-bin,
a wine-bin.

BIN.
BIN-
CHESTER

Wel coude he kepe a garner and a bin
There was non audilour coude on him wine.
Chaucer. The Prologue, v. 595.
You might have seen them throng out of the town :
Like ants, when they do spoile the king of corn,
For winters dread, which they beare to their den.
Surrey. Booke, book iv.

Oh I've seen,
Er's at her brow the boisterous yeoman cease,
And the mad pickers, tam'd to diligence,
Call from the bin the sprawling sprigs, and leaves
That stain the sample, and its worth debate.
Smart. The Hay Garden, book ii.
O'er twice three pickers, and no more, extend
The binmen's sway.
Id. II.

BINAROS, a seaport of Spain, in the kingdom of Valencia, near the mouth of a river which falls into the Mediterranean, on the borders of Catalonia. It has a good harbour at a short distance below the town, with from six to nine fathoms water. The town is surrounded with walls, and the adjacent country produces excellent wine. The Duke of Vendôme died here in 1712.

BINARY, *bin*, *binus*, two. Twofold, double.

Thos. I have 'em already, Sonnetion.
SOMERTON. *Daniel* reveals all this.
Ford. Witch of Edmonton, act iii. sc. 2.

Pythagoras affirmeth, that of the two first principles, unity was God, and the sovereign good ; which is the very nature of one, and is understanding it selfe : but the infinite binary, is the devil and evil, about which is the multitude material, and the visible world.
Holland. Pinterch, fol. 665.

So that this matter was rightly called *binus* : and the union of the passive and active principle in the creation of this material heaven in the second day's work, and the *binus* denotes the entire thereof.
Morc. The Philosophical Cabinet, ch. i. 18.

BINCHE, an ancient town of the kingdom of the Netherlands, in the province of Hainault, situated in a fertile district on the river Haye ; and chiefly remarkable for the contests it has occasioned between the Austrians, French, and Spaniards. Henry II. of France burnt it to the ground in 1554, but it was soon after rebuilt. The Archduke John of Austria took it in 1578, but as this prince died soon afterwards, the Duke of Alençon besieged it, and retook it by storm the same year. It was next taken by the Spaniards, but ceded to France by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1668. Another transfer of Binche was also made by the treaty of Nimwegen, in 1678 ; and in May 1794, it became the scene of contest between the Austrians and French, when several warm engagements took place, at the close of which the former army remained masters of the field. Its population is almost 4000, and it is about twelve miles nearly south-east of Mons.

BINCHESTER, a township in the parish of St. Mary Auckland, in the county of Durham, about a mile north-east from Bishops Auckland. It is the *Finovium* of Antoninus and the *Binnocum* of Ptolemy. It stands on the brow of an eminence rising from the west bank of the river Wear ; and from the constant washing of the stream parts of the foundation of the vallum, consisting of huge blocks of stone placed transversely, have been laid open. The manor house belongs to the Wren family, and is richly provided with Roman antiquities found on the station, such as intaglios, armour, coins, altars, sculptures, urns, seals, and lacrimatories. Much of the pottery is very choice, both in material and in execution ; and few spots in England have disclosed greater antiquarian treasures.

A paper concerning Binchester may be found in the seventh volume of the *Archæologia*.

BIND, *v.* { Goths. and A. S. *bindan* ; Dutch and
BINO, *n.* { Ger. *binden* ; Swe. *binda*.
B'ND, { To tie, to fasten, to knit, to connect,
B'ND, { To confine, to put into confinement,
under constraint or obligation. To constrain, to oblige.

REV.
CHESTER
BIND

— Sir mercy, my life you sasse it me,
Do not put vilany, fettered put i be.
In prison you me do, but would in *hendes bindes*,
I pray you it be so, for shame of my kynde.
R. Heavoe, p. 167.

Now with it may nat goodly be withstand
And is a thing so virtuous in kind
That would might to lose for to *be bound*
Sith as him selues let he may nat bind.
Chaucer. Triliter, book i. fol. 153.

And I perswade this wele tell to the death, *byndage* and by-taking into *hollid* men and wyemen.

Wicif. *Devis of Apostles*, chap. 23.
& I persecuted this way into the death *byndage* and delivryng into prison both men and wyemen.
Bible, 1551.

And unto this your fathers set their hiden & scales, making them selues to conspell the king to keep their contracts.
Dr. Harnes's Letter, fol. 89.

Well Jessica goe in,
Perhaps I will returne immediately ;
Doe as I bid you, shut doors after you, fast *bind* fast *bind*,
A posturie never stale in thistle mine.
Shakespeare. Merchant of Venice, fol. 170.

Even in those actions whereby as offence may be occasioned (though not given) clarity *binds* us to clear both our owne name, and the conscience of others.

Hall. Cent. Actor of the Rehearsers, fol. 939.

For he knows, that we have no strength but what he gives us ; and therefore, as he *binds* burdens upon our shoulders, so he gives us strength to bear them.
Taylor. Sermon xi. fol. 105.

The hunter seelyngs both his eyes, and *byndage* his [the Lyon's] legges strongly together, finally daunteth his fierceness, and maketh him obedient to his cruelties and tokens.

St. Thomas Elyot. The Governour, p. 157.

And likewise they did calculate that which might transcedde and be over the ioynters or *byndage* together of the rapid treisques.
Nicolas. Thersidius, fol. 76.

There grew by this a field of corn, high, ripe ; where reapers wrought,
And let thicke handfuls fall to earth ; for which, some other brought
Bands, and made sheaves. Three *binders* stood, and took the handfuls reapt.

From boys that gathered quickly up ; and by them earnestfuls kept.
Chapman. Hen. III., book 18.

There too be form'd the likeness of a field
Crowded with corn, in which the reapers tell'd
Each with a sharp tooth'd sickle in his hand.
Along the furrow here, the harvest fell
In frequent handfuls ; there, they bound the sheaves.

Three *binders* of the sheaves their sultry task
All piled industrious, and behind them boies
Attended, filling with the corn their arms,
And o'er'ring still their handfuls to be bound.

Cowper.

There goes through the whole length of it a spacious walk of the finest gravel, made to bind and unite so firmly, that it seems one continued stone.
Teller, No. 179.

The law, by which all creatures that are bound,
Binds man the lord of all.

Cowper. The Task, book i.

Where in the croft the most hay-rich stands,
The dextrous *binde* twists the *wooly bands*,
Across the stock his sharp-edg'd *engles guides*,
And the hard mass in many a *trous divide*.
Scott. Antheus Eclogue ii.

BIND-
WEED
—
BIN-
NACLE.

BINDWEED, *BLACK*, a name given to the *Polygonum Carolinense*.

BINFIELD, a village in Berkshire situated in the heart of Windsor Forest. On the side of the turnpike road from London is a small neat brick house, once the residence of Pope's father. Here much of the *Windsor Forest* was composed by the poet. Population, in 1821, 1057. Poor's rates, in 1803, nt 4s. 2070. 6s. A rectory in the gift of the crown.

BINGEN, a town in the grand duchy of Hesse, on the left bank of the Rhine, and near the borders of the Prussian dominions. The principal support of the place is the culture of a particular kind of wine called *scharlach*, and a trade by means of the river to Holland. The population is less than 3000. The waters of the Rhine being confined near this town by shelving rocks, form a narrow strait, near which is the dangerous whirlpool called *Bingerloch*. During the French revolution, Bingen was frequently a contested point, and was taken and retaken almost every year between 1792 and 1796. It was once a fortified place, but the fortifications were destroyed by Louis XIV. in 1689. They were renewed by order of Buonaparte when first Consul of France. Bingen is about 20 miles west of Mentz; lat. 49° 55' N. and long. 7° 48' E.

BINNACLE or **BITACLE**, (like many other sea terms, of unknown or doubtful origin) is used to denote the box in which the compass is placed for steering a ship.

It is common in the Navy, and in most ships steered by a wheel, to have two Binnacles, or one double Binnacle, for the convenience of the steersman, on either side of the wheel, but it is certainly a custom attended with bad consequences, particularly in the smaller vessels; for in these cases the compasses are necessarily so near together as to affect each others direction, and thereby to render the course of the ship doubtful and uncertain. To avoid this, sliding Binnacles are sometimes employed, but they have never been very generally adopted.

For day purposes, the form of the Binnacle is of no great importance, provided it be such that the man at the helm can obtain a clear view of the card in all requisite points: but in the night, it is of the greatest consequence that the card be distinctly seen, much ingenuity has accordingly been exercised in the construction of Binnacles and Binnacle lamps; one or two of the most important of which we shall endeavour to describe.

Those now in general use in the Navy, called Sir Home Popham's Binnacles, being formed agreeably to the instructions of that distinguished officer, consist of a square box, about 2 feet high, and 18 inches on the side, with a top in the form of the frustum of a square pyramid, the bottom of which fits accurately upon the top of the box. The four sides of the frustum are of plate glass, whereby the compass card, which is about level with the upper part of the square box, may be distinctly seen in the day time; and for the night, there are provided thin copper screens, which shut up those sides not necessary for the steersman's immediate purpose, and which at the same time assist to reflect the light of the lamp on the other side, strongly upon the card. The lamp itself is attached to one of these screens, a hole being cut in it just sufficient to admit what light is necessary. As there would be great liability of breaking these glass faces, the four edges

of the frustum are defended by strong wooden frames with projecting edges; and at top with a flat piece of wood that also projects considerably beyond the glass, which latter, by this means, is pretty well protected from injury. We have shown one of these Binnacles in fig. 1. Plate XIII. No. 2., and the lamp in fig. 2. the method of attaching which will be easily understood.

An improved ship's Binnacle is described by Mr. G. Preston of Wapping, in vol. xxi. of the *Transactions of the Society of Arts*. This has a cylindrical top, which encloses the lamp, and which gives a powerful light vertically on the compass, but is seen by an one except the man at the wheel. Fig. 3. is a representation of this Binnacle in perspective, as it stands on the deck of a vessel opposite the steering wheel; fig. 4. is a section of the box, containing the lamp and reflectors; AA, fig. 3. is a square box closed by a door in front, which is omitted in the drawing, to show the interior. This box is fixed down in a proper situation on the deck, and supported at a convenient height to view the compass card which it contains, the two sides being exactly parallel to the ship's keel. B is a shelf in the box, to support a board C, which exactly fits the box, but having its angles taken off to permit it to slide in and out more freely: it has a stem *a* of brass wire standing up from the centre of it, and terminating in a sharp point, on which the compass card is freely suspended; being then included within a circular hole made in the top of the box, and its divisions reading against a line called by seamen the *lubber line*, drawn on a piece of white paper seen plainly in the figure. The opening on the top of the box is surrounded by an octagonal lantern, which has glass panes in all its sides half way up from the bottom, to admit light in the day time; but at night these are closed by sliding shutters *a a*. The compass is seen through the glass *b*, which is placed at a proper inclination to command the view of the card: the lamp is situated in a circular box fitted into a ring F, at the top of the lantern frame; and has a dome G with a chimney *d*, to take off the smoke. The section, fig. 4. will explain the interior parts; III are the sides of a cylindrical box which fits into the ring F, fig. 3.: *ee* and *ff* are the sections of the two brass circles called the gimbals. HKK is a brass box which fits into the ring F, and has at its bottom a large plane convex lens KK, which concentrates the light of the lamp above, and throws it down on the card beneath. The lamp LL is just within the box; it consists of a deep copper hoop, forming the external surface, with a lid at the top, and at bottom half way down, which have each a hole through their centres, and may therefore be considered as rings; another hoop being soldered within these, forms a complete hollow ring in which the oil is contained, as shewn at LL fig. 4. this being filled in the tubes *gh*. The wick *i* is situated in a kind of spout which proceeds from the interior of the ring to its centre; and being very narrow, diminishes the light very little; for as shewn in the figure, the frame is made to project over the end of it, and then comes in the centre of the hole, that the lens KK may throw the light down with the greatest effect; and to increase this a reflector is added. M is a kind of conical chimney, which stands over the lamp and includes the light: the conical part *ll* of this is turned within, and well polished to

BIN-
NACLE.

BIN-
NACLE
—
BIO-
GRAPHER

reflect the light downwards. By this means the card is well illuminated, and if the shutters *a a* are put down, no light is shown which would be perceived by an enemy at sea; for the only aperture *b* directs the light upwards, and that in a direction where it will not fall on any part of the ship.

The lamp is easily trimmed or lighted by taking out the box from the ring at the top of the lantern; the lamp of course comes with it, and there is a hole on one side to give access to it: if it is to be filled with oil, the box is turned upside down, and the gimbal *c f* keeping the lamp horizontal, it may be filled or taken out, to clean the conical reflector, and the lens also, if they require it.

Gilbert's Double Binnacle Lamp. This is exhibited in our fig. 5. DEFG in the lantern and L the lamp; AA are two condensing lenses, and BB two others, so adjusted to these as to throw the light after being brought to a focus, upon the two mirrors MM, from which it is reflected strongly upon the two cards NS, NS; by a proper adjustment of the two lenses, the light is made to converge and diverge in any degree, and thereby to illuminate the card only. The contrast of this intense light with every thing else dark, renders the card so exceedingly bright, that in the darkest night the steersman sees it more distinctly than in the brightest day; at the same time not a single ray of light escapes that can be seen by an enemy. Messrs. W. and T. Gilbert have also a single Binnacle lamp upon precisely the same principles and possessing the same advantages.

BINOMINOUS, *bis, binus, two, and nomen, a name*; quasi *nomen, from nomen, name, to know.*

Having two names.

Expect not I should reckon up their several names, because daily increasing, and many of them are *beverisome*, as which, when they began to tire in sale, are quickened with a new name.

Fuller, Worthley, vol. ii. fol. 154.

BINOCULAR, *bis, binus, two, and oculus* (perhaps from *ὀφθαλμός*, *Doric pro ὀφθαλμία*, from *ὄφθαλμος*, to see.) Having two eyes. When applied to a telescope; —allowing or requiring the use of both eyes.

So that as most animals are *binocular*, *optidors* for the most part optoculular, and some *senocular*; so *him, &c.* are *multinocular*, having as many eyes as there are perforations in their cornea.

Derham, Phys. Theor. book viii. ch. iii. note n.

As in certain circumstances we invariably see one object appear double, so in others we as invariably see two objects unite into one; and, in appearance, lose their duplicity. This is evident in the appearance of the *binocular telescope*.

Rind's Inquiry, ch. vi. se. 13.

BIOBIO, a river of South America, in the kingdom of Chili, which rises in the Andes, and falls into the Pacific Ocean. It is two miles in breadth before it reaches the sea, and contains a great body of water.

BIOGRAD, a town of the Austrian Empire, in Dalmatia, and the former residence of the Kings of Croatia. It was destroyed in the wars between the Hungarians and Venetians; but has a good harbour at a little distance from the town, secured by several small islands opposite its mouth. It is considered as belonging to the county of Zara, and is nearly twenty miles south-east of the town of that name.

BIOGRAPHER, } From *bios, life*, and *γραφία, I write*.
BIOGRAPHY, }
BIOGRAPHICAL, } A writer of the lives of individuals.

The character of the author, that industrious and exact antiquary and biographer, Mr. Anthony Wood, is well known to the learned world. *Wood, Ath. Oxon. Biographia* is the Reader.

BIO-
GRAPHER
—
RUPES.

But in that he came so late thither as this author mentions, and stayed so long there as three years, which he afterwards mentions; and, as the biographical fry who follow have abridged out of him (yet they are all musicians, for he has presently appeared two years before that time amounts to, in the wars abroad).

Oliver, Life of Raleigh, vii.

His biographical writings teach philosophy, at once by precept and by example. His morals and his characters mutually explain and give force to each other. His sentiments of the duty of a biographer were peculiarly just and delicate.

Longhorn's Life of Pindar.

Those parallel circumstances and kindred images, to which we readily endorse our words, are, above all other writings; to be found in narratives of the lives of particular persons; and therefore, as species of writing seems more worthy of cultivation than biography, since none can be more delightful or more useful, none can more certainly enchain the heart by irresistible interest, or more widely diffuse instruction to every diversity of condition.

Johnson, Rambler, No. 40.

You cannot compare the history of the same events as delivered by any two historians, but you will meet with many circumstances which, though mentioned by one, are either wholly omitted, or differently related by the other; and this observation is peculiarly applicable to biographical writings.

Warton, Apology for Christianity.

BIPAPILLARIA, in *Zoology*, a genus in the second order of Lamarck's class *Fasciaria*, which may be denominated *Solidaria*. Generic character: body free, naked, ovate globose, and tailed; with two papillae at the superior extremity. The papillae conical, equal, perforate at the apex; three tentacles at each orifice. This name is given by Lamarck to an animal described and figured in Puvion's manuscripts found by him on the western coast of New Holland.

BIPARTITE, } *part, two, and partior, partitior, to be parted.*
 Shared, separated, divided into two parts.

The divine fate is also *bipartite*: some chiefs supporting God, both to decree and to do all things in us (evil as well as good) or by his immediate influence to determine all actions, and so make them alike necessary to us.

Cudworth, Intellectual System, pref. i.

By our *by-parted* crowns, of which

The mystery is mine,

By God, in whose my soul must pass,

And so in time may shine,

I pray thee.

Warner, Athens England, book iv.

BIPED, *Gr. δίπους*; Lat. *bipes*. *Bis, two, and pes, a foot*: is natural history as distinguished from quadruped. *Ἀνθρώπος ἐστὶ δίπους ἄρτερος*. *Homo est animal bipes, sine artibus*. Man is an animal, biped, unfathered. Such was Plato's definition. See *Diogenes Laertius in Vita Diogenis*.

BIPENNATED, *bis, two, and penna, a wing*. *Gr. Πεννίστος*, from *Πτερυγία*, I fly. Having two wings.

For the keeping the body steady, and upright in flight, it generally holds true (if I mistake not) that all bipennated insects have pines under the bladder parts of their wings, but such as have four wings or wings with elytra, none.

Derham, Phys. Theor. book viii. ch. iv.

BIPES, Pallas, *Cuv. Biped*. In *Zoology*, a genus of animals belonging to the family *Sciacordia*, order *Sauria*, class *Reptilia*.

Generic character: hind feet only visible; ears very distinct. This remarkable genus was first noticed by Pallas, who discovered it in the southern

BIPES.
— BIRD.

parts of Siberia, and it has since been adopted by Lacépède and Cuvier. It resembles generally a snake, but on closer inspection, two small moveable appendages are found, one on either side of the vent, in which Cuvier discovered on dissection an os femoris, Fibra and Fibula, with four metatarsal bones forming fingers, which however have no phalanges: he also noticed that though no anterior extremities were visible externally, yet there were clavicles and scapulae hidden under the skin. The following are the species:

B. Pallasi, Cloquet; *Lacerta Apoda*, Fall.; *Lacerta Apus*, Gmel.; *Skellapsuk* of the Natives; *Apodal Lizard*, Shaw; *Pallasian Biped*. This was the animal discovered by Pallas in Siberia: it measures about three feet in length; is of a pale ferruginous colour above, and pale yellowish brown below; has a deep furrow running along the sides: the scales are partly imbricated, partly verticillated and those on the tail slightly crenated; the tail is very long; the feet short and having but two toes. It is believed to be harmless.

B. Gronovii, Cloq.; *Agnis Bipes*, Lin.; *Biped Lizard*, Shaw; *Gronovian Biped*. About six inches long and not thicker than a goose quill; of a pale yellow colour, and each scale on the back spotted with brown; the foot round and not divided into toes; tail shorter than the body. Its country is not known, but it is figured in Seba's book under the name of *Serpens Pustilus et Nigratus*.

B. Lepidopus, Lacép.; *Scaly Footed Biped*. This animal is described by Lacépède in the *Annals of the French Museum*; it was brought from New Holland by Péron, and this was the species dissected by Cuvier; its feet have the appearance of two small oblong scaly plates; tail twice as long as the body; it has two lines of pores near the vent.

See Cuvier *Regne Animal*; *Dictionnaire des Sciences Naturelles*; Shaw's *General Zoology*.

BIRCH, } A. S. *birce*, *birce*; Dutch, *berke*; Ger. *Be'chen*. } *birke*, which Wachtel thinks is from the verb *brechen*, *splendore*, to be bright; so called from the brilliant whiteness of the bark. Pliny, l. 16. c. 18. speaks of the *mirabilis candor* of the birch. It showeth wonderful white, says Holland.

But how the fire was smok'd up on lights,
And eke the names how the trees lighted,
As oak, fir, birch.

Chaucer. *The Knights Tale*, v. 2921.

The curb, obedient to the borders will,
The birch for shafts, the willow for the mill.

Spenser. *Fairie Queene*, book i. can. 1.

Now, as fond fathers,
Having bound up the threatening twigs of birch,
O'erly to strike in their childrens sight,
For terror, not to use; in time the rod
More mock'd, than fear'd.

Shakespeare. *Measure for Measure*, fol. 63.

But though no more his brow severe, nor dread
Of birchen sceptre awes my tiger age,
A sterner tyrant rises to my view,
With deadliest weapon arm'd.

Jago. *Edgar-ill*, book III.

BIACR BAR, a bay in the gulf of Georgia, on the west coast of North America, which derives its name from the vast number of Birch trees that were found in its vicinity. The south-east part is bounded by almost perpendicular cliffs, but in other places the shores are bare, and the wooded heights at a distance from the coast, leave a low intervening tract.

BIRD, a.

BIRD; a.

BR'EDING,

BR'EDCATCHES,

BR'EDS,

BRUD-BOLTS,

BRUD-EYE,

BRUD-EYED,

BR'EDING-PIECE,

BRUD-LIKE,

BRUD-LIME,

BRUD-LIMED,

BRUD-LOOPS,

BRUD-SPELLING.

Ich wente fory wjde where, walkyng myn one
In a wyde wyldernesse, by a wode syde
Bisse of brides, byde me make,

Piers Plouhenn, p. 169.

The birds that hen left her song
While they have suffered cold fall strong
In withers grille, and deale to sight
Ben in May for sunne bright
So glad, that they show in singing
That in her bet is much liking
That they must singen and ben light.

Chaucer. *The Merchant of the River*, fol. 116.

These lovers know well enough, the valenculous mides of
may, which have a great delight in their own graces wherewith
they be caught like to the byrdes beguyleth the byrdes.

Piers. *Intrac. of Christian Women*, book i. ch. 14.

Thel should have lacked leisure to have separate the cymentines
and sweete spices from the bodye, seying they cleaved as fast thereto
as byrdes do.

The younger sort, come pyling on apace,
In whistles made of fine cutting wood,
Till they have caught the birds, for whom they byrded.
Gaucus. *Epd. to Steele*, fol. 61a.

No tree, whose branches did not brantly spring;
No branch, whereas a fine bird did not sit;
No bird, but did her shrill notes sweetly sing;
No song but did contain a sweetly ditty.
Spenser. *Fairie Queene*, book ii. can. 6.

JUL. 'Tis almost morning, I would have thee gone,
And yet so further then a woman's bird,
That lets it hop a little from his hand,
Like a poor prisoner in his twisted gyves,
And with a silken thread plucks it back againe,
So loving jealous of his liberty.
Shakespeare. *Romeo and Juliet*, fol. 60.

I do invite you to morrow morning to my house to breakfast
after we'll be birding together, I have a fine hawk for the bush.
Id. *Merry Wives*, fol. 31.

O that this young fellow,
Who, on my knowledge, is able to beat a man,
Should be bedded by this billed imagined boy,
Or fear his bird-bolts.
Manservant. *The Guardian*, act iii. sc. 1.

As Cupid took his bow and bolt,
Some birding sport to find,
He chased on a country swain,
Which was some woman's twin.
Lucertine. *Authors in Ellis*, III. 346.

ASA. 'Rud, 'in the horse-start out o' the brown studie.
CAR. Rather the bird-ty'd stroke, sir. Your observance is too
blunt, sir.
Bro. Jansen. *Cynthia's Revels*, act v. m. 4.

— The creeps up into the chimney.
MIST. FORN. There they alwaies var to, discharge their birding-
pieces: creeps up into the hill-hole.
Shakespeare. *Merry Wives*, fol. 54.

BIRD.

Anciently *bridae*; from the
A. S. *brædan* to broaden, to spread
abroad. So called from the in-
creased breadth, when the wings
are expanded or spread abroad.

BIRD.
—
BIRD-
CATCH-
ING.

For when I see, how they do mount on his,
Waving their outstretched wings at liberty;
Then do I think, how *bird-like* in a cage
My life I lead, and *grief* can never swage.

Mirror for Magistrates, fol. 653.

Now as touching *birdtime*, it is made of the berries of misanthropy,
gathered in harvest time before they are ripe; for if they should
taste still to take showers of rain, well might they thrive and
increase in ligneness, but their strength and virtue would be gone
else, for ever making any such *glow or birdtime* aforesaid.

Heliodor. Pliniv., l. fol. 497.

As there is a preparedness to good works, so there is a preparedness to evil; when the heart is thus *bird-lined*, then it cleaves to every thing it meets with.

Goodwin. A Christian's growth, part ii. ch. iii.

Sweet fellow-prisoners, 'twas a cruel art,
The first invention to restrain the wing,
To keep the inhabitants o' the air close captive,
That were created to sky freedom: surely
The merciless creature took his first light,
And prisoned their first models, from such *bird-jays*.

Shelley. The Bird in a Cage, act iv. sc. 1.

Another party followings the flight of *hybrids* (for the Frenchmen are above all other nations craning to *bird-spring*); with such slaughter of the barbarous nations peared into the coast of Sicronie, and reacted in Pannonie.

Arch. Goldyng. Justice, fol. 168.

BIRD-CATCHING.

There have been many excellent and ingenious methods invented for Bird-catching, the greater part of which are practised by day, but a few require the assistance of night.

Bst-fold-
ing.

Among the latter the principal are by bat-folding, or as it is sometimes called, bat-fowling, and by the use of a species of net called a *trammel* net. The act used for bat-folding, should be made of the strongest and finest twine, and is to be extended between two poles, at about ten feet long, tapering to a point at one end, the fine ends meeting at the top of the act. The larger ends are to be held by the person who takes the management of the net, who by stretching out his arms, is to keep the net extended to the utmost, opposite to the hedge, in which the Birds are supposed to be. Another of the party carries a *lastera*, which by means of a pole, he holds up at a short distance, behind the centre of the net. One or two others place themselves on the opposite side of the hedge, and by bending it with sticks disturb the Birds, which, being alarmed, fly towards the light, but are intercepted in their flight by the net, which is immediately folded upon them. Fifteen or twenty small Birds, such as sparrows, linnets, goldfinches, &c. are not unfrequently caught in this way by a single fold. This sport cannot be followed with much success, except when the nights are very dark, nor until very late in the autumn, when the trees having lost their leaves, the Birds are driven for shelter to the hollies, yews, hay-ricks, &c.

Trammel
nets.

Trammel nets are generally between thirty and forty yards long, and about five or six wide, and a light pole of the same length as the width of the net is fixed to each end in order to keep it extended.

During this storm, 'tis also observed, many sorts of birds flew into his ship, and the dove, that came among them, was look'd upon to presage the calm that ensued two days after.

Oldys. Life of Raleigh, cxxv.

Of birds, how each, according to her kind,
Proper materials for her nest can find,
And build a frame, which deepest thought in man
Would or surmise or imitate in vain?

Prior. Solomon, book i.

Intemperance and sensuality and feckly lusts do debase mens minds, they sink us down into sense, and give us to those low and inferior things like *birdtime*.

Tillotson. Sermon iv.

How oft your birds have undeserving bled,
Littered, or warbling through, or remaining dove,
Pleasant with gaily-glistening wings,
Or curly-mousting lark!

Warton. Ode on Shooting.

That government being so situated, as to have a large range of prospects, and as it were a *bird's eye* view of every thing, they might see distant dangers, and distant advantages, which were not so visible to those, who stood on the common level.

Burke. Letter to Thomas Burgh, Esq.

The persons who catch these birds [lightkeepers] make use of small trap-nets, without call-birds, and are considered as inferior in dignity to other *bird-catchers*, who will not rank with them.

Pennant. British Zoology, vol. ii. p. 325.

BIRD.
—
BIRD-
CATCH-
ING.

This net is then drawn by two men over the stubble, heaths, &c. the bottom being suffered to drag lightly on the ground; this rouses the Birds and causes them to flutter up against the act, which motion being felt by the men, the act is immediately dropped and the Birds are secured. This is the most destructive method of enticing Birds, and one which is seldom adopted, except by poachers, as it not only takes larks, fieldfares, &c. but also all other Birds that roost on the ground, such as snipes, woodcocks, quails, partridges, and grouse, the two last of which are taken in great numbers by the poachers, during the months of August and September. Sometimes a setter is used with a very small lantern fixed to its neck, by which means instead of dragging the whole field, the poachers are enabled to walk directly to the spot where the Birds lie, and then by drawing the centre of the net over the dog's back, and dropping it a few yards before him, they often take the whole covey at once.

In the day time Birds are taken principally by means of nets, sprigues, and Bird-line.

Clap nets, the operation of which is very similar to those last described, were formerly much used by sportsmen, but are now very seldom heard of. The net differed from that used at night, only as it was much shorter, and the parties instead of being on foot, were generally mounted. A dog having found the game, both the horsemen set off at a full gallop, passed the net over the dog's back, and dropped it as in the former method; but it is only at the commencement of the season, when the Birds lie well, that many are to be taken in this manner.

Larks may be taken in the day time by means of catching of a net, which should not exceed twelve yards in length.

Mode of
catching

BIRD-
CATCH-
ING.

length, nor three and a half in width, and which is to be held by two persons, in the same manner as the trammel net. But as larks seldom or ever lie so close as partridges, in order to prevent them from rising too soon, the following stratagem has been adopted: One of the sportsmen carries in his hand a live or staffed hawk, fixed to the end of a long stick, which as he runs with the net towards the larks, he holds up in the air before him as high as he can. At the sight of this the larks are so terrified, that they dare not move, for fear of attracting the notice of their supposed enemy, and the sportsmen have little or no difficulty in throwing the net over and securing them.

Bird-catch-
ing near
London.

In the suburbs of London (and particularly about Shoreditch) are several weavers and other tradesmen, who, during the months of October and March, get their livelihood by an ingenious, and we may say, a scientific method of Bird-catching, which is totally unknown in other parts of Great Britain. The reason of this trade being confined to so small a compass, is that there is no considerable sale for singing Birds except in the metropolis; and as the apparatus for this purpose is also heavy, and at the same time must be carried on a man's back, it prevents the Bird-catchers from going more than three or four miles distance from home. This method of Bird-catching must have been long practised, as it is brought to a most systematical perfection, and is attended with very considerable expense.

The nets are a most ingenious piece of mechanism, generally twelve yards and a half long, and two yards and a half wide; and no one on bare inspection, would imagine that a Bird, (who is so very quick in all his motions) could be caught by the nets flapping over each other, till he becomes eye-witness that the paller seldom fails.

The wild Birds *fly*, (as the Bird-catchers term it) chiefly during the month of October, and part of September and November, as the flight in March is much less considerable than that of Michaelmas. It is to be noted also that the several species of Birds of flight, do not make their appearance precisely at the same time, during the months of September, October, and November. The pipit (a small species of lark) for example, begins to *fly* about Michaelmas, and then the woodlark, linnet, goldfinch, chaffinch, greenfinch, and other Birds of flight succeed: all of which are not easily to be caught, or in any numbers, at any other time, and more particularly the pipit and the woodlark.

These Birds, during the Michaelmas and March flights, are chiefly on wing from day-break till noon, though there is afterwards a small flight from two till night; but this, however, is so inconsiderable, that the Bird-catchers always take up their nets at noon.

It may well deserve the attention of the naturalist, to consider whence these periodical flights of certain Birds can arise. As the ground, is ploughed during the months of October and March, for sowing the winter and lent corn, it should seem that they are thus supplied with a great profusion both of seeds and insects, which they cannot so easily procure at any other season.

It may not be improper to mention another circumstance in he observed during their sitting, viz. that they fly always against the wind; hence there is great contention among the Bird-catchers who shall gain that

point: if (for example) the wind is westerly, the Bird-catcher who lays his nets most to the east is always sure of catching every thing, provided his call-Birds are good. A gentle wind to the south-west generally produces the best sport. The Bird-catcher who is a substantial man and has a proper apparatus for this purpose generally carries with him five or six linnets, (of which more are caught than any singing Bird) two goldfinches, two greenfinches, a woodlark, a redpoll, a yellowhammer, titlark, and aberdare, and perhaps a half-finch; these are placed at small distances from the nets in little cages. He has besides what are called *flur-Birds*, which are placed within the nets, and are raised upon the *flur*, (a moveable perch, which the Bird-catcher can raise at pleasure by means of a long string fastened to it) and gently let down at the time the wild Bird approaches them. These generally consist of a linnet, a goldfinch, and a greenfinch, which are secured to the *flur* by what is called a brace, a contrivance which secures the Birds, without doing any injury to their plumage.

It having been found that some Birds are superior to others, one being more in song than another, Bird-catchers contrive that their *call-Birds* should moult before the usual time. They, therefore, in June or July, put them into a close box, under two or three folds of blankets, and leave their dung in the cage to raise a greater heat; in which state they continue, being perhaps examined but once a week to have fresh water. As for food, the air is so putrid, that they eat little during the whole state of confinement, which lasts about a month. The Birds frequently die under the operation: and hence the value of a *stopped Bird* rises greatly.

When the Bird hath thus prematurely moulted, he is in song whilst the wild Birds are out of song, and his note is louder and more piercing than that of a wild one; but it is not only in his note that he is altered, the plumage is equally improved. The black and yellow in the wings of the goldfinch, for example, become deeper and more vivid, and acquire a most beautiful gloss, which is not to be seen in the wild Bird. The bill, which in the latter is likewise black at the end, in the *stopped Bird* becomes white and more taper, as do its legs: in short there is as much difference between a wild and a *stopped Bird*, as there is between a horse which is kept in body clothes, or at grass.

When the Bird-catcher has laid his nets, he disposes of his *call-Birds* at proper intervals. Their sight and hearing infinitely excels that of the Bird-catcher. The instant that the wild Birds are perceived, notice is given by one to the rest of the *call-Birds*, as in hunting it is by the first hound that hits on the scent, to the rest of the pack. The *call-Birds* while the Bird is at a distance do not sing as a Bird does in a chamber; they invite the wild ones by what the Bird-catchers call *short jerks*, which when the Birds are good may be heard at a great distance. The ascendancy by this call or imitation is so great, that the wild Bird is stopped in its course of flight, and, if not already acquainted with the nets, alights boldly within twenty yards of perhaps three or four Bird-catchers, on a spot of which otherwise it would not have taken the least notice. Nay it frequently happens that if half a flock only is caught, the remaining half will immediately afterwards alight in the nets, and share the same fate;

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and should only one Bird escape, that Bird will suffer itself to be pulled at till it is caught, such a fascinating power have the *call-Birds*.

While we are on this subject of the *jerking* of Birds, we cannot omit mentioning, that the Bird-catchers frequently lay considerable wagers, whose *call-Birds* can *perk* the longest, as that determines the superiority. They place them opposite to each other, by an inch of candle, and the Bird who *jerks* the ofttest, before the candle is burnt out, wins the wager. We have been informed that there have been instances of a Bird's giving a hundred and seventy *jerks* in a quarter of an hour; and we have known a linnet, in such a trial, persevere in its emulation, till it swooned from the perch: thus as *Pliny* says of the nightingale, (in a passage which probably suggested to Strada his well known lines) *vieta morte finit sæpe vitam, spiritus prius deficiente quam cantu*. It may here be observed that Birds, when near each other or in sight seldom *perk* or sing. They either fight or use short or wheedling calls; the *jerking* of these *call-Birds*, therefore, face to face, is a most extraordinary instance of exultation for superiority in song. We must not omit mention of the bullfinch, (though it does not properly come under the title of a singing Bird or Bird of flight, as it does not often move further than from hedge to hedge) as the Bird sells well on account of its learning to whistle tunes, and sometimes flies over the fields where the larks are laid, the Bird-catchers have often a *call-Bird* to ensnare it, though most of them can imitate the call with their mouths. It is remarkable with regard to this Bird, that the female answers the purpose of a *call-Bird* as well as the male, which is not the case with any other Bird taken by the London Bird-catchers.

Clap nets are for the most part used only in catching Birds of flight, but larks are sometimes taken in them in considerable numbers, although the method used for decoying them is very different. The Bird-catcher makes use of one or two *star-Birds*, which of course are larks, but they are chiefly enticed into the nets, by means of bits of looking-glass, fixed in a piece of wood, and placed in the middle of the nets, and which are put in a quick whirling motion by a string which the larker commands. This attracts the larks, who will dart down out of the air, and pass within a foot of them, when the larker watching his opportunity, pulls at and very rarely misses them. This method is only used until the 14th of November, for the larks never frolic in the air, except in fine sunny weather, and of course cannot be inveigled into the snare. (*British Zoology*, vol. ii. *Appendix*, No. 4, by the Honourable Daines Barrington.)

Springs.

A great many larks are likewise taken in hard weather in the following manner: a line, one or two hundred yards in length, having a noose made of doubled horse hair, fixed at about every six inches, is to be pegged down to the ground, and a few white oats being sprinkled along the line, is thus left ready to take the Birds. The Bird-catcher must then station himself at such a distance from the springs as not to disturb the larks, and yet so near as to be able to see when any are caught; for they should be taken away as soon as five or six are hung, that their struggles may not frighten the others, which though they may be scared away from the place to which the larker comes, yet if the line is long, will nevertheless be

feeding at the opposite end, and the sport may thus be continued for a long time. By this and the former methods, about four thousand dozen larks are taken annually in the neighbourhood of Dunstable only, which supply the markets of the metropolis. But this bears no proportion to the immense numbers met with in Germany, where they are subject to an excise, which according to *Kewler* produces six thousand dollars, (about nine hundred pounds sterling) to the city of *Leipzig* yearly. The duty, a *groschen* (about 9d.) for every sixty Birds.

Great numbers of woodcocks and snipes are likewise taken in the fenny countries by means of springs. In places which they are observed to frequent, barriers formed of sticks, stones, &c. are constructed, with every here and there an opening, in which is fixed a horse-hair noose: in like manner a low fence made of the tops of brooms stuck in the ground, across the wet furrows of a field, or the runner from a stream which is not frozen, is sufficient to stay their progress, and make them seek from side to side for an opening through which they may pass, and there they seldom escape the noose that is set to secure them.

Great numbers of wheatears are taken in the neighbourhood of Eastbourne, in Sussex, in snarres made of horse hair, which are placed under a long turf; being very timid Birds, the motion of a cloud, or the appearance of a hawk, will drive them under the turf for shelter, where they are sure to run their heads into the springs, and be caught. The numbers annually consumed in the above district alone, amount annually to nearly 2000 dozen.

The most successful way of catching Birds by means Bird-lime.

of Bird-lime is the following. Take a large branch or bough of a tree, and after having trimmed it of all the leaves and superfluous shoots, cover it all over with Bird-lime, taking great care to lay it on properly, as, if it be too thick, the Birds will see it, and will not settle on the bough, and if it be too thin it will not hold them when they do. When the bough is well lined it must be fixed on a low dead hedge, near a rick-yard, hemp, or flax field, or in some other place, which is a favourite resort of small Birds; and the sportsman having concealed himself as near to the bough as he can, must imitate with his mouth, or with a Bird call, the notes which Birds make when they attack or call one another, but if he should not be expert at this, there is another method of attracting the Birds, which is perhaps better than calling them, and this is by means of a *stake*. A hawk of any species, or a bat make very good *stakes*, but an owl makes the best, for this Bird never shows itself by day light without being followed by all the small Birds that see it, so that if an owl is fastened in some conspicuous place, at a short distance from the lined bough, the Birds will collect round it in great numbers, and will be sure sooner or later to settle on the bough, and be taken. When one Bird is thus enticed and stuck fast, the sportsman must not run and take it away, as it will not be able to disengage itself, but will attract others by its fluttering, so that several may be taken at once. If a live owl is not to be obtained, a stuffed one will answer the purpose nearly as well. Some have used the image of an owl carved in wood, and painted in the natural colours, and it has been found to succeed very well.

The method of catching nightingales differs from

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BIRD.
Mode of
catching
nightin-
gales.

that practised with respect to our other singing Birds. The trap is on the same principle as the common cage trap, but more simple, being composed of a board and a purse net, which by means of an elastic spring, falls when the bait is seized in the same manner as the lid of the cage trap. The trap is placed, the sooner after sun-rise the better, on a bank or some conspicuous spot in the wood which the nightingales frequent. The Bird-catcher, at a short distance from the trap, imitates the note of the hen Bird. The cocks, which arrive in this country before the hens, fly with great impetuosity to the place whence the note proceeded, and seeing a meal worm rush instantly into the trap. But the greatest difficulty consists in rearing them. Their food must be the yolk of eggs, and raw beef scraped to a pulp; for unless it be quite free from skin or sinews, the Bird will not live. For the first fortnight they must be forced with this food, and if they live till they can feed themselves, the probability is that the Bird will thrive. They generally begin to sing in about a month or six weeks from this time. If the Bird is caught after the arrival of the hens, there is no chance of rearing it.

There are besides those already described, some very curious methods of catching Birds, which, from being entirely local, cannot be noticed under any of the foregoing heads.

Bird-catch-
ing in the
Feroe
Islands.

The method of Bird-catching which is practised by the inhabitants of the Feroe Islands, is so very strange and hazardous, that the description should by no means be omitted. The cliffs which contain the objects of their search, are often two hundred fathoms in height, and the Bird-catchers ply their art both from above and below. In the first case they are provided with a rope, eighty or a hundred fathoms in length; the fowler fastens one end round his waist and between his legs, recommends himself to the protection of the Almighty, and is lowered down by six others, who place a piece of timber on the edge of the rock to prevent the rope from wearing. They have besides a small line fastened to the body of the adventurer, by which he gives signals, that they may lower or raise him, or shift him from place to place. This last operation is attended with great danger, by the loosening of stones which often fall on his head, and would infallibly destroy him, was he not protected by a strong thick cap, but even this is sometimes found unequal to defend him from the larger fragments of the rock. The dexterity of the fowlers is amazing; they will place their feet against the front of the precipice, and during themselves some fathoms from it, with a cool eye will survey the places in which the birds nestle, and again spring from their haunts. At times they will again spring from the rock, and with a fowling net placed at the end of a staff, catch the old birds as they are flying to and from their retreats.

The fowling from below has its share of danger also. The parties go in a boat to the foot of the precipice, and contrive by means of poles to assist one of their best climbers in reaching the nearest ledge on which there is any footing. He then lets down a rope, by which he pulls up another of the boat's crew, the rest are drawn up in the same manner, and each is furnished with his rope and fowling-staff. They continue their progress upwards in the same manner, until they arrive at the region of Birds; and wander about the face of the cliff in search of them. They

then act in pairs, and in places where the Birds have nested beneath them, one permits himself to be lowered down by the other, depending entirely on the strength of his companion, who has to haul him up again; but it sometimes happens that the person above is overpowered by the weight, and both inevitably perish. They often pass seven or eight days in this tremendous employ, and lodge in the crannies which they find in the face of the precipice.

The natives of Mexico have a very singular method of catching the wild fowl and other aquatic Birds, which resort in such prodigious numbers to the lakes of that country. They collect a number of large gourds, which they throw into the lake, and there leave them to float upon the surface, in order that the fowl may be accustomed to see and approach them without fear. The Bird-catcher then hollows out a large gourd, and having cut some very small holes in it through which he may see and breathe, he puts it over his head and wades into the shallow parts of the lake, taking care never to show any part of his body above water. He then gradually approaches the fowl, and when near enough, gently pulls them under the water, one by one, and having killed them he puts them into a large bag which he carries with him. In this manner he soon fills his bag, as the ducks have no suspicion of what is going on among them, but imagining their companions to be only diving, they still continue to approach the gourd without fear.

BIRD ISLAND, in Zoology, one of the names given by the Staffordshire people to the *Gadus Lota* or *Barbot*.

BIRD CREEK, a name given to the *Prunus Padus*.

BIRD ISLAND, or MÔRÔ MÔRÔ, the Isle of Birds, as it is called by the natives of the Sandwich Islands, is a vast rock to the Southern Pacific Ocean, in lat. 23° 6' N. and long. 198° 8' E. first discovered in 1788, by the commander of a vessel, named the Prince of Wales, who called it Bird Island, from the numerous flocks of birds with which it was covered: the same obvious cause had, in like manner, suggested a name of the same import to the natives of the neighbouring islands. It is accessible only on the south-western side, the rest presenting a lofty, rugged face to the waves which bent against it with a tremendous surf. It appears to be little more than a dreary barren rock, with scarcely a single trace of vegetation, about three miles in circumference, and at the distance of 117 from Onehow, the nearest of the Sandwich Islands. (Vancouver's Voyages, v. p. 136.)

BIRD-LIME, a glutinous substance employed to catch birds, mice, and other vermin. The ancient mode of making it was from the berries of the mistletoe of the oak, which were boiled and pounded, and then strained. The common Bird-lime in England is made of the middle bark of holly, boiled for seven or eight hours till it becomes tender. When boiled sufficiently, it is strained off, and laid in masses in the earth, covered with stones, and left to ferment for two or three weeks. When thus changed into a kind of mucilage, it is taken from the pit, pounded in mortars till it becomes a paste, and then washed and kneaded in river water till it is freed from all extraneous matter. After being left in earthen vessels four or five days, to purify itself by fermentation, it is put up for use or as an article of commerce. This is the most common mode of preparing Bird-lime, although there are several other recipes, some persons using the young shoots of

BIRD.

BIRD.
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the common elder tree; others the second bark of the wild vine; and some a mixture of snails, slugs, and caterpillar-pods; but the best is produced from the bark of the prickly bolly, as before stated. When Bird-lime is about to be used, it should be heated, and the rods or twigs should be warmed before they are dipped into it. It loses its tenacious quality if long exposed to the air, but it may be rendered capable of sustaining the action of water by the following process: Wash a pound of common Bird-lime in spring water, till its hardness is destroyed; then pound it completely that its water may be entirely separated, and when dried, put it into an earthen pot with as much goose grease as will make it run. Add two

spoonfuls of strong vinegar, one of oil, and a small quantity of Venice turpentine: and boil the whole over a moderate fire, continually stirring it; it is then ready for use, and is the only kind that can be successfully used for snipes or other birds found in wet situations.

BIRD'S NEST, a name given to the *Onoclea Struthiopteris*.

BIRD OF PARADISE, in Zoology, the vulgar name of the genus *Paradisæa*.

BIRD PEPER, a name given to the *Capsicum Baccatum*.

BIRD TONOTA, a name given to the *Senecio Paludosus*, or Marsh Groundsel.

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BIRMAN EMPIRE.

THE BIRMAN EMPIRE, an Asiatic state of modern origin, important to Great Britain from its extent and proximity to her possessions in India, but of little note in ancient or general history, is likely, from the ill-judged and oppressive measures of its government, to be as ephemeral as other Asiatic monarchies have often been. Even within the last year, not a century since the establishment of the Empire, it was threatened with entire subversion by a combination of the neighbouring chiefs.

The Varians, Barmas, Maramas, Brimmar, or Miranmas, (a name which is commonly written Birma by English writers,) are the inhabitants of the country about Ava, (Ariava) on the banks of the Erawadi or Ava river. These different names are probably nothing more than so many modifications of the same sounds; and the last appears to be that which deserves preference, as the Barmans always call themselves Marama, or according to their liping, indistinct pronunciation, Myamma. They say they are descended from the people of Aracan, (Itak'heng or Rak'hain, pronounced by them Yak'hain,) called Mag'ha by the Musselmans in India; and this assertion is confirmed by the two languages, which are dialects closely allied to each other. Since, therefore, the banks of the Erawadi, are inhabited by the Barmans, properly so named, and that the country was formerly known in Europe under the name of Ava, (its ancient capital) the name now commonly used has been properly substituted for it. Ava itself is at present in ruins, and the Birman Empire comprehends many provinces which formed no part of the kingdoms named from that metropolis. The country of the Maramas or Barmas is central, and surrounded by provinces added to that empire by conquest: Aracan (Rak'hain) on the west; Pégù, Martaban, (Muttamā), Tenasserim, (Tenéngiar) on the south; Siam on the east and north; and Cassay, (K'hásá) on the north-west. The modern state is bounded on the north and west by the Chinese and British territories; on the south by the ocean; and by Siam on the east. Asam, which till within a very late period, was an independent state on its north-western frontier, has lately submitted to the arms of his Birman Majesty, and given him possession of the upper part of the Brahma-putra, as well as increased the common boundary between his

dominions and those of Great Britain. Allowance for the continual fluctuation of the boundaries, having been made, this empire may be said to extend from the 9th to the 26th degree of north latitude, and from the 92d to the 104th of east longitude; or rather more than 1000 miles in length, and 700 in breadth. Watered by copious streams, such as the Erawadi, (Arawati) Kéndwén, Ló-kiang, and Pégù; having many good harbours, and a rich fertile soil, this country is well calculated to maintain a flourishing and extensive commerce; its inhabitants are also free from those prejudices and restrictions which check the progress of those who profess the Braminical faith.

The whole country is more or less elevated, with the exception of the Delta formed by the mouths of the Erawadi. On the western side a chain of hills of considerable extent and elevation, inhabited by a tribe called K'hien, stretches from about 13° N. through nearly six degrees, almost due north and south, forming a part of the barrier between the two Peninsulas of India. To the east, another ridge, rising near the banks of the Erawadi, half way between Ava and B'hámb, on the Chinese frontier, runs southwards with a little inclination to the east, till it approaches the sea near Muttamā, or Martaban. This also has a considerable elevation, and was judged by Dr. Buchanan to have a perpendicular height of nearly 4 or 5000 feet, in the neighbourhood of Aramapura. There are also large tracts of hilly country on each side of the Mé-k'ínán (or Me-king) river; but these are probably beyond the present limits of the Birman territory. A third chain rises opposite to Old Ava, and runs nearly due north for a considerable distance, separating K'hásh Shán, (the Cussay of Major Rennell) from Mrelap Shán, or Siam. The north and north-eastern parts of the empire are mountainous, and from the magnitude of some of the rivers flowing through them, it is probable that those hills are branches of the Alpine heights in Tibet and Tartary.

The climate, as might be conjectured from the elevated level of the country, is much more moderate than that of the neighbouring regions; it is also extremely dry, which contributes not a little to render it healthy: but the air of the forests, as seems to be universally the case under the tropics, is filled with

Face of the
country.
Mountains.

Climate.

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pestilential vapours, and productive of great mortality among the woodcutters who inhabit them. In the upper parts of the empire also, the abrupt transition from one extreme of temperature to the other, has doubtless a very pernicious effect on all but the strongest constitutions. In the alluvial lands, near the mouths of the Erawadi, the climate approximates closely to that of Bengal, but is tempered by the sea breezes on one side, and the dry winds from the neighbouring hills on the other.

Rivers.

Among the many streams by which this country is watered, four, from their size and the length of their course, demand particular notice; and of these, two have already ceased to belong to the Burman territories. They are, 1. the Erawadi or Ava river; 2. the Sa-luén, (Lou or Thauluén); 3. the Mé-k'hwé, or River of Siam; and 4. the Mé-k'huan, (Maykung) or River of Cambodia. The last does not appear to have belonged for more than a few years to this empire, and even the third is now separated from it. 1. The Erawadi, or Arawadi, as its name is written in the Sanscrit language, might well be called Elephantine, which that name signifies, from its vast size, though it probably derives this title from the numerous herds of elephants which people the forests on its banks. It is called Kiang-na, or the Great Fishriver, by the Chinese. The Kempu, which rises about lat. 32° 30' N. in the mountains of Chinese Tartary, appears to be the same river; after flowing in a southerly course for nearly five degrees it enters the Burman territory, receives a branch of the Brahma-putra, and proceeds to the south-east till it joins the river from Chü-dzong, in about the 26th degree of north latitude. A little below Avn it receives another stream of considerable magnitude, the K'hien-dwén, which rises in the lower range of mountains on the confines of Assam, nearly in lat. 25° N. The united stream flows from the point of junction, at first west, and then bends round to the south, running in a south and easterly direction, till within 130 geographical miles from the sea it comes into the alluvial land, and forms a Delta, the basis of which between Sirán (Syrian in the maps) and the western mountains of Môdén, is about 110 geographical miles. This mighty stream rivals the Ganges in breadth and depth of water, and is little, if at all, inferior to it in the length of its course. This river, like all great streams rising from mountainous regions in tropical countries, is subject to periodical inundations. The melting of the winter snows in the elevated tracts from which the Erawadi winds down into the lower country near the sea, increases its volume in the hot months of summer, to an extraordinary degree; and it then passes beyond its usual bounds, and fertilizes the neighbouring country which is rarely refreshed by showers. Its current is extremely powerful, but is checked by the south-west monsoon, and it rises and subsides several times during the prevalence of those winds. 2. The Sa-luén, the second river in this empire, though rapid and considerable, is by no means equal to the Erawadi. It is called Lá-kyang in the Chinese province of Yün-nán, and Nü-kiang in Tibet, from the mountains of which it rises, considerably to the north-west of the Erawadi. It runs through the kingdom of Pí-gú, or Pú-gú, and falls into the sea at Mutamh or Martaban, one of the principal cities of that kingdom. 3. The Mé-k'hwé, or River of Siam, flowing through Yüdra-pri, (the

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Yuthia of our older maps,) though a very large stream, is not equal to either of the former. It rises in a mountainous tract of country, in about lat. 26. occupied by the Lawas, the Laos or the Portuguese, and is connected by a channel, called the Anan, with the Great Mé-k'huan. Not far to the south of the point where it passes the Siamese boundary, it divides into a number of channels according to some maps, but this seems to be an error; the more so as its connection with the Mé-k'huan is not therein noticed. 4. The Mé-k'huan rises like most of its sister waters in the Tatarian mountains, not very far to the east of the Nü-kiang, or Sa-luén; it bends southward, after having run for a small distance to the east. It is called Kyü-long and Mé-kong by the Chinese and Tartars; and near its mouth, Japanese river, by modern navigators. It fertilizes the territory of Cambodia, or Yüdra-shán, and forms an alluvial Delta before it discharges its waters into the Chinese Sea.

Soil and
Produce.

The extensive line of coast which forms the southern boundary of this empire, offers several convenient ports and secure places for anchorage; particularly between the Náf river, which separates Chittagong, (Chátgan) from Aracan, and to the southward of the Mergoi archipelago, and especially the harbours of Negrais and Rang-un; but arts and industry can never flourish under such a form of government as that at present established in this country; and according to the latest accounts, the number and prosperity of its inhabitants have been considerably diminished since it was visited by Colonel Symes in 1795. The soil of the valleys is highly productive; grain, vegetables, and all the common tropical productions are of an excellent quality, and raised in large quantities. Tea, of an inferior kind, is found in the north-eastern provinces; and almost inexhaustible forests of teak make no small addition to the national wealth of Avn: its mountains also produce a variety of large timber trees, and in the northern districts, abundance of fire, which are not held in any esteem by the Burmans, except for the turpentine which they furnish. Near Bodwén, on the confines of China, there are mines of gold, silver, and copper. Not far from the banks of the Erawadi, to the north-east of Arann-pura, are the principal ruby mines in the empire, perhaps the largest in the world. Sapphires and other precious stones are also found; and the less valuable metals, such as iron, tin, lead, antimony, arsenic, sulphur, &c. are met with in great abundance. Gold dust is collected from the beds of many rivers; but diamonds and emeralds do not appear to have been found in any part of the empire. Petroleum is the produce of the celebrated wells, near Ráian-gong or Yanangán, in lat. 20° 26' N. and long. 94° 45' E. where it is found at the depth of 90 or 100 cubits under beds of coal, or argillaceous schistus. The oil appears to possess all the properties of the coal tar, extracted from that mineral by the ingenious process of Lord Dundonald.

In the northern and eastern provinces the principal trade of the Burman Empire is carried on with the Chinese of Yün-nán. Cotton, brown for nanken, and white for other cloths, is the principal export; and it is carried by water, on the Erawadi as far as Báimá, where a mart is held by the Chinese merchants, who furnish the Burmans with raw and wrought

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silks, velvets, gold leaf, preserves, paper, and some articles of hardware. They take, in return, besides the cotton already mentioned, amber, ivory, precious stones, betel nut, and the edible birds-nests brought from the eastern archipelago. The same river, which is so conveniently situated for this branch of commerce, is also the channel through which most of the other foreign articles used to the empire are introduced. Broad cloth, and some cutlery from Europe; muslins and silk handkerchiefs from Bengal, together with china and glass, are the leading objects. Silver, lac, and precious stones are exported in small quantities. Timber, principally teak, forms the most important article in the commerce between Ava and the British dominions in Asia. The quantity imported into Calcutta and Madras, in 1793, was valued at £200,000. As all the teak forests are the exclusive property of the royal family, the trade is completely monopolized, and the prices are liable to the sudden rise which such restrictions will sometimes occasion. In 1812 the Shindein teak planks were sold for three times the sum that had been demanded a few years before. Ships also are built on speculation in this country, and sent for sale to different parts of India. The currency consists solely of small pieces of silver and lead, estimated by their weight; bankers, therefore, or rather money changers, are indispensable in all commercial transactions. The piece of silver most frequently met with, weighs 10½wt. and 10½gr. and is called fakal by foreigners. The trade in bullion, like most other lucrative branches, is a royal monopoly; so that the currency is usually raised above its real value, and the actual prices of the necessaries of life are commonly almost 300 per cent. higher in the capital than on the coast. It is remarkable that among the articles, the exportation of which is strictly prohibited, silver and women are expressly mentioned.

Govern-
ment.

The government of Ava is a complete specimen of oriental despotism in its least attractive form. Its sovereigns ape that vain and arrogant assumption of paramount authority which is one of the distinguishing characteristics of his neighbour, the Emperor of China. Like the latter, he is addressed by the most extravagant titles, as well as approached by the most humiliating prostrations. His officers of state are created solely by his authority, and nothing like hereditary rank is known beyond the royal family. The ministers of state are called wangs, or bearers of horthens, just as the vezirs are called kûl, or slaves, by the Turks and Persians. In case of a death or dismissal, their dignities and emoluments revert to the crown. Their badge of office is a chain; but it must be observed that as the King himself wears the largest in his dominions, this cannot be considered by them as a mark of slavery. The most minute etiquette is observed in all transactions with the court; and in common life external forms are scrupulously attended to, even by the lower orders; for distinctions of rank, though not hereditary, are carried down through every gradation, and indicated by almost every article of use or ornament, as well as by the peculiar terms in which every individual must be addressed.

Revenues.

The revenue of the Emperor is derived not only from the royal monopolies, mines, domains, duties, and other taxes, but his ministers, and in short, all persons in office, are expected to pay for their dignities by large and frequent offerings, of whatsoever they

think sufficiently valuable to be accepted by his imperial majesty. Extortion and oppression are the unavoidable consequences of such a system, and nowhere are they practised with a greater chance of impunity than in this empire. With regard to the acknowledged revenues of the crown, a tenth of all the internal produce, and a tenth of all imported goods, is levied as the ordinary demod of the sovereign. At times, the most arbitrary methods are resorted to, for the purpose of replenishing the treasury. In 1812, gambling and drinking were encouraged in order to augment the duties levied on spirits and games of chance; though they had been previously punished as capital crimes; and might again, at the nod of the despot, be immediately subjected to the same penalty. The same grovelling and mistaken policy as prevails, in different degrees, in all Asiatic courts, is here followed to its utmost extent. Scarcely any payments in specie are made by the government; so that almost the whole of the treasures, which enter the exchequer, are hoarded up there, never to see the light again till some pressing necessity squeezes them from the sovereign against his will, or what is more probable, some fresh revolution throws them into the hands of a daring and needy adventurer.

The Burman army consists of occasional levies and a small permanent force of a very inferior description; some undisciplined native Christians and renegades, who act as artillery men; an inconsiderable body of cavalry, and about 3000 infantry; as ill armed and equipped as they are undisciplined. The levies are easily raised on the spot of the moment, as every man is liable to be called on for military service, and several of the great proprietors of land hold their estates on military tenure. It is supposed that the largest armies ever assembled by the Burmans have not exceeded 60,000 men, though the numbers of that which lately conquered Assam, were much more highly rated in the public accounts. This, however, was probably an exaggeration. The infantry are armed with swords and muskets, the cavalry with a spear. The latter are all natives of the mountains of K'hâsi, (Cassay, to the east of Tipurat, Bengal.) Their horses are small and not entire, as is customary with other Orientals. The fleet of war-boats carries from forty to fifty rowers each, armed with a sword and a lance. These boats, 500 in number, form a considerable part of the Burman force; each carries thirty soldiers armed with muskets, and a piece of ordnance in the prow.

The population of the Burman Empire is extremely fluctuating. The means of subsistence and materials for a habitable abode, are so easily procured in tropical countries, that the lower orders of inhabitants have a greater facility of withdrawing from oppression than in colder regions less favoured by nature; hence the large and frequent emigrations into the neighbouring states, which occur in different parts of Asia. Hence likewise the numbers who have, within the last twenty years, passed the eastern frontier of Bengal, and established themselves in any places which they found unoccupied. The Burman territories were said, in 1795, to contain 8000 towns and villages, and the whole number of the people was estimated at 17,000,000 by Colonel Symes; but a few years afterwards, that estimate was reduced to 8,000,000 by Captain Cox; and in 1809, even the latter number appeared greatly to exceed the truth. Many large

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towns had been reduced to paltry villages, and even the banks of the Erawadi had been abandoned by most of their inhabitants. Ruins, silence, and solitude, had even in the neighbourhood of the capital, replaced the crowded villages and fleets of trading boats which so lately showed the resources and industry of the people. Many of these wretched beings were dragged from their homes and publicly sold, to satisfy the exorbitant demands of the government; while the members of the British embassy were continually solicited to purchase children whose mothers had no means of supporting them, and whose fathers had been forced to join the imperial army. The oppressive mode of raising these levies, was indeed one of the principal causes of the deplorable condition to which this empire had then been reduced. Rebellion, in different districts, was the necessary consequence of such a state of things: and it, of course, materially increased the horrors which every where prevailed. Captain Canning, the Ambassador to the court of Ava, at that period, was informed that the number of registered houses did not exceed 400,000, which would not give a population of 3,000,000, for a country which could easily maintain more than 30,000,000 of inhabitants.

Manners.

In their national character the natives of this country are the very reverse of their neighbours on the banks of the Ganges. They are active, inquisitive, passionate, and impatient. Their women are not secluded as in most parts of Asia, but are nevertheless kept in a state of degradation, and treated with little delicacy or humanity. They are, however, industrious, and are kept in constant employment, which contributes a good deal to that fidelity to their husbands for which they are remarkable. The sale of women is commonly and openly practised, as might be inferred from the prohibition of the importation of them already mentioned. In make, features, and complexion, the Burmese approach more nearly to their north-eastern than to their western neighbours. They pluck not their beards like the Chinese, and blacken their teeth and eyelids like the Hindûs. They are coarse and uncleanly in their diet, and are fond of animal food, notwithstanding the prohibitions of their law. Their houses are generally raised three or four feet from the ground, and built of bamboos and mats; and few are allowed by their rigorous sumptuary laws, to indulge in the luxury of lacerating or gilding the pillars of their abode. They do not contract marriages till the parties have attained the age of puberty; and are restricted to one wife; but concubinage is allowed with little or no limitation. They burn their dead; and their widows are decently provided for by law; as they are followers of Budd'hâ their religious rites and usages will be more fully detailed in the articles BUDD'HÂ, and BUDD'HISM. The distinctions of rank, as has been before remarked, are most scrupulously observed. In speaking of the King they always use the epithet "golden;" and say that "such intelligence has reached the golden ear;" "such an odour is fit for the golden nostrils;" and few are the great men who are indulged with the external use of that showy metal, except in a very limited degree. It is thought so much beneath the dignity of a grandee to be in the same vehicle with common boatmen, that persons of distinction, when travelling by water, have their vessels towed by war-boats; and on the same principle of seclusion from persons of inferior rank, they have

houses built for their use in the places where they mean to stop. These houses, of course, are of a very frail texture, and merely temporary buildings of rushes and bamboos. The art of masonry which, as appears from the ancient temples, once flourished among the Burmans, is now almost entirely lost.

The original codes of Asia seem all to have been religious more properly than civil, it is difficult therefore to separate the account of their laws from that of their religion; and the spirit and general character of the Burman code will be best developed in an account of the system and institutions of Budd'hâ. The institutes of Menu (adopted perhaps in modern times) are the foundation of their jurisprudence; and their law books, like those of the Chinese, provide specific punishments for the most minute, as well as the most flagrant delinquencies. The trial by ordeal is one of the Hindû absurdities which they retain; and the gross language of the laws respecting women shew in what a degraded humiliating position that part of the human race is placed among these nations. The provision made by law for the family of a person dying intestate, is not inequitable. Three-fourths of his property are assigned to his children born in wedlock, and the remainder to his widow. The Burman laws are praised by Colonel Symes as "pregnant with sound morality;" but subsequent inquiries have considerably qualified this commendation; and, after all, it matters little what the merit of the code may be, where the will of the sovereign is entirely unfettered.

These laws were originally written in the Pali, or Bâli, Language, the sacred language of all the nations between India and China. It is nothing more than a dialect of the Sanscrit, formed by the same rules of contraction and substitution as prevailed in other Prâkrits, or deviations from the same stock; and any one possessed of a sufficient knowledge of the parent language, might, by attention to those rules, easily comprehend a text in Pali. The common dialect of this people, however, differs essentially from the Pali, and is one of the links between the monosyllabic and polysyllabic languages, or those of India and China. It appears to have been originally purely monosyllabic, but has borrowed freely from the Pali; and has formed many polysyllables from its monosyllabic roots, in imitation of that language. It has no inflections, and depends almost entirely on juxtaposition for the relative value of its words. It abounds in terms expressive of rank and dignity, and has peculiar words and phrases exclusively appropriated to indicate the respective rank of the speaker and the person whom he addresses. In all these points of peculiarity and structure it bears a strong analogy to the other Indo-Chinese languages, though it does not appear to have a decided affinity with any of the neighbouring dialects, except that of Rak'hâing or Arakan. To the east of that country also the Yô, and the inhabitants of the coast of Tançarini or Tanasserim, speak peculiar dialects somewhat differing from the language of the central provinces. The character in which these languages are written, is probably derived from the square or ancient Pali, which exactly corresponds with the Dêva-nâgari in its arrangement, and very nearly in the power of the particular letters; and it bears, in point of form, a considerable resemblance to the Canara, Sing'halâ, and Telinga alphabets. It has also

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a property peculiar to itself; that of expressing the acute and grave accent of the vowels, and possesses a set of terminations in a sort of semi-consonants, not found, we believe, in any other class of languages. Besides these dialects, several other languages, radically distant from them, but belonging for the most part to the Indo-Chinese family, are used in the remoter provinces of the Birman Empire. That of the Thay-jhay, or Thay-yay, commonly called the Siamese, is the most remarkable, and some account of it and its sister dialects will be given under the head of SIAM. A grammar of this language, the first we believe ever compiled by any European, was lately presented to the Asiatic Society of Calcutta by a British officer stationed at Saccapour (Sing-ha-puri).

Literature.

The literature of the Birman possesses nothing of a scientific or philosophical character worthy of notice; but in divinity, ethics, law, medicine, poetry, history, and romance they have many favourite compositions, which are read and recited by persons of all ranks; for they are not shackled like the Hindús by distinctions of caste, nor have they the same contempt for the literary productions of other nations. Elementary knowledge also is very widely diffused. The Royal Library at Amara-pura, the modern Capital of Ava, when visited by Colonel Symes, contained a surprising number of chests, said to be filled with books, and arranged according to their subjects; the contents of each chest being written on the lid in letters of gold. The Theological department was more copious than any other; as must indeed be the case, since almost all the moral and scientific learning of the Birman forms a part of their Theology.

Science.

Their Astronomy and Geography for example are closely connected with their religious traditions, and are in fact similar to those of the Hindús. Thus the Jaba-diba, or state of Beatitude, described in their sacred books, is evidently the Jambu-dwipa of the Purānas; and the figures of the constellations, given by Dr. Hamilton, in the *Asiatic Researches* (vi. 196.) are as visibly derived from the Hindú systems of Astronomy. Their year has twelve months, of twenty-nine and thirty days alternately, and is rectified by an intercalation every third year. Their calculation from the new to the full moon is progressive; for the remainder of the month, retrogressive. Their week, like that of the Hindús, is divided into seven days, and the commencement of their era corresponds pretty nearly with A. D. 638; it is consequently considerably more modern than either of those commonly used in India.

The white
elephant.

One of the most singular and absurd superstitions by which human nature has been disgraced, is the veneration paid in this country to a white elephant—who is considered as the second personage in the empire, ranks before any of the royal family except the sovereign, has a regular court, ministers, secretaries, &c. and is lodged in a splendid palace connected by a long gallery with the royal residence. A black velvet curtain embossed with gold, screens this august beast from vulgar eyes, and his abode is as brilliant as gilding can make it. He has a bed covered with crimson silk, and trappings richly adorned with gold and precious stones. A complete service of gold, including betel boxes, spitting-pots, and we may presume pipes, though the historians of Ava have not mentioned those important articles, are

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Injuries indispensable to so distinguished a quadruped; but like many other royal personages, he is doomed to live in a splendid prison, and is chained by silver chains and golden fetters to the pillars of his palace. Captain Canning, the British Envoy to the court of Amara-pura in 1810, was admitted to the sacred presence, and saw nothing but a diminutive, sandy-coloured beast, disfigured by a species of leprosy, and apparently little gratified by the humility of his attendants, who at the threshold of the apartment bowed their heads down to the ground before him.

The principal towns of the Birman Empire are Chief Towns Amara-pura, the Capital; Chagré or Jikknaing, Paghán, Yanangbérin, Peingl, Rang-un, and Persaim. The province of Aracan, which is likely to prove a more permanent part of the empire than its eastern conquests, deserves some further notice in this place. Of PEOW, SIAM, and the neighbouring provinces, the reader will find some account under those heads; and it is possible that, in another year or two, we shall be in possession of better materials respecting those countries than any hitherto published, as an embassy, lately sent out by the Bengal government, is now, we believe, resident in that country.

Amara-pura
poors.

Amara-pura (the immortal city) the modern Capital, in lat. 21° 55' N. and long. 96° 7' E. is placed on the shore of a large and deep lake, seven miles long and one and a half broad. In the rainy season the ground on which the city stands forms a peninsula, between the river and the lake, which is then covered with boats and presents a lively and amusing scene. The fort, which protects the place, is an exact square of about 72,000 square feet; it has a square bastion at each angle, and twelve gates, four large and eight small. The walls and out-works are strongly built, and have cannon placed at regular intervals; but, though strong for an Asiatic fortress, it is inadequate to resist any European force. Its ditch is wide and deep, and the waters of the lake come up to its southern side in the wet season, but that would probably only render it more open to attack from a naval armament. Very few houses are formed of any material except wood, and most have pots of water on the roof as a precaution in case of fire, a sure proof of the frequency of conflagrations. Splendour is seen externally no where but in the temples. Their roofs are generally gilt both within and without, and the gold is believed to be remarkably pure from the length of time during which it preserves its brightness. The number of houses was estimated at 30,000, but the whole was burnt down in 1810. The police is regulated by four Mévras or Viceroys, who hear causes and make a report to the Loti or Council of State. Lawyers regularly appointed are allowed to plead before that tribunal. Amara-pura was founded in 1783, by Mindaraj-pri, at about four miles to the east of Ava, the ancient Capital, and has since been removed seven miles further up the stream. The population was estimated at 175,000 in the beginning of the present century, but does not perhaps amount to half that number now. Cities so constructed and so governed, are more fluctuating and ephemeral than mere hamlets in Europe.

Engwa or Ava, as it has been called by former Aingwa, travellers, is four miles to the west of Amara-pura in lat. 21° 51' N. and long. 95° 58' E. It is enclosed by a wall thirty feet in height, with a broad and deep

Aingwa,
Ava.

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ditch. The area occupied by the lower town, for the city is divided into two distinct parts, is about four miles in circumference. The upper town or fort is only one mile in circuit; but the fortifications were mouldering away several years ago. The houses were all deserted on the foundation of the new Capital, to which their slight and portable materials were easily conveyed: but the temples, being sacred and still attest the piety and magnificence of the former sovereigns of Ava. That of Logathero-pra is adorned with a statue of Gautama (Buddha) in the usual sitting posture, nearly twenty-four feet in height, and ten across the breast. It is believed to be formed from a single block of marble, and is much too large to have been introduced into the temple, which must have been built to cover it. The temple of Shue-gangh-pra, within the fort, gives a peculiar sanctity to the oaths taken within its walls; it is the place therefore where all oaths of allegiance are administered: there are also a vast number more of these sacred buildings which serve to shew what Ava once was.

Chagong.

Chagong, in lat. $21^{\circ} 54' N.$ and long. $96^{\circ} E.$ is the principal cotton market in the empire. After being cleaned the cotton wool is conveyed, on the Erawadi, to Kwan-tong, on the Chinese frontiers. The voyage is performed in thirty or forty days. Chagong is situated in a beautiful and healthy country, and was, for that reason, made the royal residence by the second prince of the present dynasty. A quarry of alabaster in its neighbourhood has also rendered it the principal place for the manufacture of idols, and perhaps given celebrity to its numerous temples. A smaller town, not far from it, called Caicoc-zeh, is entirely inhabited by statues, whose sole business is the fabrication of images of the holy Gaudma. Their works vary in size and price, from gigantic to dwarfish dimensions, and from thirteen poulds sterling to as many shillings. Rackets, from twelve to twenty feet in length, and nine or ten inches in diameter, are manufactured in the same part of the kingdom. The exhibition of fire-works, as is well known, is a favourite amusement with the Chinese, and has been communicated by them to their neighbours the Burmans.

Pagahm.

Pagahm or Pagahem, on the eastern bank of the Erawadi, in lat. $21^{\circ} 9' N.$ long. $94^{\circ} 35' E.$ in its flourishing days contained more temples than any man could count, say the Burmans. It was then the Capital of the country; but it was little more than a mass of ruins when visited by Colonel Symes. Its numerous temples, in a style of architecture differing from that which is common in other parts of the empire, give a high idea of the power of these sovereigns under whose protection Pagahm flourished. It is believed by the Burmans to have been abandoned 500 years ago, in consequence of a warning from heaven. Its desolation appeared to have been nearly completed when Captain Caning saw it in 1809, and its manufacture of lacquer ware was reduced to almost nothing.

Yanaag-
boon or
Raisan-
ghong.

Yanaagum or Rénan-gong, on the left bank of the Erawadi, in lat. $20^{\circ} 28' N.$ and long. $94^{\circ} 30' E.$ is only five miles to the west of the celebrated pits producing petroleum. They are more than 500 in number, near to each other, generally four feet square and lined with timber. The oil is drawn up in an iron

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pot, which is emptied into a cistern, from whence the water is drawn off by a hole in the bottom. The soil, in which this native bitumen is found, consists of sandy loam mixed with quartzose and silicious fragments, soft sandstone with thin horizontal strata of iron ore, talc, and indurated clay at intervals, and lastly blue argillaceous earth impregnated with bitumen at the depth of about 100 feet. This stratum is gradually converted into scabius and succeeded by coal. Below the latter the oil is found, commonly at the depth of 150 feet. It is of a dingy green and fragrant fluid when first drawn up, but loses its fluidity even in a moderate temperature. The wells are said to be inexhaustible, and the oil they produce is used for lamps, coating timbers, and medical purposes in cutaneous and rheumatic disorders. The average produce of each well appears, from information obtained by Captain Cox, to be 783 hogsheds, or 49,957 gallons per annum; and as there are 520 wells registered by government, the gross amount of the whole annual produce will be 412,560 hogsheds, worth, on the spot, 869,737 siccah rupees (£111,212).

Peing, on the west side of the Erawadi, in lat. 18° Peinglee.

31' N. long. $94^{\circ} 50' E.$ It is in the neighbourhood of the forests whence the teak timber (*Tectona grandis*) is procured, and exported in such large quantities to our Indian territories. These woods clothe the western mountains, at no great distance from the river; the trees are felled in the dry season, and carried down by the stream when the monsoon has set in. Ships of 400 tons burthen are also built at this place, though it is 150 miles above Rang-ún, which is a clear indication of the vast size of the Erawadi.

Rang-ún, the principal seaport in the Burman Kingdom.

Empire, at the mouth of the Erawadi, and in lat. $16^{\circ} 47' N.$ long. $96^{\circ} 9' E.$ possesses great advantages for maritime commerce. The entrance of the river is more commodious than that of the Ganges. The town, extending about a mile along the banks of the river, contained about 5000 houses in 1795, and only 1500 in 1812; and its trade had been reduced in the same proportion. In 1812, the apprehension of an attack from a British cruiser of twenty guns, threw the government into the utmost confusion; and, in fact, almost all the large towns on the coast might be easily reduced by a small squadron.

Tang-d, called Tongho by the more modern, and Tongho.

Tangu by the older writers, is the name of a district and fortress in lat. $18^{\circ} 50' N.$ and long. $96^{\circ} 40' E.$ It is situated on the river Pann-lun, or Zittaung, (Sitang) and is considered by the Burmans as one of the strongest places in their empire. It is usually governed by one of the King's sons, who has the title of Tang-d-ti-kyen, who has, however, no authority independent of the sovereign. The present town is at some distance to the north-east of the old city, which stood close to the junction of the Pabé and K'hahm. A manufacture of cotton cloth, and the production of the heat betel nut, (*Piper betle*) render Tang-d remarkable; and its inhabitants are famous for their licentiousness, ferocity, and dishonesty.

Prin, Pri, or Pré, called Prom by the older writers, on the east side of the Erawadi, in lat. $18^{\circ} 50' N.$ and long. $95^{\circ} E.$ was originally the south-western frontier town of the kingdom of Ava. The name Peayee in the common maps, is the same word *Pyé*, spelled

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Syrian.

Persian.

according to the ordinary Barman pronunciation, by which *y* is substituted for *r*. This place was the residence of the King's fourth son in 1795, and was very flourishing; but in 1809, it was reduced to a population of 1000 souls, and had only 40 yards for boat-building instead of the 200 which had before been in active employment. In 1840 it was totally reduced to ashes; a misfortune of frequent occurrence in this country, where the towns are composed of such combustible materials.

Syrian and Persian are well known to Europeans, as having long had British factories, and being the principal places at which the trade between our Indian territories and Ava was carried on. The first, called Syrian by some writers, and San-lien by the natives, is close to Kang-un, in lat. 16° 49' N. and long. 96° 17' E. The British factory maintained there during the early part of the last century, was destroyed in 1744, in the wars between the natives of Barma and Pegu. The second, called Paein, by the Mannans, or Barans, and Bassein by many Europeans, is in lat. 16° 50' N. and long. 95° E. was held in fee by the King's fifth son, in 1793. It is near the great channel of the Erawadi; and at, or near it, the English had a factory on a piece of ground granted to them by Aom-pha, (Jaun-b-hur) in 1757; which was afterwards abandoned. The channels of this stream, like

those of the Ganges in the lower parts of Bengal, are continually changing, and the Barman towns themselves are so easily removed, that every map of this country must want revision in the course of a few years; and we ought not to be surprised if this and other places appear to be differently laid down in maps of different dates.

The province of Aracan, (Rak'haing, or Yak'haing,) of which an account may be found in vol. XVII. p. 732, has experienced the same reverses as the rest of the Barman Empire; in 1812, the commanding officer in Chitá-gong, the neighbouring province, was informed that the whole country, within 150 miles of the British frontier, was incapable of subsisting an army of any magnitude. The principal river, called Urdang, on which the capital is situated, cannot be approached without hazard during the south-west monsoon, on account of rocks and sands off its entrance; but all the eastern coast of the Bay of Bengal, as well as the interior of the country which it bounds, are very imperfectly known.

(See Syme's *Embassy to Ava*; *Modern Universal History*, vii. 135, &c.; *Asiatic Researches*, v. 143, 219, vi. 463, x. 224, 232; *Asiatic Register*, v.; *Edinburgh Philosophical Journal*, ii. 89, iii. 39, iv. 76, v. 75; *Hamilton's Hindostan and East India Gazetteer*.)

BIRMINGHAM, a market town in the county of Warwick, situated on a declivity on the river Lea, which joins the Thames. This town has been long distinguished for the variety and importance of its useful and ingenious manufactures, in which it may rank with the first cities of the world. It was celebrated for the tanning of leather 700 years ago, but this gradually gave way to enterprises of greater magnitude; and in the year 1793 only a single tanner is said to have exercised his art. Coarse iron articles were manufactured previous to 1688. The manufacture of buttons and buckles next began to flourish, and soon afterwards there seems to have arisen a gradual and general spirit for the fabrication of every variety of hardware. Under the influence of complicated and powerful machinery, the rude material of iron is manufactured into all sorts of useful implements: it is first brought into a proper state for working in the great iron foundries, after which it is employed by the artists in the different manufactories. Those of Messrs. Boulton and Watt, at Soho, have deservedly attained to a high celebrity, for the perfection to which they have brought the construction of steam engines, and other heavy iron machinery. A coining mill was erected here in 1788, which has since been improved so as to work eight machines, and is now capable of striking between 30,000 and 40,000 pieces of money in the space of an hour. The impression on both sides is received from one blow, and the pieces are perfectly round and of equal thickness; while the machine itself disposes each piece for receiving the impression from the die, and it removes it after it has received the stroke. Among the various articles made here and in the other manufactories, are rolled metals, machinery for mills, and

copying machines. Muskets for the supply of our own forces, and those of foreign powers, have occupied, and still engage a considerable number of workmen. To such importance has this branch of manufacture been raised, by the judicious management of a few public spirited individuals, that although 5000 stand of arms was a few years ago considered a large number to be finished in the space of one month, before the close of the war, no less a number than 11,500 were delivered per week into the ordnance for the use of government. Side-arms and all sorts of fire-arms are also extensively manufactured in this town. Buttons of all descriptions are manufactured; and it is said, that at the pin works 12,000 pins can be cut and pointed in an hour, and that in the same time 50,000 pin heads can be made from the wire. Steel screws, watch chains, and every article of domestic economy are made in this place; gilding, plain and inlaid, and plating, are brought to great perfection. Vast quantities of toys are likewise manufactured; and human industry is turned to such account, that not only great numbers of women find employment, but children only a few years old assist in many of the operations. There are very extensive brass foundries, and numerous articles, useful and ornamental, are executed of that material: there are also manufactories of whips and paper machine commodities. Although there are few specimens of art and ingenuity in which Birmingham does not excel, its manufactures are more particularly confined to metallic articles. Birmingham has three markets weekly, and two annual fairs. It has the benefit of several canals; and the same one by which coal from the pits in Staffordshire, pig iron, and other necessary commodities are supplied, serves to export

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BIRMINGHAM—the manufactured goods by way of Liverpool and Hull; barges from twenty to thirty tons burthen, which are drawn by a single horse, being employed for this purpose. This town is supposed to have existed in the reign of King Alfred; but it was not a place of note for centuries after. In 1643 it was besieged and taken by Prince Rupert, and ordered to be burnt to the ground; but owing to some propitious circumstances, the conflagration did very little damage. In the year 1665, or 1666, Birmingham suffered severely from the plague, and in a short time subsequent to this it began to be considerably enlarged. It was in 1745 that Mr. Boulton's invention of inlaid steel for buckles, watch chains, and other articles was brought to perfection; and it was in 1764 that the great works at Soho were established. Subsequent to these improvements, the town appears to have made the most rapid advances to wealth and prosperity. In the year 1791, serious riots took place in Birmingham, when the two Unitarian places of worship were destroyed by the populace, whose disorders were continued during several days; and it is calculated that property was destroyed to the value of £50,000. The name of the late Dr. Priestley stands conspicuous as a sufferer in those transactions. Distant 62 miles N. W. of Oxford, 87 N. of Bristol, and 109 N. W. of London. Population, 1821, 85,416.

BIRN, a considerable town of Ireland, and one of the chief places in King's county, situated near the borders of Tipperary, on the banks of a river that falls into the Shannon. It was formerly called Parson's town, from a family of that name who had a castle there in the reign of Charles I. It is a populous place, about 64 miles from Dublin, and nearly half that distance north-east of Limerick.

BIRTH,
B'RTHDAY, } The third person of the verb
B'RTHDOM, } to *beor*; A. S. *beorthe*; Ger.
B'RTHMARE, } *bur*, from the verb *barren*.
B'RTHNGHT, } That which *beareth*; any
B'RTHPLAC, } manner of action which *beareth*;
B'RTHNGHT, } that which any person or thing
B'RTHNGHT, } *beareth*; *sc.* into life, into ex-
B'RTHTIDE, } istence. Noble by *birth*; Eng-
B'RTHTANGLED, } lish by *birth*; i. e. by family,
parentage, &c.

And *Jehon* passage, sayth a man bynd fro his *birth*; and hinc discipils aynk him, master, what symple this man, or hinc eldis, that he schelde be born blind. *Wiclif. John*, cap. ix.

And as *Jehon* passed by, he saw a man which was bynd from hys *ayeth*. And hys discipils asked him, saying: master, who eved aliose: this man, or his father and mother, y^e he was borne blind. *Bible*, 1551.

On the greatest *adversities* of this world, is when a free man by kille, or of *birth*, is constrained by poverty to even the alms of his enemy. *Chaucer. The Tale of Melibee*, v. 2. p. 113.

And whaene a *coronable day* was fallen *Erome* in his *birth-day* made a *roper* to the princes and tribunes, and to the greetist of Galilee. *Wiclif. Mark*, cap. vi.

But when a *ebornist day* was come: *Herode* on his *birth-day* made a *supper* to y^e *lucres*, *captains* & *chief estates* of Galilee. *Bible*, 1551.

And *Jacob* sayd: sel me *thys day* *thys byrthright*. And *Eau* answered: lo I am at the *pynt* to dye, and what *proffite* shall this *byrthright* do me; and *Jacob* sayd: *swere* to me *then* this *day*. And he *swore* to *is*, and *soide* his *byrthright* unto *Jacob*. *Id.* 1551. *Genesis*, cap. xxxv.

Though we were exempted from the common condition of our *birth*, yet he would not deliver himself from those ordinary ills, that inspired the weakness, and blemishes of humanity. *Hell. Cost. The Purification*, ll. 17.

And so those of *dayes* the Egyptians do call at this present, the *dayes* of the *Epact*, rehearsing and solemnizing them as the *birth-dayes* of their gods. *Helland. Ptolemy*, fol. 1651.

MACD. Let vs rather
Hold fast the mortal sword: and like good men,
Bestride our downward *destinies*.
Shakespeare. Macbeth, fol. 146.

Finger of *birth-strangled* babe,
Ditch-deliver'd by a drab.
Id. Ib. fol. 144.

But howsoever it was, he [Polymnia] descended from one of the most noble and ancient houses of the Thebans, of whom they report this notable thing: that the most part of this noble lineage carried upon their body even for a natural *birth-mark* from their mothers womb, a snake. *North. Plutarch*, fol. 917.

Nature too oft by *birth-right* does prefer
Less perfect monarchs to an anxious throne.
Deverant. Goodwill, book ii. e. 2.

No ominous star did at *thys birthtide* shine,
That might of *thys* sad destiny divine.
Leopold. England's Heroical Epit., fol. 136.

It is in effect therefore the *birth-day* of the world; the beginning of a new, better, eternal life to men, (offered to all, and eternally bestowed on those, who will embrace it,) which we now do celebrate. *Barrow. Sermon* xliii. v. 3.

However it comes about, that now they celebrate Queen Elizabeth's *birthright*, as that of their saint and patroness; yet then they were for doing the work of the Lord by arms against her. *Dryden. Religio Laici*, Pref.

But why your wonder should I vainly raise?
My *birthplace* tell, and *Arctonoe's* praise.
Favins. Argonautica f. *Apollonius*, book iii.

An eminent person of later times, was reproached by one of his *birth*, though of *another* party, for having formerly been a carrier. His answer, for his temper and excellent judgment in it, is not to be forgotten, which was, "that if he who reproached him had once been a carrier, he would have been a carrier still." *Teller*, No. 234.

So culture aids the human soul to rise,
To scorn the sordid earth, and mount the skies,
Till by degrees the noble guest refines,
Claims her high *birthright*, and divinely shines.
Brown. On the Birthday of Mr. Froude.

Useful discoveries are sometimes indeed the effect of superior genius, but more frequently they are the birth of time and of necessity. *Reid's Inquiry*, ch. l. sec. 8.

Those *birth-days* ere past, succeeded next
The *birthday* of invention; with art first,
Dull in design, and clumsy to perform.
Copey. The Task, book i.

The protection of the liberty of Britain is a duty which they owe to themselves, who enjoy it; to their ancestors, who transmitted it down; and to their posterity who will claim it at their hands. *Blackstone. Commentaries*, iv. 443.

BIRTHALM, sometimes written **BIRTHELMEN**, is a large market town of Transylvania, in the circle or province of *Borzen*. It is a place of considerable population and trade, and the environs produce good wine, but it is chiefly noted as the residence of the superintendent of all the Lotheran churches in Transylvania. It is there also that the preachers in that connection are ordained, in a church standing on an elevated rock.

BISCARAH, called *Pescara* by *Leo Africanus*, is a town in the province of *Zab*, (Zeh of *Leo*.) a part of that division of Africa called by the Arabs "the Land of Dates," (*Bilddo'l Jerid*) the Numidia of the

BIRTH.
BIS-
CARAH.

BISCA-
RAH.
—
BISCAY.

Ancients. Biscarah is situated nearly in lat. 34° 40' N. and long. 1° 18' E. on a considerable hill, is a country remarkable, according to Idria, for the excellence of its dates. It was destroyed in the wars of the Vandals during the fall of the Roman Empire, and rebuilt by the Saracens. It is surrounded by a wall of unburnt bricks, has a castle defended by a few guns, and now belongs to Algiers, though it was formerly subject to Tunis. The scorpions are so

numerous as almost to drive the inhabitants out of the town during the hot season. A small trade in slaves and the productions of Nigritia, is carried on by its inhabitants, many of whom resort for employment to Algiers, where they are much esteemed for their honesty and civility.

(*Leo Afric.* 621; *Shaw's Travels*, p. 167; *Edrisi, Africa*, ed. Hartman, 238; *Geogr. Nubien.* p. 83.)

BISCA-
RAH.
—
BISCAY.

BISCAY.

Situation
and bound-
aries.

BISCAY, a distinguished province of the Spanish monarchy, occupying a portion of the northern part of that peninsula. On the east it borders on France and Navarre, the Bay of Biscay bathes its northern shores, the Asturias bound it on the west, and a continuation of the Pyrenean mountains separates it from Old Castile on the south. In the present extended acceptance of the term, Biscay includes the three provinces of Alava, Guipuzcoa, and Biscay Proper, the last of which is often denominated the lordship of Biscay. Much of this district is a pile of mountains, many of them rising to a great height, and presenting some of the most picturesque scenery in the kingdom. The spirit of the inhabitants has, however, induced them to extend cultivation up the sides of these ridges, as well as to spread it over the valleys and small plains by which they are separated. The upper parts, where not wooded, are generally employed as sheep-walks, to which the flocks are driven during several months of the year; and from this judicious management the inhabitants experience but little of that inconvenience which often attaches to a rugged country. Some parts of these mountains are covered with forests, and others abound in lead and tin ores, the last of which is reckoned the softest and most fusible in Europe. This ore is of different species, and varies considerably both in the nature and quantity of the metal it yields, as well as the degree of labour necessary to extract it. One of the richest mines is near Hernani, in Guipuzcoa. Near the town of Bilbao, the ore approaches to the surface of the earth, as well as at Somorostro, in Biscay Proper. This last is, indeed, the most celebrated mine in the peninsula. Here the ore pervades the whole of a regular undulating hill of limestone is a vein of from three to ten feet in thickness, and yields between thirty and forty per cent. of pure metal. This mine was first worked by the Romans, and still supplies great quantities of metal. Pieces of broken instruments which have formerly been used in working the mine being frequently found, has given rise to the idea, among the workmen, that the ore is renewed. The ferruginous rock near Bilbao, yields a still greater proportion of metal, but it is much harder, and more difficult to extract. The ore in the vicinity of Mondragon, in Guipuzcoa has been thought to contain natural steel; and tradition states that the celebrated sword blades of Toledo were fabricated of the fine steel of these mines, with some iron in the middle of the

General
surface.

Mineral
products.

blade to render it more flexible. Copper and marble are also found among the mineral products of Biscay; and a salt spring near the village of Aguanan produces a great quantity of salt, which is extracted by evaporation, in the usual way. This province likewise contains several mineral springs, both hot and cold, but as their waters do not appear ever to have been analyzed we are not able to specify the nature of their contents. A well has also been mentioned, which is thought to have a communication with the sea, though situated thirty-seven leagues from the shore. The water not only rises and falls with the tide, but often overflows the surface when the sea is much agitated by storms.

Various wild animals are still met with in this mountainous region, among which are wild bears, wolves, lynxes, foxes, and some others. Several birds of passage likewise are found at certain seasons, the most remarkable of which is the chimbo, from Africa. They arrive about August, and sometimes all disappear during a single night, before the setting in of the autumnal rains. When these retire to warmer climates, they are succeeded by woodcocks, and some others of that tribe.

As the mountainous nature of the country necessarily renders a great part of it incapable of cultivation, the inhabitants are not only confined to particular places, but are very limited in proportion to the extent of the country. When the enumeration took place in 1788, the number of inhabitants was only 310,758, and it is now supposed not to exceed 300,000. Nor can any other result be expected from the state of society; for one portion of the inhabitants comprised:

Priests	2,084
Monks and Nuns	2,043
Noblesse	116,923
Persons in the law	471
Students	455
Servants	8,731

According to this statement, those who claimed the rank of noblesse were nearly nine times as numerous as all the other classes together; and the priests, monks, and nuns, formed more than a thirty-second part of the whole population. The province comprises 720 parishes, in which there are four cities, 176 towns, 447 villages, and 150 religious houses. The three principal places are Bilbao, Vittoria, and St. Sebastian.

BISCAY. Vittoria, the capital of Alava, is situated partly upon the acclivity of a hill, and partly at the extremity of a well cultivated valley, thickly sprinkled with villages, and having the mountains in perspective. It was founded by Don Sancho, King of Navarre, and endowed with the prerogatives of a city. It is surrounded by walls; and though great part of it is but indifferently built, it contains some wide streets, ornamented with trees, and watered with cool and clear streams. There is also a large and handsome square with a fountain in the centre, surrounded with arcades. Vittoria has a collegiate chapter, four parishes, several monasteries and chapels, and an asylum. Some of the churches are good Gothic buildings, and the Royal Asylum deserves the attention of the stranger. The population, which is said to have once exceeded 18,000, is now reduced to about 6500. It was in the neighbourhood of this town that the British army under Lord Wellington, gained a signal victory over the French, on the 21st of June, 1813.

St. Sebastian. *(Favosa Sancti Sebastiani)* is the most important town in the district of Guipuzcoa, and is well known from its conquest by the British forces in August, 1813. It is situated on the coast of the ancient Cantabria, on a small peninsula, near the mouth of the river Urumea, and has long been considered as a frontier fortress of great strength, on the side of France. It is fortified by bastions and half moons; and the citadel stands on an eminence, which is accessible only by a spiral path. St. Sebastian is better built than many other towns of Spain. The streets are many of them wide and straight, and formed of good houses. In the late conflict for its possession, a great part of the town was reduced to ashes, but it has since been rebuilt. It contains three churches, several convents, and a hospital, with about 12,000 or 13,000 inhabitants. The harbor is small, but secure; and the trade of the place was chiefly with the colonial possessions of Spain and the different ports of Europe. It consists principally in the export of wool, anchors, cables, and leather, which are either manufactured in the town, or supplied by the neighbourhood. St. Sebastian commands a view both of the Pyrenees and the sea, and being only about ten miles from the small river Bidasoa, which forms the boundary between France and Spain, it has frequently been in possession of the former country; the last time was from 1808 to 1813. It is about 40 miles east of Bilbao, its latitude $43^{\circ} 10' 30''$ N., and longitude $1^{\circ} 58' 30''$ E.

Agrical- The Biscayans are more industrious and persevering than most of the other Spaniards, and are extensively engaged in agriculture and manufactures. To the former, they have to contend with a stony and untractable soil, which requires great labour and an unsparring use of manure, to render it productive. Their mode of cultivation, however, is still rude and laborious. An iron pronged instrument is forced into the ground by the united power of three or four persons, and large pieces of the turf turned over by mere manual force. These are subsequently broken in pieces, and the clods partially pulverized by wooden mallets; holes are then made, and the seed is deposited. But by this means cultivation is carried into places where it would be impracticable by the usual method of employing animal power. Excellent fruit is grown in many parts of the province, and wine is made in considerable quantities for home consumption. The

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mines of Biscay have led to the establishment of various metallic manufactures. In some places, the ore is common property, and any person may take as much as he pleases merely for the trouble of procuring it. This has caused manufactures of scythes, cannon, fire-arms, swords, and other articles, to be carried on at various places. Copper is also wrought both into sheets and boilers, as well as into other utensils; and cordage, leather, &c. are made particularly at Bilbao and St. Sebastian.

Literature and science have as yet made but slow advances among the Biscayans. Attempts have indeed been made to diffuse these, but their success has not been great, and Biscay can hitherto boast of very few literary characters. The language is distinct from that spoken in the other parts of Spain, and is a very ancient dialect. It is described as soft, energetic, and harmonious; and is so peculiar to the province, that common Spanish is not understood by the majority of the inhabitants, especially among the mountains.

A marked distinction subsists between the Biscayans and the other Spaniards. It is not till a century after the establishment of the Moors in Spain, that history records the name of Biscay. When Julius Caesar invaded Spain, about half a century before the Christian era, the province was known by the name of *Cantabria*. The inhabitants, favoured by the nature of their country, long escaped the Roman yoke, and laid waste some of the provinces subject to their empire. Augustus assembled a formidable army, entered the province of Cantabria, and defeated his opponents on the plains of Vittoria. The Cantabrians then retired to their mountains, to which the Romans were unable to follow them; and they had recourse to the slow approaches of famine for their subjugation. But these haughty warriors preferred death to servitude, and most of them destroyed themselves rather than submit to their invaders. Augustus then took the principal inhabitants that remained as hostages, and distributed the lands among his soldiers. A few centuries of revolt, however, was soon seized, but they were again reduced, and forts built to keep them in subjection. When the torrents of barbarians from the north began to overwhelm the Roman Empire, this province was suddenly abandoned to its ancient possessors, who had for a century been struggling against superior power, either for the preservation or the recovery of liberty. When the Moors, in the eighth century, had conquered the south of Spain, they bent their force against the Cantabrians; but these offered the most determined resistance under a Gothic prince, who was afterwards made Duke of Cantabria. A series of successive wars then took place between this province and the other states in the adjacent parts of the peninsula, particularly with the Kings of Castile, till Peter the Cruel, King of Castile and Leon, in the middle of the fourteenth century, killed the Prince of Biscay, and united it to his possessions; and the Kings of Spain still bear the title of Lord of Biscay.

Though Biscay has at various times lost several of its ancient privileges, it preserves those that remain, and with great vigour, and still forms a separate state, governed by its national assemblies, and enjoying many of its ancient laws, customs, and tribunals, which are distinct from those of the rest of Spain. It acknowledges the King only as its formerly acknowledged its Lords. Its taxes are presented in the form

Literature and language.

Historical sketch.

BISCAY. of a free-offering, and these it assesses upon the towns and districts by its own assemblies. When the crown requires an extraordinary contribution it is formed by voluntary offerings. No stamps are used in the province, and every one is allowed to sell several articles which are royal monopolies in other parts of the kingdom. Biscay is neither subject to a militia, nor to an impress for sailors; and as the King's troops cannot be quartered in the province, it maintains its own police in time of peace, and undertakes its own defence in war; and many of the best soldiers and sailors of Spain have always been Biscayans. By an act of Queen Joanna, and confirmed by her son, Don Carlos, it is called the *very noble and very loyal lordship and country of Biscay*. The Biscayans were all, originally, noble, and are considered as such throughout Spain. When out of their own province, they are amenable only to the grand Judge of Biscay, who holds his court at Valladolid; and this is a privilege of which they are extremely jealous. Guipuzcoa enjoys nearly the same privileges as Biscay Proper, except, that as the frontier of the kingdom, it receives garrisons, and is defended by fortified towns. The country of Alava submitted to Alphonso in 1333, who secured to the inhabitants their ancient privileges, particularly that of not having taxes imposed upon them without their own consent, and the code of laws which they had adopted.

Character,
manners,
and
customs.

M. Labord, who had great opportunities of becoming familiar with all classes of society in most provinces of Spain, describes the Biscayans as strong, vigorous, agile, and gay; their complexion is fine, their expression quick, animated, laughing, and open. The Roman historians describe them as brave, robust; endowed with constancy, and a firmness not to be shaken; fierce in their dispositions, singular in their customs, always armed with daggers, and ready to give themselves death, rather than be subjugated or governed by force; roused to opposition by obstacles, and patient of labor and fatigue. The description is scarcely more applicable to the Cantabrian ancestors of the Biscayans, than it is to the present inhabitants of that province, who still preserve strong marks of resemblance to that noble race of rustics, though the more prominent habits in their ennobled character are considerably softened by civilisation. In Alava, the people chiefly devote themselves to agriculture; in the other two provinces manufactures and trade are greater objects of pursuit. "The lordship of Biscay still presents, in many respects, a striking picture of the simplicity of ancient manners. The country is covered with detached houses, without any decoration, but commodious, each placed in the middle of the proprietor's manor, and near a river. Their proximity and connection make them look like villages. Most of these houses and their dependencies are inhabited by persons, whose families have possessed them from time immemorial. These proprietors are called *Eche-juncos*, or lords of houses. Districts composed of a certain number of these houses are called republics; the parish church usually standing in the centre. Antique villas appear at certain distances among these modest habitations; they are all of simple architecture, and most of them flanked with square towers. These have likewise been transmitted from father to son, for many ages. It would be a disgrace to sell them.

Their possessors, under the title of *Parientes-magros*, are, as it were, the elders of the district. They were formerly regarded as chiefs and judges, and still preserve a marked distinction and preponderance." The roads are often bordered with these detached houses, which renders them very agreeable. Many of these habilities, however, are so far reduced in circumstances as to be obliged to cultivate their patrimonial domains with their own hands; and there is an old proverb among them, which marks the liberal feeling that pervades the bosoms of these claimants to ancient titular dignity. They say *la pobreza no es vileza*, "poverty is no klemish." The utmost gaiety prevails among all classes, who are passionately fond of dancing, and on holidays collect in vast groups under the shade of the trees, to dance to the sound of the rustic pipe and tabor. Great simplicity of manners is every where observable; and the wives and daughters of the most wealthy Biscayans do not disdain to engage in the occupations of domestic economy. The women, as well as the men, are distinguished for their activity, and join in the labours of the field, as well as in most other employments. Both sexes are extremely fond of pilgrimages, and on the festivals of their tutelary saints, frequently collect in great crowds from the neighbouring villages, and travel to distant churches, singing and dancing to the sound of the tabor by the way. The females of Biscay are noted for their fine hair, which they plait and dress with coloured ribbons, and generally consider the length of their plaits as their best ornaments. There is an opinion, which appears to deserve some credit, that the Biscayans and a part of the Irish sprang from the same origin; and it has been asserted, that a colony of Cantabrians established themselves in Hibernia, about two centuries before the Christian era. Many existing circumstances, common to both countries, also appear to corroborate this supposed identity of origin. Among these have been mentioned the universal gaiety that pervades both countries, their fondness for pilgrimages, their choleric dispositions, the sudden and violent quarrels that frequently take place among them, the manner in which the lower classes of both countries live, the resemblance between the ancient brogues of Ireland and the shoes of Biscay, and the manner in which the women wear handkerchiefs about their heads, go bare-foot, and carry barthens. Further information may be obtained from Towa-send's *Journey through Spain*; Bourgoing's *Tableau de l'Espagne Moderne*; and Labord's *Vie de Spain*.

BISCAY, Bay up, that part of the Atlantic Ocean which is comprised between the Island of Ushant, near the western promontory of France and Cape Ortegal, the north-west point of Spain. It consequently washes all the western coast of France, with the northern shores of the peninsula, and advances nearly to the western extremity of the Pyrenees, between St. Sebastian and Bayonne. This bay is readily distinguished by mariners from a remarkable swell of the sea, which, without any other indication, enables them to ascertain its limits. The same appellation is also bestowed to a large bay on the south coast of Newfoundland, between Cape Race and Cape Pine, about the beginning of the fifty-fourth degree of west longitude.

BISCAY, New, one of the provinces into which

Resem-
blance to
the Irish.

BISCAY, Mexico, or New Spain, was formerly divided, and which was afterwards included in the intendancy of Durango. It lies in the interior of the Mexican dominions, where the Cordillera stretches nearly north and south, and intersects the province in that direction. Much of it is, therefore, elevated and rugged, but other parts are well watered and fruitful. Though situated between twenty-seven and

thirty-three degrees of latitude, the elevation of the surface renders the climate temperate, and many parts of it are rich in corn, cattle, and other products. It also contains mines of silver and lead; for the protection of which, the Spaniards have built three small fortified towns. The whole extent of this province has lately been stated at 129,250 square miles, and its population at 159,700 individuals.

BISCAY.
NEW.
—
BISH-
ARVE.

BISCHOPSWERDA, a town in the kingdom of Saxony, near the borders of Lusatia, on a small island in the Wesenitz. It is inhabited by nearly 2000 Latherans, who are chiefly employed in the manufacture of white thread and linen; but is most remarkable for the frequent calamities it has experienced. It was originally founded by the Bishop of Misnia, in 1076, and was plundered by the Hussites, in 1430; burnt down in 1596; pillaged by the imperialists, in 1631; sacked by the Swedes, in 1639; and again in 1714; and finally reduced to ashes in the campaign of 1813. It has since been rebuilt, and stands about twenty miles east of Dresden.

BISCUTT, *Bis*, and *coquo*, *roctum*: Twice baked.

The Turks doth not amend his galeis, nor rigge out mo then five. In Greece there is no biscuit in making, no preparacion of vitakes, or other thing.

Lodge's Illustrations of B. His. v. i. p. 169.

Besides this three, jely pallasches left behind them for kute, all their tentes, silt, greave gonnes and xl. barrells of powder, ecc. pipes of wyne, cc. pipes of bisket and floure, cc. frayles of figges and resoues, and v. c. barrells of herrings.

Hall. K. Henry VI. fol. 94.

And his men and his other provision came from all parties, and arrayed in Floundry, both wyne, salt fish, otes, lay, oysters, bisket, flower, eages in pipes, and all manner of thinges that could be desired, so that the provision was so great as it could not be belosed of any, but of such as saw it.

Grafton. K. Rich. II. Ann. 10.

In this march a pair of shoon was sold for thirty shillings, and a bisket cake for two shillings; so great was our want both of cloathing and victuals.

Sir F. Drake. West Indian Voyage, fol. 87.

Mr. Boreel told me, that the curious merchant need no other art, than the storing of his bisket, well baked, in coaks exactly culled.

Boyle. Nat. Philos. partic. essay iv.

The prattling about the rights of men will not be accepted in payment of a biscuit or a pound of gun-powder.

Burke. Reflections on the Revolution in France.

BISCUTELLA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Tetradynamia*, order *Siliculosa*. Generic character; silicula bilobate, above and below, margin carinate.

A genus allied to *Coronopus*, containing several species, principally natives of Europe.

BISECT, } *Bis*, *bius*, two, and *seco*, *sectum*, to
BISECTION } cut. To cut into two.

Any assigned arch or angle may be bisected by plain common Geometry.

Berrous. Meth. Lect. xv.

BISENTINA, a small island of Italy, situated in the Bay of Bolzena, and belonging to the states of the Church. Its principal building is a Franciscan Convent; but it is most distinguished in the annals of the country as the place to which the daughter of

Theodoric, King of the Goths, was banished by her kinsman Theodatus, whom she had raised to a participation in the government of the empire. It was here, too, that she was afterwards assassinated by order of that tyrant.

BISERRULA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Diadelpnia*, order *Decandria*. Generic character: legumen bilocular, plane; dissepiment contrary, serrated on each side.

A genus of the Leguminosae tribe, containing but one species, a native of the south of Europe.

BISHARVE, a tribe of Bedowin Arabs, who inhabit a part of the mountains on the west of the Red Sea, between Abyssinia and Egypt, where they find pasturage for their camels and cattle in the wild herbage that grows in the beds of the winter torrents. Mr. Borchardt passed through these regions in his route from the country of the Berbers, which lies just below the two great branches of the Nile, to the western shores of the Arabian Gulf. These he found inhabited by two tribes of Arabs, the *Ababde* and the *Bisharye*. The latter of whom he describes in the following terms: "The Bisharye, who rarely descend from their mountains, are a very savage people, and their character is worse even than that of the Ababde. The only cattle are camels and sheep; and they live entirely on flesh and milk, eating much of the former raw: according to the relations of several Nubians, they are very fond of the hot blood of slaughtered sheep; but their greatest luxury is said to be the raw marrow of camels. A few of these Arabs occasionally visit Dere or Assouan with senna, sheep, or ostrich feathers; the ostrich being common on their mountains, and their senna is of the best kind. In exchange for these commodities, they take linen shirts, and dhourra, the grains of which they swallow raw, as a dainty, and never make it into bread. These traders do not long remain on the banks of the Nile, as the dread of the small-pox drives them back to their tents. The Bisharye are much addicted to theft, and will even rob the house of the person who receives them as guests. Their youth make plundering excursions as far as Dongola, and along the route to Sennar, mounted upon camels, of a breed superior to any other that exists between the shores of the Mediterranean and Abyssinia. Few of the Bisharye speak Arabic. They fear none but the Ababde, who know their pasturing places in the mountains, and often surprise their encampments." The Bisharye are kind and hospitable towards one another. Their females are said to be as handsome as those of Abyssinia; but they mix freely with strangers and are very depraved in their habits.

BISH-
BESH.
BISHOP.

BISHBESII, a town of Lower Egypt, situated upon a branch of the Nile, about 40 miles north-east of Cairo. It is considered as the ancient *Bubaste*, a city of great celebrity for the religious rites and Bacchanalian orgies, of which it was, in ancient times, the principal theatre. Vast remains, of stupendous

edifices are still to be seen in enormous blocks of granite, some parts of which have been converted into mill-stones, and other pieces cut completely through, but left on the spot, apparently for want of the means of conveying them away. Lat. 30° 33' N. and long. 31° 52' E.

BISH-
BESH.
BISHOP.

BISHOP.

B'ISHOP, n. This word upon the introduction of Christianity found its way into all the European languages. A. S. *biscop*; Dutch, *bischof*; Ger. *bischof*; Swed. *bischof*; Fr. *evêque*; It. *vescovo*; Sp. *obispo*, from the Gr. *ἐπίσκοπος*, from *ἐπί*, and *σκοπέω*, to look into.

Milk, in Yorkshire, is said to be *bishoped*, when it is burnt. "Formerly, in days of superstition, whenever a Bishop passed through a town or village, all the inhabitants ran out in order to receive his blessing; this frequently caused the milk on the fire to be left till burnt to the vessel, and gave origin to the above allusion." Grose, *Prov. Gloss.*

To *bishop*; is to perform the church ceremony of confirmation. See the example from Sir Thos. More.

For jast lond jst biwene Humber, & the water of Temese y wis
Ich was in je bishop riche of Lyngolce ys. *R. Gloucester*, p. 5.

je bishop of Cantebirie in comon alle a liche,
Scheved it in lik schire, alle his bishop riche.

R. Brunne, p. 301.

And by emm a man of a mayde, and metropolitaneus,
And baptisde on *bischofpede*, what je biode of his herte
Alle jst wilsede oter wolde. *Piers Plowman*, p. 306.

Were je bishop bleisid aj worth boje l'eyen.

Hus seie shalide nogt be sent, in decreit of je puple.

Id. p. 4.

That they call confirmation, y^e people call *bischofping*. They think that if the bishop butter y^e child in the foribed, that then it is safe. *Sir Thos. More's answer to Tisdale's Preface*.

Therefore hooly brethren, and partakeris of beneth cleping, biholde the apostle and the bishop of oore confessions, Jesu which trewe to him that made him, as soe molens in al the hous of hym. *Wiclif. Ebrevis*, ch. iii.

Now doeth he rende his clothes, prophesying hereby, how it shal com to passe, that the true bishop raignyng the carnall and figurative *bischofpede* shal be cleane abolished, and set aside.

Udell. Mark, ch. xiv.

And it is written in the booke of Salmy, the abissions of hem be masd desert, and be there none that dwelle in it, and another take his *bischofpede*. *Wiclif. Dietis of Apostles*, ch. i.

It is written in the boke of Palmyre: by his labytynye be voyde, and noman be dwellinge therein; and hys *bischofpede* let another take. *Idell*, 1531.

Why sent they it by Felton to

Be *bischofped* at Paule's?

Why freed they Fitz-Morrisse, that

In Iricland marshal'd brawles?

Warner. Albion's England, book x. ch. 54.

Wherefore the bishop (saith he) reverently, and accordinge to his *bischofpe* office, after the holy penyes of Godde's workes, he exorceth himself, that he taketh vpon him to offer that healthful sacrifice. *M. Harding's*, in *Jewell*, fol. 567.

Shortly after all the bishops which had been deprived in the time of King Edward the sixth, were restored to their *bischofpedes*, and the other which were placed in King Edward's times removed.

Stowe. Anna, 1553. *Queene Mary*.

In the person of a bishop there be three distinct faculties: his spiritual function, wherein he is a bishop; his legal ability, wherein he is a layman and hath liberty to contract, &c. and his temporal dignity, wherein he is a Baron and Peer of the Realm, and participateth their privileges.

Spelman. Ana. to Apologie, fol. 115.

From the time of Ignatius A. D. 100, the word *Bishop* has been universally used to denote the highest of the three orders of clergy in the Christian church, which are the Bishops, *Presbyters*, the Presbyters or Elders, *Episcopos*, and Deacons, *Diakones*. Of these three orders, the Apostolic institution of the two last mentioned, has never been questioned: the higher order has been less fortunate; many attempts having been made to disprove its Apostolic origin as a chief and distinct order of clergy, and to reduce it either to a complete level with the Presbytery, or at least to leave it only a nominal and conventional superiority. It is our belief that in the times of the Apostles, the three orders existed in subordination to each other, and that whilst Episcopacy has, on the ground of being an Apostolic institution, an equal claim with the Presbytery to our respect, it possesses as being the order to which Presbyters have been always subject, a right of preeminence over the other orders of the clergy.

For the better elucidation of this important subject, we shall treat of it under the following arrangement:—

I. 1. An inquiry whether Episcopacy be of divine institution; 2. the sense in which it may be so considered, and the evidence afforded by Scripture of its existence in the time of the Apostles.

II. The equivocal use of the terms Bishop and Presbyter in the first age, no proof of the identity of the two orders.

III. Probability of the word Apostle being applied to the Bishops of the Apostolic age.

IV. Evidence of James, the Lord's brother being Bishop of Jerusalem, Epaphroditus of Philippi, Timothy of Ephesus, and Titus of Crete.

V. The evidence which the *Epistles* of Ignatius afford, of the existence of Episcopacy.

VI. A distinct statement of the historical evidence which exists in the writings and opinions of the fathers of the first four centuries, as well as of the proof which the nature of the case itself affords, of the Apostolic origin of the order of Bishops.

VII. A short account of the heresy of Aetius.

BISHOP. VIII. On the opinions attributed to Jerome, against the superiority of Bishops.

IX. On the loss of Episcopacy in the Reformed Churches; Luther and Calvin, favourable to Episcopacy.

X. Present state of Episcopacy in England, compared with that in ancient times.

XI. On the temporal privileges of the Bishops.

I. § 1. *Whether the order of Bishops be of divine institution.*

Some writers have contended that our blessed Lord during his abode on earth, did institute in the persons of the twelve Apostles, and of the seventy disciples, sent by him with commission to preach the Gospel, the two orders of Bishops and Presbyters; others again ascribe the institution of these orders to the Apostles guided by the Holy Spirit. Upon these grounds rests what is commonly called the divine right of Bishops. In strictness of speech, no institution can be called divine, i. e. of God, for which there does not exist either some law of nature, or some precept of revelation. The Levitical Priesthood was most undoubtedly a divine institution; for Aaron and his brethren were appointed to the office of Priests, by express command of God, and that command was further confirmed by two miracles, the budding of Aaron's rod, and the extraordinary punishment which befell the Israelites, in that rebellion against the Priesthood, of which Korah, Dathan, and Abiram were the instigators. But the declaration made by our Lord conjointly to the twelve Apostles, but first particularly addressed to Peter, "Thou art Peter, and upon this rock I will build my church, and the gates of hell shall not prevail against it. And I will give unto thee the keys of the kingdom of heaven, and whatsoever thou shalt bind on earth, shall be bound in heaven, and whatsoever thou shalt loose on earth shall be loosed in heaven;" a declaration which was repeated after the Resurrection, in the form of a regular commission and investiture with the authority of the Holy Spirit; though it must be considered as clearly amounting to a formation of the great body of Christians into the spiritual society called the Church, and as giving to the twelve Apostles a power of governing that society, as well as of instructing it, is not sufficiently distinct in its terms to allow of every custom, which may be traced up to the Apostles as its first authors, being called a divine institution, that is, an institution ordained by God. But in a less confined sense, Episcopacy and also every other institution existing in the Christian church, of which the Apostles may be justly held to be the authors, may be considered divine; for according to the principle laid down in Hooker's *Eccles. Polity*. "Things may be two ways accounted of God, i. e. divine: one, if they be of his institution, but not of ours; another if they be of ours, yet with his approbation; this latter way there is no impediment, but that the same thing which is of men, may be also justly and truly said to be of God; the same thing from heaven, which is from earth." We acknowledge as divine, all commands which the Holy Spirit through the Apostles gave to the church, and which are recorded in the written word of God; but where no distinct precept is given in the Scripture for an institution perpetually to be observed, and yet history teaches us what was

the conduct of the Apostles, in those cases we conceive that the influence of the Holy Spirit on their minds, amounted only to such an approbation of their conduct, as rendered the laws which they prescribed, and the customs which they sanctioned divine in this secondary sense, entitling them to be obeyed before all other institutions which are purely human and destitute of that high authority, which is derived from the inspired character of the Apostles. It is highly probable, that during the forty days, which St. Luke describes our Lord to have passed with the Apostles after his resurrection, and in which "he spoke to them of the things pertaining to the kingdom of God," some notice should have been given them of the nature of that external form of government which would be most fitting the wants of that great society of Christians about to be extended over the whole world; and possibly the appointment of distinct orders of men for the due discharge of religious duties, might be amongst "those commandments" said in the second verse, "to have been given through the Holy Ghost to the Apostles whom he had chosen." This is a consideration which cannot but have its weight upon the minds of those who love Episcopacy, as being almost identified with the history of the religion they profess: but however reasonable may be the conjecture and gratifying to our wishes, we must be ever on our guard against confounding facts with theories, and thereby introducing into the Christian code an unwritten law, a sort of tradition of the Elders, as a supplement to those really divine laws which are recorded in the revealed word for our guidance in civil as well as moral actions. Had the divine command for the institution of the Christian ministry been plainly promulgated in the New Testament, the obligation of obedience to our spiritual guides would have rested upon somewhat different, though scarcely on stronger grounds than it does at present. He indeed must be ignorant of those principles of humility, and of submission to all lawful authority, which are so conspicuous in the writings of the New Testament, who does not feel that he is divinely bound to obey those "who have the rule over him in the Lord," even though his spiritual governors may not in the fullest sense have been authorized by God himself to govern. To separate ourselves from the authority of the Bishops, and to seek to alter our ecclesiastical regimen, is as truly the sin of schism now, as it was in the Apostolic age; but we are not so bigoted to Episcopacy, as to assert that the administration of the sacraments, and the true faith of Christ cannot exist under any other form of regimen than the Episcopal; for this would be to enchain one half of the Protestants of Europe, and to charge upon them the sin of schism, of which those Papistical Bishops were guilty, who, at the period of the Reformation, by their own obstinate adherence to the corruptions of the church of Rome, occasioned the loss of the order of Bishops amongst the Protestants in France and Germany.

§ 2. *Concerning the evidence which Scripture affords of the existence of the Episcopal order.*

The learned and pious Bishop Taylor in his interesting work entitled *Episcopacy Asserted*, maintained against the Presbyterians of his day, the principle, that of necessity there must be found in the Scriptures a

Numbers, xvi. xvi.
Matthew, xvi. 17—
xviii. 18.

John, xx. 21, 22, 23.

Book vii. 6.

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Acts, i. 3.

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world should partly from necessity, and partly from caprice, have adopted forms of discipline so unlike that under which the church was planted and Christianity flourished during the first ages of its existence.

II. On the equivocal use of the terms Bishop and Presbyter.

In the passages quoted above, *Acts*, xx. v. 17 and 18, and *Titus*, i. 5, 7, it is evident that the terms *ἐπίσκοπος* and *πρεσβύτερος* are used equivocally; and upon this fact the advocates of the Presbyterian discipline chiefly, if not altogether found their leading principle, that Bishop and Presbyter are two names of one and the same order; and that in the Apostolic age there were but two orders of clergy, Elders, or Presbyters, and Deacons. Let us examine the testimony which Suicer in his *Thesaurus Eccles.* vol. i. p. 1180 in voce *ἐπίσκοπος*, has adduced in support of this supposed unity of the two orders. Suicer ushers in his proofs of the identity of Bishops and Presbyters in the following manner; "*Hisque maxime loci est observatio quæ docet Episcopos et Presbyteros non fuisse diversos in Ecclesiæ Apostolicæ ordines; sed unum eundemque gradum seu ordinem constituisse, adque jure divino pares fuisse dignitate et auctoritate.*" "This is the place for the observation that Bishops and Presbyters were not different orders in the Apostolic church, but constituted one and the same degree or order, and therefore were by divine right equal in dignity and authority." He then adduces the following testimonies, first from Theodoret upon *Philipp.* cap. i, where the Apostles mentions the Bishops and Deacons. Theodoret here observes, "*Ἐπισκοποὶ τὴν πρεσβυτερίαν καλεῖ ἡμετέροισιν ὅτι οὕτως αὐτοὶ ἐκείνοι τὴν εὐαγγέλιον τὰ ὄντα.*" "He calls the Presbyters Bishops, for they had at that time both the names."

And afterwards this quotation from Ecumenius, a writer of the 9th century, than which words cannot express more strongly the distinctness of the two orders, at the same time that it explains the equivocation, "*Ὅτι ἐπειδὴ ἐν μὲν πόλεσι πολλοὶ ἦσαν ἐπίσκοποι ἄλλ' ἐπισκοποῦντες τὴν πρεσβυτερίαν καλεῖ τὸν γὰρ εἰς ἐκείνους τὴν ἀρχήν, καὶ οἱ ἐπίσκοποι ἐπίσκοποι καὶ πρεσβύτεροι ἐκαλούντο, καὶ τὸ ἑκατέρωθεν αἱ πρεσβυτερίαι ἐπίσκοποι.*" "It is not because there were many Bishops in one city, (that he addresses the Bishops and Deacons,) but he calls the Presbyters, Bishops; for at that time they still had the same names in common, and the Bishops, were called Deacons and Presbyters, and, vice versa, the Presbyters, Bishops."

And again Theodoret in I Tim. iii. "*Τὸν αὐτὸν ἐκάλουν τινες πρεσβυτέρους καὶ ἐπίσκοποι.*" "They once called the same persons Presbyters and Bishops."

If upon passages like these the advocates for the identity of the two orders are willing to rest the proof of their argument, the Episcopalian cannot have too many brought forward; for while they assert a manifest equivocation, they do so decidedly maintain the distinctness of the orders, as to leave no Greek scholar in doubt as to the opinion which the writers intended to express. But let us look at some more of the authorities adduced by the same writer, in his account of the word *ἡπρεσβύτερος*, vol. ii. p. 225. We find him there quoting Ecumenius upon *Acts*, xx, and asserting, in direct contradiction to the very spirit of the

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Oecumenus observes, "Ἐπειδὴ λαθεῖται ἐν πολλοῖς ἡ συνθεὶς μάλιστα τῆς αὐτοῦ ἐκκλησίᾳ, τοὺς ἐπισκοποῦντας πρεσβυτέρους ἰσορραῖσεν, καὶ τοὺς πρεσβυτέρους ἐπισκοποῦντας, ὁμοιωτικῶς ταῦτα ἀντιθέει, καὶ ἐν τῇ πρὸς Τίτον ἐπιστολῇ, ἐν ἧ ἐστὶν πρὸς Φιλιππησίους, καὶ ἐν τῇ πρὸς Τιμόθεον πρώτην."

"Since the custom which prevails chiefly in the New Testament, of calling the Bishops, Presbyters, and the Presbyters, Bishops, escapes the observation of many persons, we shew the truth of it from this place (*Acts*, xx. 17. 28.); from the *Epistle to Titus* (l. 5. 7.) and from the *First Epistle to Timothy*" (cap. iii. compared with cap. v.)

Fuller proofs of the equivocation of the terms cannot be given, nor evidence more strong, that the equivocation was mutual, and did not imply identity. There is only one more quotation from Suicer to which we shall refer, chiefly because it points out a difference of opinion between two commentators, Theophylact (in the twelfth century,) and Theodoret (in the fifth,) arising from the equivocation. It exists in their notes upon *Titus*, l. 5. 7. "Καὶ αὐτοῖς ἐπέθηκεν αὐτὸ πᾶσι πρεσβυτέρους." "And that thou mightest ordain Elders in every city." Upon which Theophylact observes, "Τοὺς ἐπισκοποῦντας οὕτως ἀντιθέει φησὶ." "He here so terms the Bishops." But Theodoret had interpreted the passage to mean only Elders, and that, upon the ground that in one city, there was not a plurality of Bishops, but there was a plurality of Elders. *Ἐν ἑκάστῃ τῇ πόλει οὐκ ἐπισκοποῦνται, ἀλλὰ πρεσβυτέρους εἶναι πολλοὺς.* This confusion of terms may be traced to these sources,—first the nature of the offices being to a certain degree the same, viz. that of superintendence, the term *ἐπισκοπος* might be used indiscriminately of both *Ἐπί, Πρεσβύτερος*, being a title of high honour among the Jews, could slowly give way to the newer appellation of *Ἐπίσκοπος*; and this hindrance to the introduction of the new name, would be augmented by the circumstance that in the first century, and especially when the epistles were written, the duties, which afterwards devolved upon Bishops strictly so called, were chiefly discharged by the Apostles themselves, (as was the case with St. Paul who had on him the care of all the churches,) and as we shall next shew, by persons called Apostles.

III. On the use of the word *Apostle* as applied to Bishops.

The learned Dr. Hammond, in his fourth *Dissertation in Defence of Episcopacy*, against Blondel and others, asserts decidedly, that the twelve Apostles commissioned persons for the work of superintending the different churches; both imparting to them a jurisdiction similar to their own, and giving them the name of Apostles. Amongst this class of persons we should look for the first Bishops of the Christian church; and we shall find accordingly, from the history of the first ages, that James and Epaphroditus, who are called in Scripture Apostles, were Bishops, the one at Philippi, the other at Jerusalem; and that Timothy and Titus, who were evidently from the tenor of the epistles written to them by St. Paul, invested with the distinct prerogative of Episcopacy, the power of ordination, were called by ancient writers,

Apostles, as well as Bishops, respectively, of Ephesus and Crete.

The testimony of Theodoret in 1 *Tim.* iii. 1. is distinctly to the point, for speaking of the Apostolic age, he says, "Τοὺς νῦν καλοῦμεν ἐπισκοποῦντας Ἀποστόλους ἀντιθέειν τὸν ἐκ χρόνου προκείμενόν τι μὲν τῆς ἀποστολῆς ὅνομα τοῖς ἀληθεῖς ἀποστόλοις ἐκτείναντες, τὴν δὲ τῆς ἐπισκοπῆς προσηγορίαν τοῖς πᾶσι καλοῦμεν οὐκ ἀποστόλους ἀντιθέειν ἅντων Φιλιππησίους ἐπιστολῇ, ὁ Ἐπιφρόδιτος φησὶ, ὅτιν ἐκκλησίᾳ ἡ Τίτον καὶ Ἀσιανὸν ὁ Τιμόθεον ἀποστόλους, ὅτιν δὲ ἅντων τῶν Ἰσραηλίων τοὺς ἐν Ἀντιόχειᾳ ἔγραψεν ἐκ ἀποστόλων καὶ πρεσβυτέρων." "Those who are now called Bishops, they called Apostles; but in process of time they left the name of the Apostleship to those who were truly Apostles; and gave the title of Bishop, to those who were anciently called Apostles; and in this sense Epaphroditus, Titus, and Timothy, were respectively Apostles of the Philippians, of Crete, and of Asia, and thus the Apostles, and Presbyters wrote from Jerusalem to the Antiochians."

In 2 *Cor.* viii. 23. we read of persons called ἀπόστολοι ἐκκλησίᾳ, and in *Philipp.* ii. 25. St. Paul calls Epaphroditus ἱερέα ἀποστόλου, which, coupled as it is with the character "ἡγουμένον τῆς ἐκκλησίᾳ, μὲν," minister to my wants "has been rendered "your messenger." Now even if Chrysostom, Theodoret, and Theophylact did not assert that Epaphroditus was the Apostle of the Philippians in the sense of his being their Bishop, we might have concluded so from the analogy of the language of the New Testament; for the genitive case coupled with the word ἀπόστολος, as in the instance ἀπόστολος ἐκκλησίᾳ, in two most remarkable instances is so far from implying that the persons called ἀπόστολοι, were messengers sent by the persons expressed in the genitive case, that they on the contrary mean persons sent to them. St. Paul calls himself ἀπόστολος ἰσραὴλ. *Rom.* xi. 23. "a messenger from Christ," and from the Gentiles, but sent to the Gentiles. And in *Galat.* ii. 8. the office of Peter is described as ἐπιστολὴ τῆς κηρυξέως, the Apostleship over the circumcision; for neither Paul nor Peter could be in any sense spoken of, as having received commission from the Jews or from the Gentiles. If then ἀπόστολος ἰσραὴλ mean an office of authority over the Gentiles, the analogy of language would justify our interpreting ἀπόστολος ἐκκλησίᾳ and ἀπόστολος ἱερέα, as of persons, not messengers, but holding offices of authority. To this observation we may add, that the rebuke given, *Rev.* ii. 2. to those persons who falsely called themselves Apostles, proves that the word *Apostle* must have been used of others, besides the twelve: for if it meant only such an Apostle, or messenger, as some would assert Epaphroditus to have been, who carried money or letters, from the church; it seems very strange, either that such an office should have been one which persons could desire falsely to assume, or that the assumption of it should have been deemed worthy of notice in the *Book of Revelations*.

IV. James, the Lord's brother, was Bishop at Jerusalem.

Let us now examine what evidence we have for our belief, that James, who is described by St. Paul (*Galatians*, l. 19.) as "the Lord's brother," and "one of the Apostles," was really Bishop of Jerusalem. Eusebius, l. xi. c. 1. quotes the following passage from the sixth book of the *ἰστορίαι, or Institutions of Clemens*

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BISHOP. Alexandrianus, "Πέτρον γὰρ φησὶ (sc. Clemens) καὶ Ἰάκωβον καὶ Ἰωάννην μετὰ τὴν ἀνέλθειν τὸν Σωτῆρα, ὃς δὲ καὶ ἐν τῷ Κυρίῳ προσηγορευόμενος ῥητέρι δὲ καθύπερθε δόξης ἀλλὰ Ἰάκωβον τὸν ἱεραὸν ἐτίθειον τὸν ἱεροδιδάσκον Διδόταν." "Peter, James and John, although pre-eminently distinguished by our Lord, did not, after the Lord's ascension, contend for the honour, but appointed James the Just Bishop of Jerusalem." In c. 23. of the same book of Eusebius, *Iust. Eccles.* we find another quotation from Hegesippus, a writer in the middle of the second century, which is in exact accordance with the testimony of Clemens. "Διεδέχεναι δὲ (says Hegesippus) τὴν ἐκκλησίαν μετὰ τὴν ἀποστολὴν ἡ ἀρχιερεὶς τὸν Κυρίον Ἰάκωβον, ὃ ἀνταρθεὶς ὑπὸ πάντων Διδόταν." "James surmounted the Just undertook the government of the church together with the Apostles." Where it is to be observed that μετὰ with a genitive case, means "at the same time with" and not "after," as it would, coupled with an accusative case. Vide Routh, *Rel. Sacra*, vol. I. p. 219. That Eusebius understood Hegesippus to mean this, is evident from I. iii. c. xi. of *Iust. Eccles.* where he says, "it is reported after the martyrdom of James and the destruction of Jerusalem, the Apostles, and others of our Lord's disciples, who were yet alive, came together from all parts to deliberate on the choice of a successor to James, and determined with one consent, that Simeon was the proper person to fill the chair of that diocese, or, as it is expressed, τὴν τῆν ἀπὸ τοῦ θρόνου ἀξίαν ἵνα διαδεχάται. Some of the Apostles were therefore living when Simeon succeeded. Cyril, who was himself Bishop of Jerusalem, further confirms this opinion, for he speaks distinctly of James as "Οὐρανὸς ἐκκλησίας Ἐπίσκοπος," and "πρῶτον ἡμεῶν Ἐπίσκοπος." (cat. 4. cat. 16.) To the same purpose are the united testimonies of Augustin (I. xi. cont. *Lit. Petil.* c. 15.) Epiphanius (*Heret.* 66.) Jerome (*Lib. de Scriptur. Eccles.*) Chrysostom (*Hom.* 38. and Ambrose in *Gulst.* If we put the whole of this accumulated evidence at the lowest point, it will amount to this, that the fathers of the fourth century believed, and the writers of the second century, Clemens and Hegesippus asserted, that James the Just, who is called the Lord's brother, was Bishop of Jerusalem. We readily admit that if a single syllable of direct evidence to the contrary existed in Scripture, it would invalidate all the force even of this united testimony; but so far is this from being the case, that the historical information given us, by the fathers of the church, of James's office and authority, renders plain and intelligible every thing which in the *Acts of the Apostles* is recorded respecting him. In what other way shall we account for his presiding in the Council at Jerusalem, when Peter himself was present, and summing up the arguments adduced with the authoritative sentence, "Διὰ τὸ ἐγὼ κρίνω," "wherefore I judge" or "give sentence." In *Gal.* ii. 11, 12. St. Paul speaks of persons coming from James to Antioch, "πρὸ τοῦ γὰρ εἰδέναι τινὰς ἐκ τῶν Ἰακώβου." The comment of St. Austin upon the passage explains the expression "Cum vidisset quosdam venisse a Jacobo, i. e. Judea, nam Hierosolymitana ecclesie Jacobus presidebat." "When he Peter saw that some were come from James, i. e. from Judea, for James was over the church at Jerusalem." To this if we add, that when Peter was delivered out of prison and came to the house of Mary the mother of John, before his going away to Caesarea, he told them to tell those

things "to James and the brethren," and that when Paul and his companions arrived at Jerusalem, they are described as "going in unto James and the brethren the following day;" we think it must be evident that the accounts which the Scriptures contain of the acts of James, and the deference paid to him by Paul and Peter, so completely agree with the statements made by the fathers, of his being Bishop of Jerusalem, as to leave little doubt of their truth. We must not pass on without observing, that however the controverted point respecting the identity or distinction between James the Just, called the Lord's brother, and James the son of Alphaeus, one of the twelve, may be decided, it no ways affects the truth of our position: for if it be determined that James the Apostle is the James described as "the Lord's brother," then we have this fact, that so entirely did the Episcopate of James eclipse the splendour of his Apostleship, that he was more known to the fathers by the title of Bishop of Jerusalem than by that of Apostle; and if on the other hand it be found, that James the Just was not one of the twelve, we come to this conclusion, that other persons were called Apostles besides the twelve, and that this title was given to one, whom the voice of antiquity asserts to have been ordained Bishop by some of the twelve.

We shall next briefly notice the accounts left to us of Epiphroditus, because to him as well as to James the title of *ἐπίσκοπος* appears to have been given. Theodoret and Chrysostom both relate that he was Bishop of Philippi. If they rested their account upon the known history of the church at Philippi, it is evident that they record a tradition of the existence of Episcopacy in the time of the Apostles, and confirm by it our position that Episcopacy is of Apostolic institution; but supposing that they did not receive their information from any historical source, the only ground on which they could conclude what they assert respecting him to be true, was their knowledge, that at first Bishops were called Apostles, and finding that St. Paul calls him in the *Epistle to the Philippians*, "your Apostle," they interpreted the meaning of the expression as equivalent to "your Bishop." Both Timothy and Titus are called by ancient writers Apostles, but more commonly Bishops. The epistles which St. Paul addressed to them, are proofs that they were commissioned by him with authority to govern their respective churches; and which is the distinguishing character of Episcopacy, to ordain spiritual persons for the due performance of the offices of religion. Eusebius, I. iii. c. 4. of *Ecd. Hist.* relates it not as an opinion of his own, but as matter of history that Timothy was Bishop of Ephesus: his words "Τιμόθεον γὰρ μὲν τῆν ἐν Ἐφέσῳ παροικίαν Ἰουδαίους πρῶτον τὴν ἐπισκοπὴν ἐλάβεν." And it is the concurrent testimony of Tertullian (*contra Marcion.* I. iv.) Chrysostom (*Hom.* x. in 1 tom.) Theodoret and Ambrose (*in Epist.*) Epiphanius (*Heret.* 75.) that the *Epistle to Timothy* was written not only to instruct him in the duties of his office, but other Bishops who should succeed him. The general Council of Chalcedon (A. D. 451.) further testifies the belief of the Church respecting the fact of Timothy presiding at Ephesus as Bishop; for it is recorded in the acts of that Council, (*Council.* tome iv. p. 609.) that twenty-seven Bishops had sat in that chair, of whom Timothy was the first. The same fathers here quoted, and generally in the same passages

Acts, xv. 19.
Acts, xii. ver. 17.

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Acts, xii. 18.

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V. Of the testimony of Ignatius.

The epistles of Ignatius form so important a link in the chain of evidence which we adduce in support of the Apostolic origin of Episcopacy, that we deem it right to draw the attention of our readers to them, by making a full statement of the testimonies which he has left us in support of our position. Ignatius was Bishop at Antioch, and suffered martyrdom about A. D. 112. He had governed the church from the time of Evodius, the first Bishop, forty years: he is reported by Chrysostom to have lived upon terms of intimacy with the Apostles, and to have been instructed by them in the nature of the Christian religion; and so convinced were the people of his time that he was in habits of the most frequent intercourse with the first founders of our holy religion, that a tradition existed respecting him of his having been one of the children whom our blessed Lord took up in his arms and blessed. There are extant several of his epistles, written on his way to Rome, where he was martyred, in which he gives the strongest testimony of the superiority of the Episcopal order, the most remarkable passages are these. In his *Epistle to the Ephesians*, he speaks of the honour of the Bishop as closely connected with the honour of the Church; of their being subject to the Bishop and the Presbytery; of Bishops appointed throughout the world; he exhorts the Presbytery to agree with the Bishop, and compares the Bishop to a lyre, the chords of which are the Presbyters; and in this epistle distinct mention is made of Onesimus being Bishop of Ephesus. In his *Epistle to the Magnesians* he again enforces the authority of the Bishop Damas, and exhorts them as holy Presbyters not to abuse the youth of their Bishop, but to treat him with reverence; he speaks of the Bishop presiding over them in the place of God, the Presbyters as representing the assembly of the Apostles, and the Deacons as persons intrusted with the ministry of Christ; he prays them to reverence each other, and to be united with the Bishop and those who have preeminence; to do nothing without the concurrence of the Bishop and the Presbyters: he speaks most distinctly of the Bishop, and the submission of the two other orders to him. In the *Epistle to the Trallians* the same advice is repeated, to reverence the Bishop and the Presbyters, with this remarkable addition, "without them there is no church, χωρίς τούτων ἐκκλησία οὐ καλεῖται." In his *Epistles to the Churches at Philadelphia and Smyrna* the same principles are plainly developed, but in the latter epistle he is still more distinct in his assertion of the Bishop's authority, *ἀλλοις χωρίς τὸν ἐπισκοπὸν οὐ συνάμεται τὸν ἀρχιερέα ἐν τῇ ἐκκλησίᾳ λέγει βασιλὰ ἀρχιερέα ἡγούμενον ἢ τὸν τὸν ἐπισκοπὸν οὐκ, ὃς ἐν αὐτῇ ἐστρέφεται. . . . ἐν τῇ ἐκκλ. χωρίς τὸν ἐπισκοπὸν οὐκ συναγόμενοι οὐκ ἀγαπᾷται ποιεῖν.* "Let no one do any thing in matters pertaining to the Church without the Bishop: let that be surely deemed the Eucharist, which is celebrated either by the Bishop or by one whom he allows, without the Bishop it is not lawful either to baptize, or to celebrate the love-feast." These epistles were written

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on his journey to Rome; they were his farewell warnings to churches which he was never to see again; and it was natural for one who was a Bishop, and had experienced the benefit of ecclesiastical order, to press upon his readers, both clergy and laity, the necessity of submission to each other. There is, however, another epistle extant, addressed to the Romans, before his arrival in their city, in which he speaks of himself as a Bishop of Syria brought to the western part of the empire, of his willingness to die, and prays that Christ will govern the church of Ephesus in the stead of its Bishop; thus testifying in the plainest manner the nature of his authority over that church.

Note. The authenticity of the epistles of Ignatius having been made a subject of dispute, the evidence which they afford of any particular fact, is proportionally weakened. As far as concerns the opponents of Episcopacy, it makes no great difference how the question of authenticity may be determined; for if the concurrent evidence of all the writers of the Christian church in the first ages of Christianity from Irenaeus downwards, is not deemed conclusive of its Apostolical origin of the order of Bishops; the additional testimony of Ignatius will not be considered by such persons of any great moment.

VI. The argument in support of the Apostolical institution of Episcopacy, as adduced from the evidence afforded by the history of the Christian church may be arranged in the following manner, from which it will be evident that even making the admission, that the evidence of the Scriptures taken singly is ambiguous, such proof remains of the antiquity of the institution, as to leave no doubt who were its authors.

1. The existence of Episcopacy, as a distinct order, is proved by the epistles of Ignatius, A. D. 112.

2. Irenaeus, A. D. 180, expressly says, that Linus was ordained Bishop of Rome by the Apostles: that Hyginus was the ninth Bishop in succession from the Apostles, and Eleutherius the twelfth from the Apostles.

3. Clemens Alexandrinus, A. D. 192, in his treatise, "*Quis dices subletrus*," asserts (Eusebius, iii. 23.) that John, the beloved Apostle, when settled at Ephesus, went about the neighbouring regions and ordained Bishops.

4. Tertullian, A. D. 207, challenges the Heretics to show a succession of "Bishops, derived from the times of the Apostles." *Sicut Smyrnaeum ecclesia Polycarpum ab Iohanne colloquium refert, sicut Romanorum Clementem, a Petro ordinatum esse. Praeinde atque cetera exhibent quos ab Apostolis in Episcopatum constitutos Apostolici seminis traducere habent.*

5. Cyprian, Ep. 68, et alibi declares the establishment of Episcopacy to have originated in the gift of the power of the keys, that the Church was founded upon the Bishops, and that they continued in succession by Apostolic appointment.

6. The testimony of Irenaeus and Tertullian, that the Apostles ordained a Bishop at Rome, is confirmed by all the fathers of the fourth century, Eusebius, Epiphanius, Hieronymus, Rufinus, Optatus, Augustin Chrysostom, who all assert that the Apostles appointed Bishops, and call the Bishops successors of the Apostles.

7. It was believed as early as the middle of the second century, that James the Apostle, the son of

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BISHOP. Cleophas, who is called the Lord's brother, was Bishop of Jerusalem. The fathers of the church also testify that Timothy and Titus were Bishops respectively of Ephesus and Crete.

8. In Eusebius there exist catalogues of Bishops up to the times of the Apostles at Jerusalem, Antioch, Alexandria, Rome, Jerusalem, Laodicea, and Cæsarea.

9. In addition to these testimonies of early writers, we may remark, that the government by Bishops was so universal in the three first centuries, that not one instance can be produced during that period, nor any instance at all until the time of the Reformation, of any Christian church, professing the pure faith, which was not governed by Bishops.

10. There is another circumstance worthy of remark:—whence could it happen, that all the Christian churches in the world, scattered over Europe, Asia, and Africa, should be found in the second and third centuries with exactly the same orders of clergy, possessing every where the same distinctions, unless at the time of their foundation, one and the same form of administration were given by those who planted them. In the thousands of cities which were blessed with the knowledge of Christianity, to find one and the same ecclesiastical regimen, after a period of two hundred years, can only be accounted for by the supposition, that they had at their first foundation a system of government, which was maintained and respected for the holiness and authority of those who established it.

11. It is a moral impossibility either that all the cities of the empire should, when left to themselves, and to the free exercise of their choice, have chosen one and the same form of Church government, or that, if the same form of Presbytery was every where prescribed, they should all without an exception have changed it for the Episcopal form, without any the least historical record of that change of polity, and without leaving a hint to posterity of any hesitation in making the change, on the part of those who must have been attached to previous institutions and unwilling to admit of innovations.

Lastly, with the voice of antiquity, thus strongly in our favour, in the entire absence of all proof of the existence of a Presbyterial church, in the annals of Christendom before the Reformation, and relying upon a mass of evidence, so plain and powerful, as must convince any unprejudiced person, that no form of Church government is so ancient as the Episcopal, we hesitate not to assert our firm belief, that the Apostles, whilst they planted the true faith of Christ in the cities of the empire, did at the same time provide for the external government of that spiritual society, the Church, by appointing persons with regular authority to govern as well as to instruct the flock when the Apostles should be removed from them; and we further profess to believe, that that form of polity did, as nearly as possible, resemble the present form of the Church of England, and consisted of three distinct orders, Bishops, Presbyters, and Deacons.

VII. Heresy of Aërius.

It is remarkable that during the whole period from the first establishment of the Christian Church, till the revival of pure religion at the Reformation,

BISHOP. Church government never appears to have been the subject of controversy. The whole world seems to have submitted, without any symptom of dislike, much less of resistance, to the authority of Bishops, as early as the middle of the second century: a fact, which even the opponents of Episcopacy admit without hesitation, and in the subsequent ages, if we except the Heresy of Aërius, and some disputed opinions of Jerome, not a trace is to be met with of any sentiments in the various writers of those times, in the slightest degree opposed to the principles we have here espoused. The opinion maintained by Aërius respecting Church government is stated by Epiphanius, *Heret. 75*, who says, that Aërius was alive at the time of his writing, and from him, as well as from Augustin, it would appear that Aërius held Arian principles respecting the Divine nature; but that which rendered him particularly obnoxious to the censure of Epiphanius, is his assertion of the equality of Bishops and Presbyters. Epiphanius refutes this opinion by shewing that Bishops, whom he calls, *ἐπίσκοποι*, had the power of ordaining ministers, and thus begetting, as it were, *fathers* in the Church: but the Presbyters could only, by their power of baptizing, bring sons to the Church, not fathers or governors. Epiphanius further answers Aërius by shewing, that Timothy, being a Bishop, was commissioned by Paul to exercise authority over an Elder, which could not have been if a Bishop and Presbyter were the same thing, and the Bishop had not the greater power. But there is one observation of Epiphanius in reply to an objection of Aërius, which if it could be depended upon, on his single testimony, it would throw much light on the constitution of the Church in the Apostolic age. He says, as of a fact known only to those who had thoroughly investigated the history of the Church, that at the first preaching of the Gospel the three orders of clergy were not immediately appointed in each place by the Apostles; if there happened to be no one in a city worthy a Bishopric, they were contented with Presbyters and Deacons, but where necessity required, and a fit person could be found, there Bishops were appointed. Where, however, the number was small, and there was a deficiency of persons for the Presbytery, then they were contented with a Bishop and a Deacon, for a Bishop must always have a Deacon.

VIII. Jerome's opinions.

The opponents of Episcopacy have supported their arguments by the opinions of Jerome. The theological student will find a full statement of them in Hammond's *Dissertations*, ii. §2, §3, §9. on the right of Bishops, we shall only here observe, that Jerome no where impugns the authority of Bishops, as an encroachment on the right of Presbyters, or states their power to be unlawful; that he distinctly acknowledges the Bishops to be distinguished from the Presbyters by the power of ordination; and further, though he speaks of the first appointment of Bishops, as the raising of one of the Presbyters over the rest for the purpose of preventing disputes and schisms, yet he states this to have taken place in the times of the Apostles, so that if we weigh fairly together all the passages which may bear on this subject, in his writings, it is scarcely possible not to

BISHOP. come to this conclusion, that Jerome believed the existence of Presbyters to be prior to that of Bishops, but that the order of Bishops was of Apostolic institution, and was distinct from, and superior to the Presbyters.

IX. It may not be improper to add in this place a few remarks on the loss of the order of Bishops which took place in the Lutheran, and Calvinistic churches at the period of the Reformation. In England the most vehement attack on the order of Bishops, both with respect to the exercise of temporal and spiritual jurisdiction, was made during the troubles which attended the reign of Charles I.; but we must not judge from the conduct of those who were so earnest for erecting the Calvinistic discipline in England of the principles and views which Luther and Calvin held on the subject of Church government. Episcopacy was lost, not rejected by the Reformers in Germany; it was their misfortune that not more than one or two Bishops throughout Germany adhered to them, and these, being compelled to abdicate their office, did not survive to give their aid in preserving the Episcopal order, by ordaining others to succeed them. Whatever reproaches Luther may have cast upon the Popish Bishops, for their pride and cruelty and resistance of the truth; and much as he contributed to degrade the order itself, by his arraignment of the crimes of those who belonged to it, his opinions upon the authority of the order, and his general views respecting it are evident from the concluding clause of the Augustan Confession; a document which being framed with care and designed for public examination, has been upon other points considered as good evidence for the sentiments of the Reformers. "*Nunc non igitur ad dominum eripitur Episcopatus sed hoc unum petitur ut patularum Evangelium pure doceri et relaxentur paucæ quædam observationes quæ sine peccato servari non possunt quod si ab illis remissionem ipsi valerint quomodo Deo rationem reddiderint sint, quod pertinet ad causam schismatici præbent.*" "Our view is not to deprive the Bishops of their government, but we ask them to allow the Gospel to be purely preached, and to relax some few observances which cannot be maintained without sin. But if they do not yield at all, let them look to it, and think what excuse they will make to God for causing a schism by their obstinacy." Neither does it appear that the rise of the Presbyterian discipline, which includes in it the government of Lay Elders, was owing to any hostility founded on principle, against Episcopacy in general, but originated in a peculiar combination of circumstances, which prevented the establishment of Episcopacy, and of which Calvin took advantage to frame a form of Church polity suited to the wants of the Society of Christians at Geneva. In Strype's *Life of Archbishop Parker*, book x. p. 11: is the opinion of Calvin in favour of Episcopacy is shewn from a passage in his book *De necessitate reformandæ Ecclesiæ*, in which are these words "Let them give us such an hierarchy in which the Bishops may be so above the rest, as they refuse not to be under Christ, and depend upon him as their only head. If there be any that do not behave themselves with all reverence and obedience towards them, there is no anathema, but I confess them worthy of it." Strype in the same place refers to a statement of Archbishop Abbott, who found from Archbishop Parker's papers, evidence that Calvin and

others of the Protestant churches of Germany would have had Episcopacy if circumstances had permitted. In England and in Sweden where the King and the nobles went hand in hand with the Bishops at the Reformation, Episcopacy was preserved without difficulty. In Denmark under Christian III. the order was maintained not without violation of Episcopal succession; for when the Bishops opposed themselves both to the reformation of religion and the authority of the King, Christian expelled them from their Bishopsrics, and by the assistance of Bugenhagen, whom he sent for on purpose, ordained other persons to the vacant sees. In Scotland, Episcopacy rather withered than was altogether rejected. The discipline established by Knox, was a compound of the Lutheran superintendents and the Calvinistic Presbytery. Had the Bishops like those in England joined heartily in forwarding the Reformation, Episcopacy would have withstood the hostility of Andrew Melville, and the Church of Scotland would have escaped all those evils of perpetual strife and dispute which ended in the complete expulsion of the Bishops in the time of Charles I.

X. Bishops in England.

The number of Bishops in England, including the two Archbishops is twenty-seven. The province of Canterbury includes twenty-two dioceses; viz. Canterbury, London, Winchester, Bangor, Bath and Wells, Bristol, Chichester, Ely, Exeter, Gloucester, Hereford, Lichfield and Coventry, Lincoln, Llandaff, Norwich, Oxford, Peterborough, Rochester, Salisbury, St. Asaph, St. David's, Worcester. The province of York includes five, viz. York, Durham, Chester, Carlisle, Sodor and Man. The spiritual functions which are the peculiar distinctions of the order, are those of ordination and confirmation. They also have a power of governing the clergy of their respective dioceses, of admonishing, and suspending ecclesiastical persons from the performance of the services of the Church. They institute to benefices upon the presentation of the patrons, but if the presentation belong to the Bishop, the act of institution is then termed collation. They license persons to serve as Curates, either to assist the resident minister of parishes, or to supply their absence. They have power to call the clergy to reside on their benefices under severe penalties for non compliance; and to license them to be absent from their cures under special circumstances either of privilege or of personal necessity. A Bishop's power is confined to his own diocese. He is assisted in his duty by his Archdeacons, who are termed by the Canon law the "Bishop's Eyes." The Bishop by his Archdeacons visits his diocese every year, and generally in person every three years, at which time confirmations are held; during the Bishop's personal visitations the power of his Archdeacon is suspended.

With regard to the manner in which Bishops are appointed, it is manifest that in England and Ireland the power of nomination actually lies in the crown. In England the form of an election by the Dean and Chapter of the Cathedral church is still preserved; but the King appoints Bishops in the Church of Ireland not by nomination to a chapter, but by letters patent under the Great Seal. Before the time of

BISHOP. Henry I. the investiture of a Bishopric was given by the King, *per traditionem annali et baruli*, the ring denoting the marriage of the Bishop to the Church, the staff his pastoral office; but the power of the Court of Rome increasing, drew from Henry and from John, grants, that in future the donation of the Bishoprics should be elective by the Chapter or Convent, which submission was in fact a gift to the Pope, through the means of his agents the monks, of the presentation to every Bishopric to the kingdom. Things remained in this state until the twenty-fifth year of the reign of Henry the VIII.; when by an Act of Parliament the payment of first fruits to the Pope was forbidden, and the power of nomination was recovered to the King; the elective process by the Chapter still continuing under an old form of license to elect, called *congé d'élire*, by the same act it was declared, that the Pope's bull was unnecessary to confirm the election, provided that the Bishop were of the King's nomination. The absurdity of an election by a Dean and Chapter when only one person was nominated, became so glaring that in the 1 Edward VI. it was declared that such elections by *congé d'élire*, being only shadows of elections and derogatory to the King's prerogative, to whom the gift and collation to all Bishoprics belonged, the King should be empowered to nominate by his letters patent the person who should be consecrated Bishop to any particular diocese. This law was repealed by a statute of Mary, and the statute of Mary was again repealed by Queen Elizabeth; but the Act 25 Henry VIII. which prescribed the form of *congé d'élire*, being expressly revived by that Act of Elizabeth and the Act of Edward I. being passed over in silence, hence it happens that the form of election by *congé d'élire* still remains. The mode of appointment to Bishoprics in the most ancient times was undoubtedly by popular suffrage: this is a point much disputed, but seems to be of no great moment, for whether the person be nominated by the King or by the people it can in no way affect the authority which he afterwards receives by consecration. The elections to Bishoprics were purely popular for the first three centuries, in the fourth and fifth centuries the Emperors began to interfere, owing to the great tumults which frequently took place. At the Council at Arles, 452, a canon was made which directed the Bishops to choose three candidates for the vacant chair out of whom the clergy and people might select one. And by other laws, the clergy and people on the contrary were directed to choose three out of whom the Bishops selected one by lot, this was the rule in the Spanish Church at the time of the Council of Barcelona, a. n. 599. Justinian also in his Novel, 123, c. 1. directed that the clergy and chief men should choose three, and the ordaining Bishop select one of them. During the breaking up of the Roman Empire the consent of the Gothic Kings in France and Spain began to be asked by way of compliment, which gave rise to the custom of more modern times which has given the entire nomination to the King. The age at which persons are qualified to be made Bishops in the English church is thirty: in the Council of Agde 506, we find the first distinct limitation of the age to be thirty years; but it is manifest from the accounts given by Eusebius, Ambrose, Socrates, and Theodoret of the ordination of several eminent persons at an earlier period, that the rule was in their time not observed.

BISHOP. In the present age the Bishops are always selected from the Presbyters, and such was the general custom as early as Cyprian's time; but instances are met with of Decians made Bishops, as Theodoret and Epiphanius report of Athanasius; and what will appear yet more strange, of laymen at once raised to the Episcopal chair, as Paulinus and all the historians relate of Ambrose; Socrates and Sozomen of Neoterius, and Pontius of Cyrrus. Nazienzen also relates that Eusebius, Bishop of Cæsarea was only a Catechumen when elected. In the third and fourth centuries the Bishops had the disposal of the revenues of the Church, so things remained until the time of Justinian, a. n. 500, when began the practice of endowing particular churches with lands, a custom which as it increased the power of the clergy as a body, has tended certainly much to diminish the authority of Bishops, by rendering the clergy independent of the Bishops' support. Three Bishops were required by the most ancient canons to concur in the act of consecration of a Bishop, a custom still preserved in our Church. The Bishop elect being presented to the presiding Bishop by two others. Upon the power of ordination which is the exclusive right of the Episcopal order, nothing more need be said than that it still remains to the Bishops as it did in the first ages; it being admitted that that power has been all along exercised by them, and that the Presbyters though they join in laying hands on a Presbyter, yet cannot ordain without the Bishop: upon the rite of Confirmation which is exclusively administered by the Bishop, see CONFIRMATION.

XI. Temporal privileges of the Bishops.

The Bishops of England are by virtue of their Bishoprics, Lords of Parliament, and form part of one of the three estates of Parliament, under the name of the Lords Spiritual. They sit in the upper house as holding or being supposed to hold Baronies of the King; for William the Conqueror changed the spiritual tenure of frank alms or free alms, under which the Bishops held their lands during the Saxon government, into the feudal or Norman tenure by barony, which subjected their estates to all civil charges and assessment from which they were before exempt; and in right of succession to those baronies, which were unalienable from their respective dignities, the Bishops and Abbots were allowed their seats in the House of Lords. Bishops take rank next to Viscounts. A difference however exists in the privileges of the Bishops, as respects their being tried by their peers upon indictment for treason, or felony, or misprision of either; and sitting upon such trials in the Court of the Lord High Steward, from this privilege they are excluded on the ground of not being noble in blood. Custom has also practically excluded them from sitting on trials for capital offences, upon impeachments or indictments in full parliament. They have usually withdrawn voluntarily in such cases, but have entered a protest expressing their right to stay.

The Archbishop of Canterbury is styled *Metropolitano et Primus totius Angliæ*. The Archbishop of York, *Primus et Metropolitano Angliæ*. They are called Metropolitans because they were at first consecrated in the metropolis of their province. The

BISHOP. Archbishop of Canterbury hath precedence before all the nobility of the realm, immediately after the blood royal, he hath the privilege of crowning the King of England, and hath Prelates for his officers. The Bishop of London is his provincial Dean, the Bishop of Winchester his Chanceller, the Bishop of Lincoln his Vice-Chanceller, the Bishop of Salisbury his Precentor, the Bishop of Worcester his Chaplain. He hath the power of dispensation in any case not contrary to the law of God, and on this right is founded his power of granting special licenses to marry at any time or place, to hold two livings and the like, and also his power of conferring any degrees in prejudice of the Universities. The Archbishop of York is next in precedence; he hath precedence before all Dukes out of the blood royal, and before all the great officers of state except the Lord Chancellor. He hath the privilege to crown the Queen Consort, and to be her perpetual Chaplain. The Bishop of Durham is next, the Bishop of Winchester next, the remainder according to their seniority of consecration. But if any be a Privy Counsellor he ranks after the Bishop of Durham.

A *Suffragan* is a Titular Bishop advanced to assist the Bishop of any diocese in his spiritual function, or one who supplies the place of the Bishop, so that by his *suffrage* matters committed to him are determined. They are regulated by an Act of Henry VIII. (26 Hen. VIII. c. 14.) By this act every Bishop at his pleasure may present two honest and discreet spiritual persons within his diocese to the King, that he may give one of them the title, style, and dignity of any of the following sees: Thetford, Ipswich, Colchester, Dover, Guildford, Southampton, Taunton, Shaftbury, Moulton, Marlborough, Bradford, Leicester, Gloucester, Shrewsbury, Bristol, Perth, Bridgewater, Nottingham, Grantham, Hull, Huntingdon, Cambridge, Perth, Berwick, St. Germain, and the Isle of Wight.

In Ireland there are four Archbishops: Armagh, Primate of all Ireland; Dublin, Primate of Ireland; Cashel, Primate of Munster; Tuam, Primate of Connaught. And eighteen Bishops: Meath, Kildare, Derry, Raphoe, Limerick, Ardfert and Aghadane, Dromore, Elphin, Down and Connor, Waterford and Lismore, Leighlin and Ferns, Cloyne, Cork and Ross, Killaloe and Killesnoe, Kilmurree, Clugher, Ossory, Killaloe and Acherilly, Clonfert and Kilmacduagh. By an Act 18 Car. I. c. 10. a Bishopric in Ireland is declared incompatible with any ecclesiastical dignity or benefice in England or Wales.

The Church of England also has Bishops of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and Calcutta.

BISHOPS AND OTHER CLERKS, a cluster of dangerous rocky islets off the west coast of Pembroke, the furthest promontory of South Wales, at the south entrance of St. George's Channel. They are not inhabited, but two or three of them afford pasture for a few sheep, the others merely serve as retreats for vast numbers of sea fowls, which the inhabitants of the adjacent coast catch for the sake of their down. These were found so dangerous to vessels passing this part, that a light-house was erected there in 1777. It is about four miles west of St. David's; about 51° 53' north latitude, and 5° 19' west longitude.

BISHOP BIRD, in Zoology, the name of the *Tanager* *Episcopus*.

BISHOP'S CASTLE, a borough town in Shropshire, where formerly the Bishops of Hereford resided. The town is irregularly built on a declivity adjoining the river Clun, and contains few objects worthy of notice. It returns two members in Parliament. The church is a vicarage, is the gift of the Earl of Powis. Population, in 1821, 1880.

BISHOP'S STORTFORD, an ancient town in Hertfordshire on the river Stort. The manor belongs to the Bishop of London. King John wrested it from the see, and erected it into a borough, which returned two members to Parliament, as late as the 14th of Edward III. The authority of the Bishops was afterwards restored, but the castle of which some remains are yet standing, had been demolished. Nevertheless even in James I. time the Bishop of London appointed a keeper of the castle and garrison of Stortford, and quit-rents for the castle guard are still paid by many of the adjacent manors. The church is a vicarage is the gift of the Precentor of St. Paul's London. Population, 1821, 3368, chiefly employed in the malting trade.

BISHOP THORPE, ST. ANNEW'S THORPE, THORPE ON THE OUSE, a small village in Yorkshire, distinguished as the residence of the Archbishop of York. The palace was originally built by Archbishop Walter de Grey, in the reign of King John. The church is a vicarage, in the gift of the Archbishop. Population, in 1821, 301.

BISHOP'S WALTHAM, a town in Hampshire, with a manor and chase of the same name, which, as far back as the compiling of *Domesday Book*, has been stated to have belonged, from time immemorial, in the see of Winchester. "*Semper fuit de Episcopatu.*" Here are the remains of a palace, built originally by Bishop Henry de Bois, brother to King Stephen, but indebted for its subsequent magnificence to William of Wykeham, who made it his favourite residence and died in it. It was demolished in the Civil wars, but the ruins still testify its grandeur. The town trades largely in leather. Population, in 1821, 2126.

In the early part of last century a desperate gang of deer stealers infested this neighbourhood; their outrages were committed under the disguise of blackened faces, whence they acquired the name of *Waltham Blacks*. Severe measures became necessary in order to suppress their atrocities, and a special act of Parliament was framed against them, in the ninth of George II. A. D. 1723, enforcing more felonies than are enumerated in any other statute. This act is still commonly known by the name of the *Black Act*.

BISHOP WEARMOUTH, an ancient town of the county of Durham, so closely adjoining Sunderland that they may be considered as one. Bishop Wearmouth stands on an acclivity, south of the river Wear about a mile and a half distant from its junction with the sea. The church is of Saxon origin, though little of its more ancient architecture can at present be distinguished. The living is a rectory, in the gift of the Bishop of Durham. Population, in 1821, 11542.

BISHOP'S WEEN, the English name of the genus *Amni*.

BISMUTH BISMUTH, a yellowish, or slightly reddish white metal, which is brittle, and fusible at a low temperature, when compared with other metals.

It forms very fusible alloys with other metals, and hence it enters into the composition of soft solders. An alloy of eight parts of Bismuth, five of lead, and three of tin, will melt at a lower temperature than that of boiling water.

But while it increases the fusibility of other metals by its combination with them, it renders them less malleable. The ductility of gold is said to be destroyed by the addition of a very minute quantity of Bismuth. It is employed in the composition of pewter, and its oxide is used to increase the fusibility of glass.

It occurs as a mineral most commonly in its metallic state, and sometimes combined with sulphur.

BISON, in *Zoology*, a name of the American Buffalo or *Bos Bison*.

BISSAOS, **BURAGOS**, or **BIJUAOS**, the name of an archipelago, on the western coast of Africa, consisting of two groups of islands, near the mouth of the Rio Grande, to the south of Cabo Roxo, and the river Cachéo. They stretch more than forty leagues from north-west to south-east, and are inaccessible on the western side, on account of extensive shoals ill laid down in our charts. A channel, about five leagues in width, separates them from the larger islands and the main land; and this passage is called the Bijuga Channel. It is nearly fifty leagues in length, and has a depth of water sufficient for the largest ships. The number of the islands forming this archipelago has never been accurately determined, but thirteen of the western group are said to be inhabited. They are low, never more than forty feet above the level of the sea, and probably alluvial, formed from the mud deposited by the great rivers of the neighbouring continent. The acknowledged fertility of their soil renders this way of accounting for their origin highly probable. Of the western group, Warang, Cazequot, Bulama, and Canabac are the most remarkable; but they are not near so large as the eastern islands, which are separated from the main land only by very narrow channels. Proceeding, as before, from north to south, we have among the latter Jatte, Bussis, and Bissao.

The inhabitants of these islands are said to be Papels; a race occupying that portion of the main land, which is comprehended between the rivers of Géba and Cachéo. They are courageous and fond of war; but cruel and perfidious. Their arms are a long guo and a sword four feet in length, kept literally as sharp as a razor. A convex shield, made of withies and covered with buffalo hide, is the defensive weapon; and in the use of all their arms they are very dexterous. They are constantly at war with their continental neighbours, but are fortunately so ignorant of navigation as not to know the use of sails, and therefore seldom venture far from home. In person they are tall and well proportioned; bony, muscular, active, and powerful. They have thinner lips and flatter noses than their neighbours, good teeth, which they sometimes file to a point (as is occasionally done in the interior) and woolly hair, which they cut fantastically and dress with pulu oil and red ochre. Their dress consists of a slight girdle in summer, and a goat's skin in the winter; and the women are scarcely distinguished from the men by any article of dress

except a broader belt made of the shreds of palm leaves. The Papels and Bissagos are all idolaters. They sacrifice fowls and even oxen on extraordinary occasions, and draw omens from the inspection of their entrails. They have also as much faith in grigris or charms written by the Mendigo Priests, as the Mussulmans themselves. The soil is so productive, and their wants so few, that they have little need to trouble themselves about agriculture, so that only a few days in the year are devoted to such occupations. Rice, the tropical seeds and roots, fruit and vegetables; palms, which supply them with meat and drink, house and clothing; and fish, of which they are extremely fond, are abundant, and obtained with little or no labour. Tobacco and brandy are foreign luxuries in which they delight, and the slave trade probably affords them still, as it certainly did formerly, a constant supply of those indulgences; for their immediate neighbours, the Portuguese at Géba and Cachéo, are always on friendly terms with them, and the little inclination which the individuals of that nation have shewn to abandon that shameful traffic, is but too notorious.

BISSAO, the chief of these islands, is one of those islands which is best known, having long been one of the principal Portuguese settlements on this coast. The town is situated at the south-western end of the island, in lat. 11° 18' N. and long. 14° 58' W. on low ground surrounded by salt marshes, and is therefore very unhealthy. The sea breezes, however, in the dry season, are very bracing, and prevent it from being so fatal as might be expected. There are a few houses built of stone, and a spacious fort near the water's edge; the remainder is nothing better than a Negro village. The fortress is a place of no strength, and is garrisoned by a ragged crew of Negroes and mulattos, with a few sickly Europeans, who are obliged to court their black neighbours by all sorts of disgraceful concessions. Such is the wretchedness of this settlement, that the Governor and the Commandant are the only individuals in the place who enjoy the luxury of bread or wine at their tables. The interior of the country is rich and fertile, rising gradually from the shore, and well provided with water; the want of which is so often severely felt in Africa. The Papels, who inhabit this island, and the nearest part of the main land, appear to be more civilized and less ferocious than their neighbours in the Bissago. They have similar superstitions and offer up similar sacrifices. Their belief in witchcraft is so strong, that their pretended sorcerers seem sometimes to be the dupes of it themselves. A labourer, who was accused by his companions of changing himself into an alligator, when asked by Captain Beaver whether the charge were true, replied "Yes I can do so and have often done it." This answer was the more remarkable, as he knew that such a confession would subject him to a severe flogging. This nation, like most of the neighbouring tribes, is subdivided into several petty sovereignties, continually at war with each other; a state of things utterly incompatible with moral or civil improvement, and furnishing a constant supply of materials for the traffic in slaves, which in its turn as constantly fomented that intestine warfare. It was this branch of trade, far more than war or victory, which induced the French to establish themselves by force at Bissao,

BISSAOS.

BISSAOS. In 1700, nearly two centuries after the Portuguese had been in undisturbed possession of the place. The activity of the French soon threw their rivals out of the market, and the Portuguese destroyed their buildings and abandoned the settlement. But it was not retained by the French long, and the Portuguese have been the sole occupants for the last forty or fifty years.

Boolama
Island.

BOOLAMA is another of these islands, well known to Europeans, particularly our own countrymen, in consequence of a colony sent out thither for the most benevolent purposes, but frustrated by the climate, the colonists themselves, and the treachery of the natives. It lies in lat. $11^{\circ} 8' N.$ and long. $14^{\circ} 50' W.$ on the north-western side of the entrance of the Rio Grande. The channel between the island and the main land, forms an excellent harbour, and nothing is wanting but a more salubrious climate, to render Boolama an earthly paradise. It is about twenty miles in length, and from six to fifteen in breadth; and rising gently from the sea, at the distance of about six miles from the beach, swells into a belt of hills, which form the basis of the mountainous tract occupying the centre of the island. The hills are clothed with woods, affording excellent timber, and various fruits, and the valleys are traversed by copious streams, which cool and fertilize the country. Its advantages, in a commercial point of view, are very considerable. Its harbour, capacious and secure; its communications with the interior of the neighbouring continent, facilitated by several rivers navigable to a considerable distance; its comparative proximity to Europe, all contribute to render it a most desirable spot for such a colony as that of which we shall presently give a brief account. On the southern side there are large savannas or natural meadows well stocked with oxen and wild horses; and stags, goats, buffaloes, and elephants abound, though no beast of prey is found except the hyena. Game is every where plentiful, and various birds of the richest plumage inhabit the groves and forests. Fish, particularly turtle, is largely supplied by the rivers and sea; and limes, lemons, oranges, tamarinds, and bananas seem to grow there spontaneously. The heat is great; the mean temperature appearing to be 65° of Fahrenheit's thermometer; and the extremes 74° and 96° . But a strong sea breeze springs up about mid-day, cools the air, and reduces the temperature at night 20 or 30 degrees. Heavy dews, falling immediately after sun-set, contribute to cool the earth, so that the early part of the morning is extremely refreshing. The rains continue from June to October. At the beginning and close of the season, they are moderate and come only at intervals; but in August, towards the middle of the rainy period, they fall in torrents. Tornadoes accompany the rains at the beginning and end of the season, but are less destructive and more easily foreseen than the hurricanes in the West Indies. They are supposed to be highly beneficial, by preventing the stagnation of the air and dispersing pestilential vapours. The original inhabitants of this island appear to have been the Bissaras, of whom a short notice will be given below. They were expelled by the Bijugas, or Bissagos, from the neighbouring islands. This tribe, instead of settling upon the conquered island, merely visited it for the purpose of hunting; and it was found uninhabited by the French navigators, who landed there in 1699. In

that condition it continued till 1792, when an **ASSO-BISSAOS** station was formed in England for the purpose of forming a colony on the coast of Africa, the object of which was to shew the natives of Africa the real advantages of industry and civilisation. The formation of a commercial and agricultural settlement, in which none but free labourers should be employed, was thought to be a most eligible measure for the promotion of that design; and some vessels, under the direction of Captain Dalrymple, were despatched in the spring of that year. Three ships carrying two hundred and eighty persons, formed the whole expedition; and one of the vessels reached Boolama in safety after a passage of about seven weeks; but want of precaution in requiring a security for the subordination of the settlers, before they set sail, or want of firmness on the part of the commander after they reached the place of their destination, soon occasioned such disorders as even then threatened the infant colony with ruin. Insubordination among the settlers themselves, made it difficult to regulate their intercourse with the natives; and their mutual ignorance of each others language and customs, necessarily gave rise to continual disputes and misunderstandings. The Bissagos from the neighbouring islands, though only temporary inhabitants, had conquered and considered themselves as the masters of Boolama; and it does not appear that any steps were taken to obtain a cession of the place before the settlers landed and virtually took possession of it. These overights alarmed the jealousy of the Bissagos; and they were enabled, by the thoughtlessness of the new comers, to carry into execution a plot they had formed for the destruction of the intruders. On Sunday, the 3rd of June, before the colonists had been ten days on shore, the natives, taking advantage of their supineness, made an attack, when they were all absent from their huts, or taking their mid-day nap, and got possession of most of their arms and ammunition. Five men and one woman among the English were killed; four men wounded, and four women and three children taken prisoners. The colonists who escaped remained on board their ship, without making any effort for the recovery of their property or companions; and returned the next morning to Bissao, where the two remaining vessels were lying. Mutual distrust and recriminations immediately arose between the settlers and the members of the council, and a fever, which had broken out, contributed to augment their despondency. However, they thought it necessary to make some attempt to retrieve their losses: and returning to Boolama, they redeemed the captives and purchased the island from the King of Canabac, for goods to the amount of four hundred and seventy-three bars, (£78. 16s. 8d.). But no sooner had this transaction been concluded, than the Council resolved to abandon the enterprise, at least till after the termination of the rains. Captain Beaver protested against this resolution, and was seconded by between eighty and ninety of the settlers, who determined to remain with him, and take possession of the island. He was unanimously chosen their President, and immediately established such regulations as were necessary for the welfare of his little community. But the rainy season had now set in, they had therefore very serious difficulties to encounter: discontents gained ground daily, and sickness prevailed to an alarming degree. In less

English
colony,
Sierra
Leone As-
sociation.

BISSAOS. than nine months, ten only were living out of the eighty-six Europeans, who had remained with him on the island. Of these another was not long afterwards cut off, and the rest were so overcome by despondency, that their commander was at length prevailed upon to yield to their incessant sollicitations, and to suffer them to quit the island. They, therefore, set sail from it to England on the 29th of November, 1793. The history of this well-intentioned, but ill-fated expedition, shews that prudence and foresight are as essential to the success of such enterprises as zeal and intrepidity. Had the necessary attention been paid to the moral qualities of the settlers, to the means of securing subordination, to the measures requisite on reaching the destined port; and, above all, had due discretion been exercised in the choice of those intrusted with authority, all the moral evils they suffered might have been avoided; and even the physical evils which did them such irreparable injury, were in a great measure owing to the injudicious season at which they sailed from England. The Directors also at home seem to have been singularly deficient in neglecting to send out the necessary supplies, and it is probable that Captain Beaver would have ultimately succeeded, had his exertions been seconded as they deserved.

That part of the African continent, which is immediately opposite to this archipelago, is occupied by a variety of independent Negro tribes, some of them entirely different from others in habit and language, and all very imperfectly known, in consequence of the almost insurmountable obstacles to the traveller's progress, arising from the climate, interminable wars, and uncivilized state of the natives. As all, or most of them have some sort of commercial intercourse with the islanders here described, it will not be improper if we also add a brief account of such as are best known.

Tribes on the neighbouring continent.
1. **Papels.**
Beginning from Red Cape, the Cabo Roxo of the Portuguese navigators, who first explored these seas, we have 1. the *Papels* in the western, and the *Balantes* in the eastern part of the island, formed by the rivers of Caché and Gêba, which discharge their waters into the sea, near the islands of Caché and Bissao. M. Mollien informs us that the territory of the *Papels* comes up to the walls of Bissao, which depends upon them for its subsistence. They are principally a pastoral people, possessing large herds of oxen. Their women smear their heads with mud to shew their grief at the death of their relations; and sacrifices of cattle are offered up, on extraordinary occasions, in Sorcerer's Island, opposite to Bissao. Their country is flat, and probably alluvial; frequently inundated, and extremely productive of rice, maize, yams, Spanish potatoes, manioc, or cassava, bananas, papayas, guavas, and oranges. They long resisted the encroachments of the Portuguese, and are now able to keep them as much in awe as the savages on the south-eastern coast do their countrymen at Mosambique. The *Bissanos* and *Mandingos* (*Mandingos*) are other tribes who live among the *Papels*, and are often employed as sailors by the Portuguese. 2. The eastern part of the same island is possessed by the *Balantes*, who are said to speak a language entirely different from that of the *Papels*. They form, like most of the neighbouring hordes, a sort of federal state, each village belonging to an independent chief.

Ferocity and cruelty are ascribed to them by the Portuguese; but it is probable that they owe that character merely to the firmness with which they have resisted every attempt to get possession of their country. Near the close of the seventeenth century, an expedition was sent against them from Bissao; but the Portuguese were completely routed, though they had a body of 300 *Bissagos* under their orders. Besides the ordinary produce of the country, the *Balantes* used formerly to bring for sale, or barter, some of the purest gold known. It is supposed to be brought from mines in the interior; but no part of this territory beyond the shores of the Gêba and Caché, or Casamanza rivers seems to have been explored. 3. Between the Gêba River and the Comba, or Rio Grande, are the *Binfaras* or *Yalas*, the handsomest Negroes of the whole coast. They are of a tall, slender make, and are mild, peaceable, and inoffensive; talkative, lively, and of a ready apprehension. They are much disliked and despised by their more ferocious neighbours, the *Bissagos*. *Ginala*, or *Inala*, *Gonfode*, *Bihala*, and *Goli*, or *Coli*, are their chief towns. The first is thirty miles from the mouth of the Rio Grande. Those who visited *Bulima* expressed a great desire to have Europeans settled in their country; and they seem more likely to make advances in civilisation than several other tribes, among whom benevolent attempts have been made without success. Like other pagans in this country, they have the greatest veneration for the *Mausulman* *gr-gris*, or *churum*. Their land is well cultivated, and they raise a great deal of cotton, which they manufacture into cloths, said to their neighbours. The *Fôlas*, *Mandingos*, and *Susis* inhabit the mountainous regions at the back of the countries here described; but for them the reader must be referred to their proper heads: and the tribes to the south of the Rio Grande will be enumerated in the account of *Sikarra Leone*. (See *Beaver's African Memoranda*; Durand's *Voyage au Sénégal*; Golberry, *Fragments d'un Voyage en Afrique*, ii.; Labat, *L'Afrique Occidentale*; Delajaille, *Voyage au Sénégal*; Mollien, *Voyage dans l'intérieur de l'Afrique*, vol. ii.)

BISSEXTE, his and *sextile*, from *sex*, six; so called because the sixth of the calends of March was repeated; occurred twice.

Now, when it was observed by this reckoning, that the sun had performed his revolution sooner than the year turned about, which before was wont to prevent the course of the sun, this error was reformed, and after every fourth year expired, came about the *bissexte* month, and made all straight.

Holland. *Prints*, fol. 586.

The inconvenience attending the form of the year above mentioned was in a great measure remedied by the Romans in the time of Julius Cæsar, who added one day every fourth year, which (from the place of its insertion, viz. after the sixth of the calends of March) was called *bissexte*, or leap year.

Priestley. On History, v. l. p. 214.

BISSON, *bisson* or *bessen*, i. e. blind. A word still in use in some parts of the north of England. *Steevens*, *bliscd*, *bessen*, or *bison*, blind. *Grose*. In A.S. *biscn*, *cercn*, blind.

What harms can your become (sc. becomen) Conspicuous gleams out of his character, if I be known well enough too.
Shakespeare. *Coriolanus*, fol. 8.

1 PLAY. But who, O who, had seen the mobbed Queen,
Run bare foot yd and downe,
Threatning the floure
With *bisson* rhume.
H. Hamlet, fol. 264.

BISSAOS.
BISSON.

3. *Bissexte*.

2. *Balantes*.

BISTOURY. *Fr. bistouri, in Surgery*, a small knife, either straight or crooked, single or double edged, round pointed, or probe pointed, since its form depends upon the uses to which it is to be applied. It is generally guided by the forefinger; sometimes it is necessary to employ a canula when any part is to be passed over, before that is arrived at, at which the incision is to be made; and sometimes the blade is concealed in a sheath, so as to project only at the moment in which the surgeon wishes to apply it.

BISTRE, in *Painting*, a composition made from the soot of dry wood, (of which beech wood is the best) boiled in water for half an hour in the proportion of two pounds to a gallon. After it has settled, while yet hot, the clearer part is to be poured off from the earthy sediment. Bistre is the substance remaining after the evaporation of the fluid. The best is transparent when moistened, and is of a rich brown colour.

BISTRITZ, a royal free town in the northern part of Transylvania, called the County of the Saxons. It is situated in a beautiful valley, and contains about 4600 inhabitants, the majority of whom are Lotharans, who have an academy there. The suburbs are chiefly peopled by Walachians. Near this town, the ruins of an ancient castle, which once conferred much importance upon the place, may still be seen. Lat. 47° 14' N. and long. 23° 54' E.

BISULCOUS, *his and sulcus*; *Gr. ἰσὺς, tractus, from ἔλω, to draw.*

Applied in *Natural History* to cloven footed animals.

Others there are which make good the paucity of their beard with the length and duration of their days, whereof there want not examples in animals uniparous; first, in *bisulcos* or cloven hoof'd, as camels and beavers, whereof there is above a million annually slain in England.

Brown. Vulgar Errors, p. 372.

BITCH, of uncertain etymology; applied to the female of the dog, and other animals; and also, opprobriously, to a woman.

He would set down in writing, and openly pronounce, that neither *bitches* loved their whelps, nor masters their foles, from their chickens, and other fowls their little birds in respect of any reward, but freely, and by instinct of nature.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 180.

From *below*
By your true names of Sygrian *bitches* you
I will call up, and to the suns light leave.

Mary. Lucan, book vi.

BITE, *v.* A. S. *bitan*; Dutch, *biten*; Ger. *beissen*; Sw. *bita*; to pinch, to squeeze, to gripe, to erub; to pierce, to penetrate, to wound, to pain as a bite, or any thing which *bite*th;—literally and metaphorically.
Bit, *v.* A bit; a small piece; so much bit
bit, *n.* Or bitten: as a bit of bread; a bit of a bridle. To *bit*,—to put the bit in the mouth.

Here now ye grete dyspate, & ye vilenie
but to þer bak gan þis of Scotland þe clergie.
R. Brunne, p. 335.

And supping hym þour out myd an yrene spytte
And rouside in þys grete fure, to abbe þe folle *bitte*.
R. Gloucester, p. 207.

Right as a serpent hideth under flowers,
Till he may see his time for to bite.
Chaucer. The Squire's Tale, v. 10826.

What thing is than this power that may not come away the
bitings of business, as enowen the pecks of dread.
Chaucer. The Third Booke of Boecius, fol. 223.

Understand thou not, that I am a philosopher. That
other man answered again *bitingly* and said: I had wel under-
stand it, if thou hadst holden thy tongue still. *Id. B.* fol. 220.

And if ghe bite and ete eke othir, se ghe lest ghe be wastid ech
for othir.
Wiclif. Galatians, ch. v.

If ye bite and deuoure one another, take heed lest ye be con-
sumed one of another.
Bible, 1551.

Spite drave me into Boreas rage,
Where hory frostes the frutes do bite,
When hills were spred and euery plain
With stormy winters meadle white.

Surrey. The Conquest Lower Lamenteth.

And the Lord sayd unto Moses: make the a serpent and hang
it vp for a sign, and let as many as are bitten, loke vpon it and
they shall liue.
Bible, 1551.

Whiche message he dissimulated as litle to repute as the
biting of a flea, so thought the Englishmen in the battaile, whiche
he knewe to be at hande, could do no enterprise (as it happened
indeed) either necessary to be feared, or worthy to be remembered.
Hall. King Henry VII.

For whether the brane cannot be broken with the *bite*, or with
the anafle, whether he be brought in awe with a square, or with a
wand, all is one if hee prove redic and well mouthed.
Goswaine. Advertisement of the Author.

Here hath becme we see a poore woman weeping, and wailing,
and crying out, howe you haue rndone her, her poore husband,
and her miserable children, for all they haue not one bite of
bread, towards their food, neither is she able to labour.

Dr. Barnes. Works, fol. 208.

For this haue as it were a fiery speere vpon lightning: euen y^e
communion of God saying: I shall visit thy sinnes.

Spenser. Epithet of Daniel, ch. v.

The pointed Steele arising rudely there,
His barbed hide would neither fear nor light,
But glancing by forth passed forward right.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book i. can. 11.

Of whose doore, her faire
And halfe transparent hand, recei'd the key,
Bright, brasse; bitting passing curiously,
And as it bang a knob of iury.

Chapman. Homer's Ulysses, book xxi. fol. 320.

Therefore that great Creator, well foreseeing

To what a monster she would soon be charging,

(Though lovely once, perfect and glorious being.)

Curb'd with her iron bit, and held from ranging.

F. Fletcher. The Purple Island, can. 5.

All the abject sorts
Of sorrow, I haue varied, tumbl'd in dust, and hid;
No bit, no drop of sustenance toucht.

Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book xxi.

There is an old poore man,
Who after me, hath many a weary steppe
Limpt in pure lone: till he be first suffic'd,
Opprest with two weakc mule, age, and lumper,
I will not touch a bit.

Shakespeare. As You Like It, fol. 194.

The oration thus framed to bite and to please the soldiers mindes,
and the moderate severity well withall (for onely on two instances
was done) were gratefully accepted.

Servile. Tacitus, fol. 49.

They [the Brooks, &c.] will draw in their breath so hard, that
their skin being stretched and puff'd up withall, they will avoid
the biting of the hound's tooth, and checke the wounding of the
hunter; so as neither the one nor the other can take hold of
them.

Holland. Plinius, fol. 218.

A scoff and a jeer is many times more provoking than a blow;
and nothing will sooner kindle the coals of contention than a
slinging taunt.

Hopkins. Sermons, fol. 184.

Many times, that without saddles ride,
And with a wand their bitless horses guide.

Mary. Lucan, book i.

BITE.
-BITTER.

You may easily imagine to yourself what appearance I made, who am pretty tall, ride well, and was very well dressed, at the head of a whole county, with music before me, a feather in my hat, and my horse well fitted.

Spectator. No. cxiii.

If this doctrine be true, then all men's senses are deceived in a plain sensible matter, wherein 'tis as hard for them to be deceived as in any thing in the world: for two things are hardly be imagined more different, than a little bit of water and the whole body of a man.

Tillotson. *Sermon* xi.

All is owing to the mercenary low humour of the times we live in, who, grovelling in the baser methods of getting money by fraud and *bite*, by deceiving and over-reaching one another, scorn the glorious ways by which our ancestors grew rich, when they pursued, together with their private advantages, the honour and interest of their native country and of their posterity.

Honourist, vol. ii. p. 41.

A *biter* is one who tells you a thing you have no reason to disbelieve in itself; and perhaps has given you, before he *bit* you, no reason to disbelieve (if for his saying it); and if you give him credit, laughs in your face, and triumphs that he has deceived you.

Spectator. No. civ.

Their field of vision is too contracted to take in the whole of any but minute objects; they view all nature *bit by bit*; now the proboscis, now the antennae, now the pincer of a flea.

Goldsmith. *Citizen of the World*, let. lxxxviii.

When he was yet scarcely seven years old, being at dinner with the queen his mother, intending to give a bit of bread to a great dog he was fond of, this hungry animal snapt too greedily at the morsel, and *bit* his hand in a terrible manner.

Id. *The Her*, No. 2.

All plants, of *er'ry* leaf, that can endure
The Winter's frown, if screen'd from his shrewd *bite*,
Live there, and prosper.

Couper. *The Task*, book iii.

BITONTO, a town in the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra di Bari, noted in history for the victory gained by the Spaniards, commanded by Count Montemar, over the Imperialists under General Visconti, in May, 1734. The result of this victory was the subjection of the whole country to Don Carlos. To commemorate this event, Philip V. caused a pyramid to be erected on the field of battle, and created Montemar Duke of Bitonto. The town is situated in a beautiful valley, about eight miles from the shore of the Adriatic, near the same distance south of Bari, and contains a population of about 13,700 individuals. Lat. 41° 13' N. and long. 16° 40' E.

BITSCH, or **BESCH**, a district and town of Lorraine, bordering upon Alsace and Deux Ponts. The town is situated near the Schwolbe, at the foot of the Vosges mountains. It is shaped like a crescent, and contains between two and three thousand inhabitants. It is now the chief place in the department of Moselle, but is chiefly distinguished for a strong citadel, crowning an adjacent hill, and overlooking the town. Bitsch was taken in 1670, by Louis XIV. but restored to its former possessors by the peace of Ryswick. When this lordship came afterwards into the possession of France this castle was strengthened, and successfully resisted an attempt of the Prussians in 1793. It was also one of the barrier fortresses given up for a time to the Allies, by the treaty of Paris in 1815. Bitsch stands nearly 90 miles south of Weissenbourg, in lat. 49° 4' N. and long. 7° 30' E.

BITTER, *adj.* A. S. Ger. Dutch, and Swed. *bitter*; A. S. *biterian*, from *bites*, to hiss. Applied particularly to the taste. Biting, piercing, penetrating, as any thing which bites; and thus, painful, hurtful, inflicting pain or distress, of mind or body; calamity, wretchedness.

The whynour that any whight is, bote yf he worches per after
The *biter* be shal a bygge.

Piers Plowman, p. 275.

The *biterness* jut how hast browe, now browk hit yf self.
That art doctore of deye, drynk jut how modest.

Id. p. 361.

That if ye han *bitter* curie, and stryngyn ben in youre herte,
yle ye have glorie and be liets agens the trowth.

Wiclif. *James*, ch. iii.

Rat if ye haue *better* envylage and stride in your hertes,
etioyne not: neyther be agynst the trowth.

Bible, 1351. *James*, ch. iii.

Alone here I stand, full sorie and full sad,
Which hoped to have seen my lord and king
Small cause have I to be merry or glad
Remembering this *bitter* fell departing.

Chaucer. *Laun*, of *M. Mag.* fol. 318.

For all such tyne of love is lore,
And like unto the *bitter* swete.

For though it thynke a man first swete,
He shall well felen at laste,
That it is sower, and must laste.

Gower. *Conf.* *Am.* book viii. fol. 175.

And Petre bithoughte on the word of Ihesu, that he had seide,
before the cocke crow, threes thou schalt deny me; and he ghede
out and wept *bitterly*.

Wiclif. *Matthew*, ch. xxvi.

And Peter remembered the wordes of Iesu, whyche sayd roto
hym: before yf cocke crowe y schalt denye me thryse: and weut
out at the dores and wept *bitterly*.

Bible, 1351.

As cruel waves full oft be found,
Against the rocks to rore and cry;
So doth my hart full oft rebound,
Agynst my brest full *bitterly*.

Surrey. *The Complaint* *Laure* lamenteth.

The mouth of which is full of curynage and *bitterness*, the
feet of hem swifte to schede blood.

Wiclif. *Reynolds*, ch. iii.

Whose mouthen are full of curynage and *bitterness*, their fete
are swifte to schede blood.

Bible, 1351.

But wise words taught in numbers for to runne,
Recorded by the Muses, linc for aye;
Ne may with storming showres be waich away,
Ne *better* breathing winds with harmfull blast,
Nor age, nor time shall deem ever wast.

Spenser. *The Ruines of Time*.

He that greedily puts his hand to a delicious table, shall weep
bitterly when he suffers the convulsions and violence by the
divided interests of such contrary juices.

Taylor. *Sermon* xvi. fol. 138.

I have sometimes passed the bounds of modestie (wherein
I will neyther accuse, nor excuse myselfe) yet are my speeches
in *bitterness* farre inferior to those opprobries, slanders, and
disdainfull wordes uttered either in the first or second admonition,
or in your repile.

Wiclif. *The Defence*, fol. 20.

One draught of the river that maketh glad the city of God
above, can sweeten all the *bitterness* of the world.

Bates. *The Great duty of Resignation*, Direct. i.

All men are agreed to call vinegar sour, honey sweet, and
also *bitter*; and as they are all agreed in calling these qualities
to those objects, they do not in the least differ concerning their
effects with regard to pleasure and pain. They all concur
in calling sweetness pleasant, and sourness and *bitterness* unplea-
sant.

Burke. *On Taste*.

My sweets,
And she that sweetens all my *bitter* tone,
Nature, enchanting Nature, in whose form
And instruments divine I trace a bond
That errs not, and find raptures still renew'd,
Is free to all men—universal prize.

Couper. *The Task*, book iii.

From the remotest ages down to the present, men of almost
every sect and persuasion have treated those of contrary senti-
ments with no usual degree of *bitterness* and inhumanity.

Poore. *Sermon* xlii. vol. i.

BITTER.

BITTER-
FIELD.
—
BITTERS.

BITTERFIELD, a town of Prussia, in the duchy of Saxony, situated on the banks of the Mulda, and containing about 9000 inhabitants. It originally consisted of a colony of Flemings, whose descendants still form a distinct body of people, regulated by its own particular laws, one of which is their possessing all things in common. Cloth, pottery, and some other articles are manufactured at Bitterfield, which is about sixteen miles south of Dessau, and nearly the same distance from Wittenberg.

BITTER WORT, a name given to the *Gentiana lutea*.

BITTERS. *Bitter Principle.* That object of analysis which results from the present advanced state of practical Chemistry has, perhaps, proved the source in some instances of precipitate generalization and incorrect inference. When, for example, a certain vegetable matter is found possessed of very active properties, the philosophy of the present day is not disposed to rest satisfied with the fact of such qualities as matter of observation, but requires to be informed of the peculiar chemical principle, through the medium of which these qualities are manifested. Now against this inquiry no possible objection can be advanced, excepting the one just alluded to, viz. that abstract essences, or essential principles are too apt to be inferred from insufficient data. In another place we shall have to shew that physical, or rather medicinal, errors have occasionally proceeded from a misdirected spirit of research in reference to these particulars. (See *MATERIA MEDICA*.) It is here only right thus slightly to advert to them, and we shall now proceed to lay before our readers, first an account of Dr. Thomson's experiments, from which he infers the existence of a Bitter Principle; secondly, Dr. Murray's objection against their correctness; thirdly, a proposed division of Bitter substances; and, lastly, some remarks on their operation as medicinal powers.

"Many vegetable substances (says Dr. Thomson) have an intensely Bitter taste, and on that account are employed in medicine, by brewers, &c. This is the case with the wood of the *Quassia amara* and *excoelra*, the common quassia of the shops; with the roots of the *Gentiana lutea*, common gentian; the leaves of the *Hernandus lupulus*, or hop; the bark or wood of the *Spartium scoparium*, or common broom; the flowers and leaves of the *Athenis nobilis*, or *chamomile*, and many other substances. Some of these bodies owe their taste to the presence of a peculiar vegetable substance, differing from every other, which may be distinguished by the name of the Bitter Principle.

"When water is digested over quassia for some time it acquires an intensely Bitter taste and a yellow colour, but no smell. When water thus impregnated is evaporated to dryness, in a low heat, it leaves a brownish yellow substance which retains a certain degree of transparency. It continues ductile for some time, but at last becomes brittle. This substance I shall consider as the Bitter Principle in a state of purity. If it contain any foreign body it must be in very minute proportion. This substance I find to possess the following properties.

"1. Its taste is intensely Bitter. Colour brownish yellow. 2. When heated, softens, and swells, and blackens; then burns away without flaming much, and leaves a small quantity of ashes. 3. Very soluble

in water and alcohol. 4. Does not alter the colour of infusion of litmus. 5. Lime water, barytes water, and strontian water occasion no precipitate. Neither is any precipitate thrown down by silicated potash, aluminated potash, or sulphate of magnesia. 6. The alkalis occasion no change in the diluted solution of the Bitter precipitate. 7. Oxalate of ammonia occasions no precipitate. 8. Nitrate of silver renders the solution muddy, and a very soft flaky yellow precipitate falls slowly to the bottom. 9. Neither corrosive sublimate nor nitrate of mercury occasion any precipitate. 10. Nitrate of copper, and the ammoniacal solution of copper, produce no change; but muriate of copper gives the white precipitate, which falls when this liquid is dropped into water. 11. Sulphate and oxymuriate of iron occasion no change. 12. Muriate of tin renders the solution muddy, but occasions no precipitate unless the solution be concentrated, in that case a copious precipitate falls. 13. Acetate of lead occasions a very copious white precipitate, but the nitrate of lead produces no change. 14. Muriate of zinc occasions no change. 15. Nitrate of bismuth produces no change, though, when the salt is dropped into pure water, a copious white precipitate appears. 16. Tartar emetic produces no change, but when the muriate of antimony is used the white precipitate appears, which always falls when this salt is dropped into pure water. 17. Muriate and arseniate (arsenate) of cobalt occasion no change. 18. Arseniate of potash produces no effect. 19. Tincture of iron galls, infusion of oak galls, gallic acid occasions no effect.

"These properties, (the Dr. goes on to say) are sufficient to convince us that the Bitter Principle is a substance differing considerably from all the other vegetable principles." Vauquelin found the same properties from experiment in the colocynth, and hony root, and "it is probable that hops, gentian, and broom contain the same."

The above, our experimentalist considers to be the purest species of Bitter Principle, "it is probable that several others exist in the vegetable kingdom, gradually approaching by their qualities to the nature of artificial tannin," and he particularly points out a second species which is distinguishable from the purest, by the property it has of striking a green colour with iron, and of precipitating that metal from concentrated solutions. The *Amica montana* (German leopard's-bane), the *Abianthium vulgare* (worm-wood), *Juniperus sabinus* (savinie), *Ruta gratiola* (rue), *Athenis nobilis* (chamomile), *Achillea millefolium* (milfoil), seem to be characterised according to Dr. Thomson by this second species of Bitter Principle.

A third species of Bitter Principle may be named artificial, being formed by the action of nitric acid on various vegetable and animal substances. "It was first obtained by Hausmann while examining indigo, but he mistook its nature. Welter afterwards formed it by digesting silk in nitric acid, ascertained its properties, and gave it the name of the yellow Bitter Principle. Bartholdi afterwards procured it by treating the white willow with nitric acid. Mr. Hatchett lately obtained it during his experiments on artificial tannin, by treating lodigo with nitric acid; and about the same time Fourcroy and Vauquelin procured it by the same means, and examined its properties in detail."

BITTERS.

"Artificial tannin (says Dr. T.) may itself be considered as approaching the Bitter Principle in many of its properties, its taste is always intensely Bitter, and the colour of the precipitate which it throws down from the metals is similar to what takes place when artificial Bitter Principle is present."

These conclusions of Dr. Thomson, respecting Bitterness as an abstract principle, are sanctioned by Mr. Brande. This last author, however, thinks with Chevreul that the artificial Bitter Principle, obtained in the manner just noticed, "is a compound of a peculiar vegetable principle with nitric acid," while Dr. Murray, in the last edition of his *Chemistry*, objects *in toto* to the assumptions of those who conceive they have detected the quality in question. "It has been supposed (says Dr. M.) by some chemists, that a principle exists in some of the vegetable Bitters in which their Bitterness resides. The properties, however, that have been assigned to it particularly, its equal solubility in water and in alcohol, and its precipitation by certain reagents, appear to prove that what has been considered as such, is a variety of extract slightly modified, perhaps, by intermixture with other principles. Were even its existence established, the name given to it, implying that it is the principle of Bitterness can with no propriety be assigned to it, since many substances possess this quality in which it has not been proved to exist." In reference to the artificially procured Bitter Principle, Dr. M. further remarks, "there is no reason to believe that this is naturally formed, or that it exists as a vegetable principle."

The pharmacopœial division of Bitters adopted by Mr. Gray, in his recently published work, entitled *Elements of Pharmacy*, &c. is into pure, aromatic, nstringent, and sweet.

The Pure Bitters of this author are *Aloëthium*, (worm-wood;) *Aloë epicuræ extractum*, (scothrine or Turkey aloë;) *Aloë vulgaris extractum*, (hepatic or Bombay aloë;) *Amygdala amara*, (Bitter almond;) *Cerasuri carumina*, (century tops;) *Colecyntidis pulpa*, (Bitter apple pulp;) *Gentiana radix*, (Gentian root;) *Mengastria*, (hogbean;) *Quassia lignum*, (Quassia wood;) *Samarowia cortex*, (mountain damson bark;) *Spartii sarcocolla*, (broom tops;) *Taraxaci radix*, (dandelion.)

The Aromatic Bitters are *Antheaides flores*, (chamomile;) *Calami radix*, (sweet flag root;) *Cascarilla cortex*, (cascarilla bark;) *Cusparia cortex*, (Angustura bark;) *Lauri folia*, (bay leaves;) *Limonum cortex*, (lemon peel;) *Marrubium*, (horehound;) *Myrrha*, (myrrh;) *Valeriana radix*, (valerian root.)

The Astringent Bitters are constituted of the various barks, while only one Sweet Bitter is enumerated as a drug, namely, the *Dulcamara Caulis*, (Bitter sweet stalks.) The natural history, botanic characters, and medicinal properties of these several substances belong to other parts of our work. We have only now to make one or two cursory remarks on the employment of Bitters as articles of medicine and diet.

The operation of Bitters is of course very considerably modified by the kind of material employed, but their general agency has been referred to the principles of imparting tone to the stomach, of checking undue fermentation in that organ, of supplying the office of the bile under circumstances of deficiency to that secretion, and proving destructive by their

noxious qualities to the parasitic animals that are occasionally formed or found in the intestinal canal. That a tonic effect upon the muscular fibre of the stomach is produced by the taking of Bitters, is thought to be proved both by the increase of appetite following their administration, and by their evidently facilitating the digestive process: their power of checking fermentation in a direct and immediate manner, is perhaps less manifest. Since the correction of acid eructations which their exhibition operates, may be brought about by virtue of their exciting and tonic properties: nor does it seem at all certain, as stated under the article Bile, that the Bitter Principle of materials taken into the stomach, can exist in the way of substitute for the bitterness of bile. Further, that Bitters are occasionally anthelmintic in their operation is pretty evident, but it is not quite so clear that their faculty of destroying and expelling worms is wholly resolvable into their poisonous operation. Anthelmintic agency in the general way is perhaps calculated on too mechanically or chemically, at least with too little regard for radical principles.

High authority condemns the continued and dietetic use of Bitters, on the ground that they render the person thus employing them more than commonly liable to apoplectic and paralytic seizures: and in proof that this assumption is well founded, the fact has been adduced, that many individuals who had taken for a length of time the Portland Powder, in order to ward off gout from the stomach, have unexpectedly fallen victims to apoplexy or palsy. It has been observed too, that the drinking of malt liquor, to which hop or quassia is an ingredient, disposes to these affections. But it ought to be recollected in the one case, that the tendency to gout and to paralysis are very often coexistent; and in reference to malt liquor, apoplexy and palsy may much more probably be ascribed to the vessels being kept in a constant state of over-distension and activity, than to any poisonous quality contained in the articles of regimen. The constant practice however of taking Bitters, as indeed any thing else, in the way of medicinal corrective or habitual excitant, is to be deprecated as highly pernicious, although their occasional employment may be indulged in to a very considerable extent, fearlessly and with good effect.

BITTERN, } Ger. *bufoor*; Fr. *butor*; Sp. *bitor*; E. *bitor*. } It. *bittore*. Bos taurus, or bœtas taurinus, from the noise it makes, when its head is immersed in the mire. "In the territory about Ariate, there is a bird called Turus, because it loweth like a bull or cow, for otherwise a small bird it is." Plin. book x. c. 42.

The common name of the *Ardea stellaris*.

And as a bittore bumbleth in the mire,
She laid her smooth unto the water down.
Bewray me not, thou water, with thy soles,
(Good she, to him I tell it, and no mo,
Mia basked half long above eyes two.

Chaucer. *The Wif of Beke's Tale*, v. 6544.

Then to the water's brink she laid her head,
And as a bittore jumps within a reed,
"To thee alone, O Lake," she said, "I tell,
(And as thy queen, command thee to conceal)
Beneath his locks the king my husband wears
A goodly royal pair of snags ears."

Dryden.

That a bittore maketh that negligent noose, or as we term it lumping, by putting its bill into a reed as most beleive, or as

BITTERN. Bellonius and Aldrovandus conceive, by putting the same in water or mud, and after a while retaining the syr by suddenly excoelung **BIVALVE**, it again, is not so easily made out.

Brown. *Fulger Error*, 218.

Along thy glades, a solitary guest,
The bold sounding bittern guards its nest.

Goldsmith. *The Deserted Village*.

BITU'ME, } Lat. *bitumen* ; Gr. *βίτρυ*, *βίτρυ*, *βίτρυ*,
BITU'RID, } *βίτρυ*, from *βίτρυ*, *premo*, *premento*,
BITU'RIEN, } *affig*. Lennep.
BITU'MINATED, } See the example from Golding.
BITU'MINDS. }

Mix with these
Idian pitch, quick sulphur, silver's spume,
Sea onion, hellebore, and black bitume.

May.

2 SAIL. Sir, we have a chest beneath the hatches, caulked and bitumed ready.

PER. I thank thee. *Shakespeare.* *Pericles*, act. iii. sc. 1.

She boyled Babylon and enclosed it with a wall of bricks enteryed with sand and bitumen, which is a kind of stony mortar, ymting out of the ground, in divers places of that country.

Arth. *Goldys.* *Justine*, p. 2.

Where is Marcus Scaurus Theater, the bituminated walls of Babylon? And how little rests of the Pyramids of Egypt.

Fletcher. *Roscius*, l. 46.

Her with a crew, whom like ambition joys
With him or under him to tyrannize,
Marching from Eden towards the west, shall find
The plain, wherein a black bituminous gurge
Bolles out from under ground, the mouth of hell.

Milton. *Paradise Lost*, book xii.

A worse knob remains to be plained, how they [the trees] are preserved sound so many ages, seeing moisture is the mother of corruption, and such the ground wherein they are found: except any way there is clammy bituminous substance about them, which fceath them from being corrupted.

Feller. *Worthies*, ii. 578.

The fabric seem'd a wood of rising green,
With sulphur and bitumen cast between,
To feed the flames.

Dryden. *Fedman and Arctite*, book iii.

The Maker: ample in his bounty, spread
The various strata of earth's genial bed;
Temper'd the subject mass with pregnant juices,
And subtle stores of deep and sacred use;
Salts, oils, and bitumen, and siccous pitch,
With precious, though mysterious, influence rich.

Brown. *Universal Beauty*, book iii.

— The light
Wood-synops; and those, who o'er the grove preside,
Whose stores bituminous with sparkling fires,
In summer's tedious absence, cheer the swains,
Long sitting at the loom.

Dyer. *The Fleets*, book iii.

BITUMEN is a mineral substance which burns easily, producing a thick smoke, with a strong and peculiar odour. It is supposed to have been formed in the earth from the destruction of animal and vegetable substances.

In its most fluid state it constitutes *Naphtha*: when it acquires the consistence of oil, it becomes *Petroleum*; and thence passes into *Elastic Bitumen*, and *Maltha*, and through various states of induration, until it becomes compact, and is then called *Asphaltum*.

BIVALVE, } *Bi*, twice, and *valve*, perhaps
BIVALVEN, } *valve*, so called, because they fold
BIV'LVULAR. } inwards, *quia introrum revolvantur*,
Voss.

Applied in *Natural History*; as the examples sufficiently explain.

Bivalve, or *twice* *hank*, is one that opens or gapes the whole **BIVALVE** length, like a door that opens in two parts.

Miller. *Gardener's Dictionary*. **BIZERTA.**

Crabs, either of this kind, or allied to them, the authors believed to have been the concomitant inmates of the pinnas, and other bivalves.

Fennet. *British Zoology*.

With respect to the figure of shells, Aristotle has divided them into three kinds. There are first, the univalve, or turbinated, which consist of one piece, like the box of a snail; secondly, the bivalve, consisting of two pieces, united by a hinge, like an oyster.

Goldsmith. *Animated Nature*, iv.

The muscle and the oyster appear to have but few distinctions, except in their shape and the power of motion in the former. Other bivalve shell-fish, such as the rock, the scallop, and the razor-shell, have differences equally minute.

Id. ib.

BIVIOUS, a word used in Brown's *Christian Morale*. *Bi*, twice, and *vis*, a path or way.

Having two paths or ways.

In *biens* theorems, and *Jauss*-faded doctrines, let virtuous considerations state the determinations.

Brown. *Christian Morale*, li. 3.

BIVOUAC, from a German word signifying a double guard; derived from the Latin *bi*, and *vach*, Ger. for a guard. It is used for a guard performed by a whole army at a siege, or when lying before an enemy, and during the night; but in modern military language is frequently applied to any number of men keeping night watch or guard at a distance from quarters; and an army that does not encamp, but lies under arms all night, is, in like manner, said to bivouac.

BIXA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Polygonaria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: corollas of ten petals: calyx five-dentate; capsule hispid, bivalved.

This genus contains but one species, viz. the *Uruca*, or *Anotha*, a native of the West Indies.

BIZERTA, a town on the northern coast of Africa, in lat. 37° 10' N. and long. 9° 45' E. "Benzert," says Idrisi (ed Hartm. p. 367) "is a maritime city, well fortified, but smaller than Sânah. It is a long day's journey (35 miles, according to Leo Africanus) from Tunis by land. It is a small city, but populous; carries on a lucrative trade, and has standing markets. On its east side there is a lake, which is named from it; sixteen miles long, and eight miles broad. Its mouth is connected with the sea. It widens as it stretches inwards towards the land, and becomes narrower as it approaches the sea. It is one of the wonders of the world, for it contains twelve different kinds of fish; and a different sort is caught every month: but they are never mixed together, so that the same sort is taken in two successive months." Idrisi then enumerates these twelve kinds of fish, and adds: "Adjoining this lake, on the south side, but with an inclination towards the west, there is a second lake, called Tanjah, four miles long, and of the same width. Between them there is a mouth, by which the waters of the one communicate with those of the other. These two lakes have this peculiarity, that the water of the one, that of Tanjah, is fresh, while that of the lake of Benzert is salt. There is a strong influx from the one into the other for six months; and then the current changes, and a corresponding reflux takes place for the next six months, and yet the waters of the lake of Tanjah do not become salt, nor those of Benzert fresh." Bizerta, says Dr. Shaw, is agreeably situated, on a canal,

BLAZZ. between a large lake and a sea. It is at the bottom of a large gulph, (the Gulph of Hippo, in *Ancient Geography*) eight miles to the south-west of Cabo Blanco; is about a mile in circumference, and is protected by several forts and batteries. It has two spacious prisons for slaves, and a large bezeatin, or covered market-place. The remains of a pier are still visible. Fishing is the principal employment of the inhabitants, and they are engaged in it from October till May. Their mullets (*mulu cephalus*) are excellent, and the roes of that fish, when smoked and dried, are exported, under the name of *botargo*, to Italy and the Levant, where they are much esteemed. Benzer appears, from Leo's account, to have been in a very reduced state at the beginning of the sixteenth century. (See *Edrisi Africa*. Gott. 1796. p. 207; Shaw's *Travels*, p. 179; Leo Africanus, p. 552.)

BLAB, v. Junius refers to babbling; in
BLAB, n. Dutch, *labberer* (be-labberer); Ger.
BLABBER, n. blabberer; perhaps from *labber*;
BLABBER, v. A. S. *lap-ian*, to lap or lip, (differing indeed in the application.) And thus we approach Skinner's explanation: *labis quicquid occurrit effutire*. To pour forth from the lips whatever occurs to us; to tell all that we know; to prate or talk thoughtlessly, carelessly, without reserve; or discrimination.

— I could almost
A thousand old stories thee sledge
Of woeen lost, through false & foolish boote
Promises cast thyself ynow, and waste
Against that vice for to be a blabbe.
Chaucer. Troilus, book iii. fol. 168.

Thus the bishop would him self first the duke when he had
more sense of his ayde, for if he had taried still y^e duke had not
made so many blabbes of his counsaile, nor put so much confidence
in the Welchmen, nor yet so temerariouly set forwards without
knowledge of his frendes as he dyd, whiche things were his
souldes overthrow as they that knew it dyd reporte.

Hall. King Henry III.

But the mother agayne on her part forasmuch as she perceyved
and founde a certayne power of the godcheade to glitter and
shew furthe in hym, was well contente to followe the minde and
ordering of her sone: and being myndfull of her owne wise and
discrete sobernesse, dyd as yet make no blabbing out abroad of
any thing.
Udall. Luke, ch. ii.

When the tongue lyeth still, if the mouth be not occupied
well, it were less dull than for wordlye rebukes, to blabbe on
trifles somewhat sottishly, than while they seeme sage, in keeping
silence, secretly paradoxoute the meane wyle to falsifye wyth
themselves, fytlye sinful devils.

Sir Thomas More's Works, p. 73.

AZEL. (alone.) I fear me, Apelles, that thine eyes have blabbed
that which thy tongue durst not.

Livy. Alexander and Campaspe, act v. sc. 2.

Such be his chance that to his love doth wrong;
Unworthy he to have so worthy place,
That cannot hold his peace and kissing tongue;
Light loves float on his lips, but rightly grace
Sucke deepe, and th' heart's low craster doth embrace.
Spenser. Britains' Ida, can. 6.

— To have reveal'd
Secrets of men, the secrets of a friend,
How kaisious had the fact been, how deserving
Contempt, and scorn of all, to be excluded
All friendship and avoided as a blab,
The mark of foot set on his front?

Milton. Samson Agon.

Loth to betray a husband and a prince,
But she must burst, or bleed; and to pretence
Of honour y'd her tongue from self-defence.
Dryden. Wife of Bath's Tale.

Tell us, you dead; will some of you, in pity
To those you left behind, disclose the secret?
(Oh! that some courteous ghost would blab it out;
What 'tis you are, and we must shortly be.

Blair. The Grave.

BLACK, v.

BLACK, n.

BLACK, adj.

BLA'CKEN, n.

BLA'CKING, n.

BLA'CKLY, v.

BLA'CKNESS, n.

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A. S. *blac-lan*, *nigrescere*, *blac*,
niger; Ger. *black*. Of unknown
etymology.

To *blacken* (met.) is to darken,
obscure, overcloud—ac. the fairness
of a character or reputation; to
pollute, or soil, or sully its purity,
its integrity.

Black is applied to that which
has the dismialness, the gloominess,
the forbiddings of darkness;
to that which is dark, dissual, gloomy, forbidding,
fearful, dreadful.

Blackguard. "In all great houses, but particularly
in the royal residences, there were a number of mean
and dirty dependents, whose office it was to attend the
wood-yard, sculleries, &c. of these the most forlorn
wretches seem to have been selected to carry coals to
the kitchens, halls, &c. To this smutty regiment,
who attended the progresses, and rode in the carts
with the pots and kettles, the people, in derision, gave
the name of *blackguards*." Vide B. Jonson's *Works*,
by Gifford, v. ii. p. 169. note 5.

His steede was black as raven, yett keld his name Ferant
His rode vnto ye haues, and said he wold to Geant.

R. Drume, p. 295.

Withoute þe Cristen gas cris, allas! R. is taken,
þe Normans were sorie, of contenance gas blacken.

Id. p. 163.

Be as may be, I wol hire not accusen;
But on his bak this sherte he wored of naked,
Til that his flesh was for the venim blacken.

Chaucer. The Monk's Tale, v. 14135.

And then I curse also the night,
With all the will of my courage,
And sin, away thou blacke image,
Whiche of thy darke cloudes face,
Makest all the verities light deface.

Spenser. Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 79.

Then yf the soore be waxed blackish, and is not grown abroad
in the skine, let the presant make him dress for it in best a skirte.

Noble, 1551. *Leu. ch. xiii.*

The man of India that we speake of (it) by no learning know y^e
course of the season whereby he should fyre the cause of his
blacken, but if it be by astronomy, which coniung can lerne
that nothing will helpe that seemeth to lye sole impossible.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 126.

They have with their teeth blacked both men and women, for they
say a dogge hath his teeth white, therefore they will blacke theirs.

Hobbs. Voy. Ite. M. Ralph Fitch, v. ii. fol. 262.

The Romans understanding of his (Tullius) death, shewed no other
honour or malice, saving that they granted the ladies their request
they made: that they might mourn ten months for him, and that
was the full time they used to wear blacke for the death of their
fathers, brethren, or Husbando, according to Numa Pompilius
order.

North. Plutarch, fol. 201.

Shrunk nearer earth, all blacken'd now and browes,
In mask of weeping clouds appears the moon.

Drommond. The Shadow of the Judgment.

The Drums being of the kings country (for the king in a
Drum) have their legs or bellies, or some part of their body, as
they thinke good themselves, made black with certain things
which they have: they use to prick the skine, and to put on it
a kinde of snile or blacking, which doth continue always.

Hakluyt. Voy. Ite. M. Ralph Fitch, v. ii. fol. 362.

BLAB.
BLACK.

BLACK.

Beyond the river Ganges, in that quarter and climate which lyeth outward, the people are caught with the sun, and begin to be blackish; but yet not all out in sun-burnt and black indeed as the Moors and Ethiopians. *Holland. Plinius, v. l. fol. 127.*

Lastly stood warr in glittering arms yclad,
With venge grim, stern looks, and blackly brewed. ?
Morro for Magistrate. Sachville's Induction.

They're darker now than blackness; none can know
Them by the face, as through the street they go;
For now their skin doth cleave unto their bone,
And wither'd is like to dry wood grown.
Donne. Lamentations of Jeremy, ch. lv. v. 8.

From whence he views with his black-fiddled eye,
What-so the heaves in his wide view contains,
And all that in the deepest earth possesses.
Spenser. Mache Roderick Tale, fol. 15.

Beauty is like the blackberry, which seemeth red when it is not ripe.
Egley. Alexander and Campaspe, act ii. sc. 2.

True honour is not here, that place it claims
Where black-dress'd night doth not exile the day,
Nor so far-shining lamp dives in the sea,
But an eternal sun spreads lasting beams.
Drummond. Flowers of Glen.

For by this black-fur'd night, desire's foul nurse,
Your treatise makes me like you worse and worse.
Shakespeare. Venus and Adonis.

And there was a Grecian woman, who having brought forth a black infant, and being troubled therefore, and judicially accused for adultery, as if she had been conceived by a black-moor: shee pleased and was found to be her self descended from an Ethiopian, in the fourth degree removed.
Holland. Plutarch, fol. 457.

The blacksmith, whose bellows all summer do blow,
With the fire in his face still, without e're a valie,
Though his throat be full dry, he will tell you a lye,
But where you may be sure of a pot of good ale.
Browning. The Exile-tation of Ake.

Which I had no sooner done, but one o' the blackguard had his hand in my vestry, and was groping me as subtly as the Christ-man out-purse.
D. Jenson. Maypole. Love Restored.

Love shall in that tempestuous shew
Her brightest blossom like the black-thorne shew;
Weak friendship prospers by the power
Of fortune's muse, I'm in her winter grow.
Habington's Castles, part ii.

A vile encomium doubly ridiculous:
There's nothing blacker like the ink of fools.
Pope. Imitations of Horace, epist. l.

I have lately got the ingenious authors of blacking for shoes, powder for colouring the hair, &c. to be your constant customers.
Spectator, No. 461.

The object, spread too far, or rais'd too high,
Denies its real image to the eye;
Too little, it eludes the dazzled sight,
Becomes mist blackness, or unperceptible light.
Prior. Solomon, book i.

Sweet, black-eyed maid! what charms those eyes impart!
Soft are your looks, but flinty is your heart.
Fowles. Theocritus. Idyl. 3.

Turn many a magisterial clerk
Was taught, like singing-birds 't' th' dark,
And understood as much of things,
As th' silent black-bird what it sings.
Batter. Satire upon Plagiaries.

Thou art some pally, blackguard sprite,
Condemn'd to dwell in the night;
Thou hast no work to do in th' house,
Nor half penny to drop in shoes;
Without the raising of which sum
You dare not be so treacherous
To pluck the slattern black and blue,
For leaving you their work to do.
M. Hudibras, part iii. can. 1.

The Lady, instead of answering him, addressing herself to me, Pray, Sir, (said she) do you in Surrey reckon the white or the black-legged fowl the best?
Tatler, No. 156.

But as one who has not the brightest colours of white and red in the complexion, appears an excellent beauty, set off by the presence of a black-moor, so the beauty of holiness in a saint, though mixed with blemishes, appears complete, when compared with the foul deformity of sinners.
Bates. Spiritual Perfection Unfolded, &c. ch. v.

Some 'gainst a third estate of souls,
And bringing down the price of souls:
Some for shuffling black-pudding,
And eating nothing with the blood in.
Baile. Hudibras, part iii. can. 2.

Hail, golden lyre! whose heaven-invented string
To Phœbus and the black-bear'd Nine belongs;
Who in sweet choros round their tuneful king
Mix with thy sounding chords their sacred songs.
West. The First Pythian Ode. Decade i.

There a deeper darkness prevailed than in the blackest night; which, however, was in some degree dissipated by torches and other lights of various kinds.
Melmoth. Pilgr. let. xvi. book vi.

To this system of literary monopoly was joined an unenviable industry to blacken and discredit in every way, and by every means, all those who did not hold to their fiction.
Burke. On the Revolution in France.

Blackness is but a partial darkness; and therefore it derives some of its powers from being mixed, and surrounded with coloured bodies.
Id. On the Sublime and Beautiful, sec. 17.

BLACKBURN, a market town in Lancashire, situated on the river Derwent, which it crosses by four stone bridges. The town is irregularly built: a rivulet of the same name divides it into two unequal parts, of which the western is much the largest. The manufactory of calicos, or cotton goods is very extensive; about 25,000 pieces are made weekly, and the works give employment to 13,000 persons. The annual value of the goods (before being dyed and printed) is calculated at near one million and a half sterling. The Leeds and Liverpool canal, which is about 127 miles in length, and which was completed in 1816, passes by this town, and is of essential service to its trade. The church is a vicarage in the gift of the Archbishop of Canterbury. Population of the entire parish (which contains eight chapels of ease in the patronage of the vicar) in 1821, 53,350; in 1802, it was 33,599. Distant 42 miles from Liverpool, 11 from Preston, 24 from Manchester, 32 from Lancaster, and 203 from London.

BLACKBURNIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Tetrandria, order Monogynia. Generic character: corolla of four petals: calyx four-toothed, inferior: stigma simple: berry (?) one-seeded.

Only one species is described, a native of Norfolk Island.

BLACK CAP, in Zoology, the vulgar name of the *Motacilla atricapilla*.

BLACK COCK, in Zoology, the vulgar name of the *Tetrao Tetrix*.

BLACK FISH, in Zoology, a name given by Mr. Jago to the *Holocentrus Niger*.

BLACK FOREST, a mountainous region in the south-west part of Germany, called in the German language *Schwarzwald*. It stretches about eighty or ninety miles nearly north and south; principally between the kingdom of Wirtemberg and

BLACK.

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the Grand Duchy of Baden, and afterwards through the southern part of the latter dominions nearly to the banks of the Rhine. The Neckar may be considered as its boundary towards the east, from which the slope is gradual to the highest crest of the ridge, but the western face presents a series of precipitous declivities. The whole breadth may be estimated at twenty miles; and its area at 1600 square miles. The name appears to have been derived from the dark thick forests of pines with which the slopes are in most places covered: they afford the inhabitants abundance of timber, resin, and other articles, to which this species of tree is usually appropriated. Some parts of this tract are also employed as pasturage, and small patches are cultivated. In this a singular process is frequently adopted. The ground is spread with fine branches, slightly covered with sods, and these being burnt, afford an excellent manure, and prepare the ground for three or four abundant harvests. Another branch of the Black mountains stretches north-east from the southern part of Baden, between the Neckar and the Danube, and intersects the kingdom of Wirtemberg, for about sixty miles. This is generally called the *Alb*, and sometimes the Low Swabian Alps. The principal summits are towards the north and west of this ridge, and the forests consist chiefly of beech. The open spaces are employed as pasturage for large flocks of sheep. Several summits, of considerable elevation, are to be seen nearly south-east of Stuttgart, among which are those denominated *Beyserssteig*, *Weinsteig*, and *Hasensteig*. Many parts of these ridges are calcareous, and afford several kinds of good marble. Near *Frudenstadt*, in the western range, there are also mines of silver and copper. Iron and cobalt are also obtained in some parts of this ridge, and obsidian is found in the *Alb*.

BLACK GAME, in *Zoology*, a name of the *Tetrao Tetrix*, or Black Cock.

BLACKHEATH, a hamlet in the county of Kent, about seven miles from London. This open ground, from its extent and its vicinity to the metropolis, has been the scene of many remarkable transactions in English history. Vestiges of a Danish encampment are still to be traced, and it is known that the invaders had their chief station in its neighbourhood in the eleventh century. Yet earlier remains of Roman

antiquity have been dug out of barrows on the side adjoining Greenwich; among them are coins of the Emperors Claudius and Gallienus. Wat Tyler, in 1381, and Jack Cade, in 1450, both occupied this heath with their camps. It formed the royal headquarters of the Lancastrians in the commencement of the contest between Henry VI. and Edward IV.; and it was the plain of battle on which Lord Audley and the Cornish rebels were defeated by Henry VII. in 1497. The site of Michael Joseph's tomb was shown to Lambard when he wrote his *Perambulations of Kent*. It was called *The Smith's Forge*, for Joseph, one of the ringers in this insurrection, was by trade a blacksmith. In 1400, the interview between Henry IV. and the Emperor Manuel Palaeologus, when he visited England to solicit aid against Bajazet, took place on Blackheath. (Hollshed, iii. 519.) It was here that in 1415 the citizens of London solemnly congratulated Henry V. after the battle of Agincourt. (Ib. 556.) Here, also, in the following year, the same body met the Emperor Sigismund, who came to mediate a peace between France and England, and conducted him to the King at Lambeth. (Ib.) Cardinal Campeius was received here on his arrival by a splendid deputation from the court, in 1519; and Henry VIII. twenty-one years afterwards, chose it as the spot on which he might meet the least welcome of his brides, Anne of Cleves. (Ib. 948.) During late years it has been much encroached upon by increasing buildings.

BLACKNESS, a village of Scotland, in the county of Linlithgow, situated on the southern shores of the Forth, and the place where the custom-house for the adjacent district formerly stood. There is a fortress with five useless guns, which must be kept up according to the articles of the Union. It was formerly a strong place, and was used as a state prison, but from the elevation of the surrounding country, it was incapable of offering much resistance to a besieging army. It has, however, been often a point of contention, and was burnt by the English in the sixteenth century. A manufacture of Roman cement is now carried on there. Blackness is about 15 miles from Edinburgh, and nearly half way between that capital and Stirling.

BLACKWOOD, the English name of a species of *Melospiza*.

BLACK-
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BLACK SEA.

THE BLACK or EUXINE SEA, called *Tchernof* More by the Russians, *Navre Thalassa* by the modern Greeks, and *Karâ Deniz* by the Turks, all names of the same import, owes this appellation either to the storms by which it is perpetually agitated in the winter months, or to the dense mists which so often hover over its narrow entrance, and so greatly increase the difficulties of its navigation. This vast basin, one of the largest internal seas yet known to exist, has the form of an irregular parallelogram, the major axis of which extends from east to west over a space of something more than 600 geographical miles, and the minor

axis, from north to south, in the widest part, measures nearly 300; but the outline is much indented, and the eastern extremity much narrower than the western. It lies between the 41st and 47th degree of north latitude, and the 28th and 42d degree of east longitude.

Four rivers of great magnitude, the *Dniépr*, the *Don*, the *Danube*, and *Kizil Irmak*, (*Halya*) pour their waters into it; and the *Kübân*, the *Fash* or *Rîón*, (*Phasis*) *Sakariya*, (*Sangarius*) *Dniéstr*, and *Bigh*, considerable streams, though not to be compared with the others, together with nearly a hundred of inferior size, continually increase the bulk of its

BLACK
SEA.

waters. The only drain, exclusive of evaporation, by which this vast body of water escapes, is the canal of Constantinople, or Thracian Bosphorus, which unites the Black Sea with the Propontis or sea of Marmora, and this connects it with the Mediterranean and the Atlantic Ocean. Excepting on the north-western side, the shores of this sea are bold and elevated, in many places precipitous: and to the north the Crimea rises like an island from its surface, being united with the main land only by the narrow isthmus of Perekop, and to which the sea of Azof, like another Euxine in miniature, is joined to it by the straits of Caffah, which were called the Cimmerian Bosphorus by the ancients.

From the rapidity of the current down the Bosphorus, and the straits of the Dardanelles, it has been conjectured that the level of the waters in this sea is more elevated than that of the Mediterranean: but this supposition has not yet been substantiated by any satisfactory evidence; nor have the physical peculiarities of this vast basin, or the surrounding country, been yet examined with sufficient accuracy to justify any decisive opinion on that and other interesting questions respecting it. We hope to enter more fully on these points when we inquire into the changes which have probably taken place in its form and extent; an inquiry which belongs more properly to the ancient geography of Asia.

North-eastern coast.
Abkhaz.

The whole of the north-eastern coast from the mouths of the Kûda to Sokhûm, the boundary of Mingrelia, is occupied by the Abkhazians or Abkhazs. It is for the most part very bold and elevated; and Mount Varda, a promontory nearly in $43^{\circ} 30' N.$ lat. is the extremity of one of the branches of Caucasus. The interior is extremely rugged, consisting of an argillaceous rocky bed covered with vegetable soil in different proportions, according to the elevation and exposure of the site. The valleys are well watered and fertile; and the mountains for a considerable height covered with wood. The inhabitants are fierce and rude, continually involved in war with their neighbours the Circassians, on the northern declivity of Mount Caucasus. The population is extremely scanty, more from the predatory ferocious habits of the natives, than from any defect in the soil or climate. They are a sort of hasty Musulmans, and still retain many relics of their ancient superstitions. They appear to have been long in undisturbed possession of their mountains, for they can hardly be different from the *Abazians* of Constantine Porphyrogenetus in the tenth century. They have small compressed faces, short chins, and prominent noses; with a turn of feature peculiarly characteristic. They are more pastoral than agricultural; and form a sort of predatory confederacy, each village being independent of its neighbours. They call themselves *Abanâ*, and are named *Cish-Hazib* by the Circassians, *Abkhazs* by the Tatars. Their language appears to have little or no affinity with any other. The protection of a native, or his representative, is sufficient for the security of the traveller, who, without it, would be liable to be robbed and murdered; and if the chief who offers protection, cannot come himself, he sends his arrow, which is a pledge known and respected by all who see it. Slaves formed the most profitable article of trade from this coast while it belonged to the Turks; but this commerce has probably ceased, since the more

powerful and vigilant government of the Russians has curbed the petty chiefs, and repressed the intestine wars which formerly desolated Mount Caucasus.

Anâp, nearly in lat $41^{\circ} 30' N.$ is the only place of any importance on this coast. It was a considerable town in the time of the Genoese, and the remains of its ancient fortifications are still visible. A miserable battery of four guns, and a khân or caravanserai, are almost the only objects in the present town, which shew it to be a place of trade or a fortress; though it was the residence of a Pasha, and is the only town on the coast frequented by foreign vessels. It was taken from the Genoese by the Turks in the reign of Mohammed II. at the close of the fifth century. This place, with the remainder of the coast as far as the fortress of Bâtûm in Gôrel, or Gurîel, a part of Georgia, was ceded to Russia by the peace of 1813.

This coast forms the western boundary of Mingrelia, a province of Georgia, from the river Sokhûm to Koddurs near the Fiah, or Ilân, the Phasis of the ancients. That rapid stream, which rises among the Osset, near the summits of the Caucasus, receives the waters of many smaller rivers before it reaches the Euxine. It discharges itself by two mouths, which form an island also called Phasis by the ancients. Like all mountain streams, it is very precipitous in its early course; but moves with a gentler current when it reaches a more level soil; it also varies exceedingly in depth. Its water, when the sand which renders it turbid has been allowed to settle, is extremely wholesome and agreeable to the taste; preserving its freshness and purity for a great length of time. It was navigable twenty miles above its mouth in the time of Scylax, but that does not appear to be the case now. *Uscûrchah* or *Iegur* was the Decuria, *Awarghia* the *Hercules*, and *Enkureh* the *Astelephus* of the ancients. The shores here are low and marshy, intersected by many small streams, but the coast rises at a short distance from the water's edge, and soon assumes the bold character which marks the whole region of Mount Caucasus.

Between the mouths of the Phasis and Bâtûm, lies Gurîel. Gurîel, another province of Georgia, or rather Imeritia, annexed together with that country to the Russian Empire in 1804. The mountains here recede further from the coast, which is low and marshy, covered with wood, and unhealthy on account of the fogs and exhalations continually hovering over it. There are no harbours nor towns worth notice on this part of the coast; and the inhabitants are reduced to a deplorable state of barbarism in consequence of internal warfare and incursion from the savage tribes in this neighbourhood.

From Bâtûm to Cape Kemer, the coast bends gradually round to the south-west, and from that point its general direction is westerly. It is like that of Gurîel, flat and well watered, but little frequented on account of the predatory habits of the *Lâz*, or *Legzia*, a people who occupy the fastnesses in the neighbouring mountains. Though well provided with small streams, it has no considerable or navigable rivers. The valleys are rich and fertile, and under almost any government but that of the Turks, this district would be productive and valuable. It forms a part of the Pashalik of Trebizonde, with the Beglerbeg of which the inhabitants are always at war. A small town called *Rizah*, to the north-east of Trebizonde, is the Rhizæum of the

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Anapah.

Phasis or
Fiah.

South-eastern coast.

Lâz or
Legzia.

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ancients: but Trebizond itself is the only place of considerable note. It has nothing but a shallow creak, without depth of water sufficient for vessels larger than boats. The real port of Trebizond is at Platana, fourteen miles to the west of that city. The chain of mountains at the back of the country round Trebizond terminates abruptly in the sea, and the coast is bold and full of crags as far as Fatsah, the Ptolemaion of the ancients. Tircbhöli, and Kéréshin, the ancient Cerasus, are towns of some note in the intervening space. About ten miles to the west of Fatsah is Kénich, the ancient Gane, and twenty miles further, in the same direction, Termeh, at the mouth of a river of the same name, recalls to our recollection the Thermodon of the Greeks. Ten or twelve miles further, the Delta of the Yesil Irmak, or Green River, (the ancient Iris,) running through a rich alluvial soil, gives a new face to the landscape. This river traverses the province of Jânîc, one of the least polished and most independent in the whole Turkish Empire. Besides Fatsah, Termeh and Kénich, Samsün and Bâfrâh are the chief towns on this part of the coast, but they are inconsiderable places, have little intercourse with other ports, and little shelter against the westerly winds which blow violently for nine months out of the twelve. The clouds collected by the lofty mountains at the back of this coast, are condensed in those elevated regions, and are continually discharged in heavy rains on the low lands near the sea; so that the greater part of Jânîc is one of the dampest and most fertile countries in the whole of Asia. M. Jambert, who was compelled by contrary winds to cast anchor in the roadstead of Kumjughuz, about fifty miles to the west of Termeh, thus describes the appearance of that part of the coast. "The country round Termeh, the Themiscyra of the ancients, is said to have been the territory of the Amazons, and now forms a part of Jânîc. The summit and sides of the lofty mountains which enclose the plains and valleys descending to the sea, are covered with large trees of almost every different kind, particularly box, myrtles, bays, dwarf oaks, pear trees, walnuts, and mulberries, and the fields produce large crops of maize, flax, and hemp. The villages are placed in the most elevated situations, and though numerous, are at a considerable distance from each other. Besides the Halyz, (the Kizil Irmak of the Turks,) the Yesil Irmak and Termeh, (which are the ancient Iris and Thermidon,) also make their way through this chain of mountains. On their approach to the sea, they give moisture and fertility to a vast plain, intersected by innumerable streams, the banks of which are crowned with groves of poplar, elm, bench, maple, and other forest trees. Young shoots of the vine, in the most luxuriant vegetation, climb from branch to branch, and mingle their full clusters with the thick foliage of these lofty trees. The greatest part of the plain is laid out in meadows, wild and picturesque in their appearance, and affording pasture to large herds of cattle, almost as wild as the fields in which they are bred. Wild boars and other game abound. Blue birds are found without number, such as wood-pigeons, turtle-doves, jays, blackbirds, plovers, and some of brilliant plumage, not known in the northern parts of Europe, such as the scarlet thrush, oriole, bee eater, and roller. The sea and rivers are frequented by large flocks of water-fowl, pelicans,

egrets, herons, sea-ducks, sea-snipes, &c. but there is a scarcity of fish." (*Voyage en Arménie et en Perse*, 385.) The principal towns on this part of the coast are Chûr-chenbeh, Samsün, and Bâfrâh. The first in lat. $41^{\circ} 19' N.$ and long. $36^{\circ} 46' E.$ is at the head of the Delta of the Yesil Irmak: too far from the coast to admit of its being further noticed in this place. The second, (called Amians by the Greeks,) in N. lat. $41^{\circ} 30' 30''$, and E. long. $36^{\circ} 8' 40''$, is placed in the centre of a low neck of land enclosed on three sides by the sea, and rising abruptly to the south. It has an old ruined castle, and its mosques, baths, and bázars are small. The air is bad, but the harbour is sufficiently capacious to receive large vessels. The high road to it passes through Kastamûni. There is a small lake on one side of the town over which some of the houses are built. (*Jehda-nâmâ*, p. 624.) Bâfrâh is near the mouth of the Kizil Irmak, at about twenty miles to the west of Samsün. It still has a handsome bridge, fountains, and bázars, and retains something of its former prosperity and affluence. The gulf of Samsün, bounded by the capes Chûr-chenbeh and Iojeh, is little frequented by any ships but those of the Turks, and not much even by them, as very little commerce is carried on by the people of Jânîc, particularly since the Crimea has become a Russian province. The coast near the mouth of the Kizil Irmak is alluvial, and therefore flat with shallow water for some miles out. But at a small distance to the west the shore rises, becomes steep and rugged, and is lined with breakers, which render a near approach dangerous. Between the mouths of the Kizil Irmak, (the ancient Halyz,) and Cape Iojeh, there is a large gulf called from the principal place on its shores the gulf of Sînûb. That city, in lat. $42^{\circ} 1' N.$ and long. $35^{\circ} 16' E.$ is placed upon the extremity of a peninsula about nine miles in circumference, and is connected with the main land by a narrow sandy isthmus. Its form is nearly quadrangular, and its mouldering walls and towers are scarcely sufficient to stand the attack of an Asiatic force. The walls of the castle, built by the Genoese from the wrecks of ancient edifices, are full of architraves, cornices, capitals, and other fragments of the temples and palaces of the Greeks; and many inscriptions, more or less mutilated, appear in different parts of them. In a niche, on the side of a lofty tower, at a great elevation above the ground, there is an antique head, the neck and hair of which are well preserved: and in a wall near the water's edge, there is a fine bas-relief, representing a man reposing upon a bed with a vase in his hand; a naked woman seated at his feet, and also holding a vase, with a child at a distance drawing something out of another vase. Near the female figure there is a semi-circular table supported by three stag's feet. The whole is about two feet in breadth, and fourteen or fifteen inches in height, and well executed in a good style. Large and deep reservoirs, with fragments of ancient walls, and numerous columns, in the Turkish burial grounds, all attest the former magnificence of Sinop. As the city is placed upon the isthmus, its walls are a protection to the peninsula, which, though bare of wood, has a rich soil, and would well repay cultivation. The population of the town was reduced to 500 souls when M. Beauchamp visited it in 1796: and its inhabitants were almost exclusively Greek Christians. The rapid diminution of their

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numbers is ascribed by him, probably with truth, to the imperial dockyard established there about thirty years before. The compulsory labour, insufficient pay, and cruel treatment experienced by slaves, or tributary subjects, who are employed in such establishments, are quite sufficient to depopulate a place in less than half a century. To those who emigrate from this coast, the Crimea affords a ready asylum; and their eagerness to abandon the place of their nativity is the less surprising, when we learn that the launching of a single vessel sometimes consigns fifty of them to a watery grave. The water is in fact so shallow, that a wooden jetty, three hundred feet long, must be thrown out into the sea, and the vessel dragged along it by cables hauled by men; and thirty days are often spent before she has depth of water enough to float. Sinôb has nothing but a roadstead exposed to easterly winds. To a naturalist this place is remarkable as the limit of the growth of the olive on this coast of the Black Sea. The dampness of the soil and violence of the winds, are said to prevent the cultivation of that useful tree further westwards; but this must be understood as exclusively applying to the coasts of the Euxine, for the olive will flourish in almost every other part of Anatolia. From Sinôb to Cape Kerempeh the coast does not materially deviate from the parallel of 43° , except at Cape Injeh, in $42^{\circ} 8' N.$ lat. and $35^{\circ} 1' E.$ long. It is hard, rugged, and difficult of approach, beset with rocks and shoals, and much broken by capes and head-lands. The shore is highly picturesque, being well wooded down to the water's edge, and fertilized by many limpid streams hurrying through rich valleys to the sea. These forests furnish plentiful supplies of timber for the Sultan's docks, and M. Beauchamp, in 1796, saw vessels taking in cargoes at Yenebô or Injeh, a little to the east of Tirebôlli. It is, however, not much benefitted by that circumstance, according to M. Joubert, who found it surrounded by forests where there was not the least trace of a possible road. But "the scene," he adds, "changes completely as the traveller descends into the fertile valley watered by the river of Tirebôlli. Every thing here proclaims the industry and security of the inhabitants. Groves of poplars, here and there overtopped by a tapering minaret; numerous flocks scattered over the meadows on each side of the stream; forges near the river, and docks constantly employed, shew that the Tirebôlli is inhabited by a more active and laborious people, than are usually met with in Asiatic cities. The coast continues high and rocky, and nearly on the same parallel as far as Cape Kerempeh, in lat. $43^{\circ} 2' N.$ and long. $33^{\circ} 24' E.$ From that point it takes a south-westerly direction till it reaches Ersef, then after a small bend to the south-east, it follows nearly an easterly direction to the mouth of the canal of Constantinople. Kidros, a small harbour to the south-west of Cape Kerempeh appears to be the Cytarus of Paphlagonia, mentioned by Strabo. It is surrounded by mountains covered with forests, descending so rapidly to the water's edge, that the trees when felled are slid down the declivity into the sea, and formed into rafts to be towed away to the ports for which they are destined. The hut used as a coffee house when Beauchamp visited this place in 1796, seems to have disappeared before M. Jambert saw it ten years later. The harbour is completely protected from gales of wind, but its entrance is not easily found.

Amâserah, (the Amastris of the Greeks,) in lat. $41^{\circ} 45' N.$ and long. $32^{\circ} 36' E.$ when seen from the sea, has merely the appearance of a miserable village; but some shafts of columns and the ruins of a temple show that it was not always in so humble a condition. A hill, almost insulated, forms the north side of the harbour; it is covered by a castle in ruins, and an inlet, to the north of this castle, forms a second harbour where there is anchorage for *sûks*. The first was anciently enclosed by a quay, of which the remains may yet be traced. The inhabitants are evil and hospitable; a fortunate circumstance, as the ruins near the town render it well worthy the notice of the scientific traveller. The remains of large public buildings, bas-reliefs, and inscriptions abound sufficiently in M. Beauchamp's opinion, to furnish an antiquary with constant occupation for at least a week. At a small distance from the town there is a large building, fifty feet high, with a handsome portico, and further on a fine antique mausoleum. Other ruins, though of considerable antiquity, appear to be of a later date; but all are surrounded by gardens, and in the midst of the richest scenery. The peninsula on which Amâserah stands, forms like that of Sinopé two ports, both nearly filled up, and one quite deserted; but the other affords a secure shelter from the westerly winds and strong currents which so greatly increased the dangers of this sea.

The coast here forms a small bay, of which Cape Kill Môli is the western boundary, and not far to the south west of Amâserah, is the mouth of a deep and rapid stream coming from the nearest town, the River of Bârtin. It forms a small gulf and affords anchorage for *sûks* drawing ten or twelve feet of water, for a considerable height above the entrance. The river rises in the mountains to the north-east of Angora, or rather conveys to the Black Sea the united waters of the Derbend-sû, Ovaâ-sû, and Ullâ-sû, all coming from that quarter. It bends its winding course through deep and rugged defiles in mountains richly clothed with wood, and the brilliance of the verdure, coolness of the water, and wild scenery of the overhanging forest render this harbour a delicious retreat from the oppressive heats of summer. The beauty of the landscape is incomparable, says M. Jambert; and he saw the place at the close of October, when the plains of Asia Minor weary the eye with one unvaried tint of a gloomy hue, except where the soil is concealed by fading vineyards, or a brook, at that season almost exhausted, still gives life and beauty to the Agnus Castus and Oleander covering its banks. The purity and transparency of the stream, and the deep recesses of the woods and mountains through which it forces its way, suggested to the Greeks, as this amusing writer supposes, the poetic name of Parthenius or the Virgin Stream, which they gave to this river, a name still to be traced in its Turkish appellation of Bârtin. "In spite," he says, "of all the advantages which this harbour offers, it is entirely neglected;" but this has probably not been long the case; for Mr. Beauchamp informs us that much timber was hewn there and shipped for Constantinople, when he visited the place in 1796; and we learn from the *féda-nâmâ* that most of the *alléons* were built there, (p. 654.) so that the Grand Signor must have had a dockyard there in the seventeenth century. The coast here is not quite so bold, and

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Amastria.

Bârtin.

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SEA.Erecl, or
Eregl.

there are several necks and banks of sand along the shore. It has a south-westerly inclination as far as Cape Bôdâ, and from thence takes a sweep to Cape Kîrçeh, forming a gulf, on the north-eastern side of which is Erecl, or Eregl, (Heraclea Pontic,) a town built on the declivity of a hill facing the south-west, and containing a population of about 5000 souls. It is about a mile distant from the extremity of a little peninsula, (the Acherusia of the ancients.) It has an natural harbour, but the remains of an artificial one, constructed by the Greeks, still exist. There is not water sufficient for any but very small vessels, at present. The high lands to the north afford good shelter from the north and north-east winds, and outside of the ancient pier there is depth enough for the largest ships to ride in safety. The Sultan has a dockyard there for building of men of war; but the place is in a wretched condition, in consequence of the gripping oppression of the local government, and intestine wars between the neighbouring Aghâs. There are no remarkable monuments of antiquity at Erecl, except the ruins of the pier; but innumerable fragments of columns, cornices, and inscriptions remind the traveller of its ancient splendour. The inhabitants had, in remote ages, the reputation of being faithless and inhospitable, and do not appear to deserve a better name at the present day. From Cape Kîrçeh to Fanârâki, (the little light-house,) at the entrance of the Bosphorus, the coast makes a shallow sweep to the south, and the distance is about 100 miles. The shores here are low and sandy, till the hills approach to each other near the mouth of the canal, and, at the entrance of that narrow strait, its sides become precipitous: on the western side there are sunken rocks, and considerable extent of coast without any shelter, which is greatly dreaded by those who navigate these seas in the winter season.

Western
coast.

The western coast, beginning from the Eskî Fanâr, or old light-house, near the mouth of the canal of Constantinople, may be divided into three distinct portions; the first terminated by Eminîh-burnu, a bluff head-land, forming the eastern extremity of Mount Hæmus; the second by the mouths of the Danube; the last by those of the Dnièpr. The beach to the south of Mount Hæmus is generally flat and sandy, rising with different degrees of rapidity into a plain of some extent, and skirted by hills branching out from that lofty chain which crosses the whole of Runella (Rûm-ili). Eminîh-burnu, or Inéada, is lat. $41^{\circ} 55' N.$ and long. $27^{\circ} 50' E.$ is the first roadstead much frequented in that line of coast, and it is principally for the charcoal with which it supplies the capital that the Turkish boats resort thither. Its anchorage is pretty good, as it has more than five fathoms almost in the bottom of its little bay, and is well protected on every side but the south-east. But as nothing better than a wretched Turkish hamlet is to be found near its shores, it offers no resource for a traveller who wishes to proceed into the interior of the country. There are some fragments of an ancient mole, and many shafts of columns to remind the antiquary of Thynius, a port visited by the Argonauts. The inhabitants of the neighbouring mountains are stout and short, in their dress and appearance much resembling the Circassians. This country has long been in a state of comparative independence; and in no part of Turkey perhaps is the people in a more

uncivilized state. To the north of Inéada, (placed more than twenty miles too far northwards in Arrow-smith's map,) the coast bends round to the N.W. and W. and forms the gulf of Fôrôz, the first harbour on this side of the Black Sea: Sîzebbûli is on the southern, Burghâz on the western, and Ahyûl on the northern side of this bay. The first, a small town on a peninsula, surrounded by the ruins of a wall, and exclusively inhabited by Greeks, has the best anchorage in the whole gulf, and sufficient depth of water for the largest ships. Chingâneh-laklêh-î, (Gipsy's harbour,) a modern Turkish village, nearly due south of Burghâz, has a well-sheltered road, but an insecure anchoring ground. Fire-wood and timber are exported thence in large quantities. The gulf of Fôrôz itself is about four leagues and a half in breadth, and five in depth; and, besides the harbours already mentioned, has one at Fôrôz, or Fôrôz, where there is now no longer any town. A little to the north-east of Ahyûl is Mîsîrî, the ancient Mesembria, situated on a rocky peninsula, almost encircled by the waves in stormy weather. There are some slight remains of its ancient fortifications. Ahyûl (the Aeneiale of the Greeks) has a soil strongly impregnated with salt, and exports a large quantity of that article to Constantinople, distant seven days journey, (180 miles;) but Burghâz, at the bottom of the gulf, is the principal port, and a considerable entrepôt for the commerce between the capital and the different maritime towns. It is there that lûbas, or woollen cloths, iron from Russia, seeds, wool, butter, cheese and wine are shipped off for the different ports in this or the neighbouring seas. Eminîh-burnu is only a few miles east-north-east of Mîsîrî. Thence to Kêlêgrêh-burnu, in lat. $43^{\circ} 10' N.$ long. $28^{\circ} 20' E.$ there is a considerable bay, of which that point forms the eastern extremity. Mount Balkân, the ancient Hæmus, terminates abruptly in the sea, at Eminîh-burnu. To the north of that chain, the country near the sea is one continued plain, as far as the steppes, or level wastes of the Nêghâs, and other of the Tatar borders. The whole tract along the coast, from the Balkân to the mouths of the Danube, is called Dôbrûjah by the Turks. It is one vast plain, extending beyond the reach of the eye, covered with verdure, even in the hottest season, and affording excellent pasture to the flocks, herds, and horses of the inhabitants, who are descendants of the Tatars formerly masters of the country. On a bay, in the middle of this gulf, is Vârânh, one of the largest towns on the western side of this sea. The river on which it stands forms a large lake and some marshes in the valley behind it; and this natural defence materially contributed to save the town from falling into the hands of the Russians in the war which was terminated by the peace of Aînah kî Kavak. The port of Vârânh is spacious, and pretty well protected by the neighbouring head-lands. The town has a population of 14 or 15,000 inhabitants, and supplies a large portion of the provisions consumed in the capital. It is almost the only town in the Turkish Empire where the Greeks enjoy the indulgence of hearing the sound of a church clock; for the Turks, as is well known, have a peculiar aversion to the noise of bells; and as they begin the day at sun-rise, the length of their hours varies with the season of the year: clocks, therefore, are of less obvious utility to them than to

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Sîzebbûli.

Kêlêgrêh-
burnu.

Dobruja.

Varna.

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SEA.Mouths of
the Dan-
ube.

us. Timber, grain, and a few articles of raw produce, are nearly the only goods shipped from Bălchik and Căvărnaș, as well as Monakiliyah, Costenjah, and Kară Khernia, the principal ports on the gulf of Băbă. At the extremity of that gulf is the Vizi-bôghâzi, or first mouth of the Danube, narrow at its entrance into the sea, but forming a large shallow lake, fifteen or sixteen miles before it reaches the shore. The Giurgăvi, Sunnâh, and Kil-bôghâzi, are the three remaining mouths of that mighty river, the largest which pours its waters into the Black Sea: but that of Sunnâh, called Suleân-bôghâzi by the Greeks, is the only one which is navigable. It is 600 feet wide, and twenty-five deep, and runs at the rate of three miles and a half per hour. Its entrance is very hazardous without the assistance of a good pilot, as there are embankments thrown up on each side, and extended to some distance into the sea, at the extremities of which there were formerly light-houses, now in ruins, and serving only to block up the passage, and expose the inexperienced navigator to imminent peril. These different arms branch off at a small distance below Ismail Ghechidi, (Ismail's Ferry,) and Tâljah, and the soil through which they flow, is evidently alluvial. The same may be said of all the line of coast between the mouths of the Danube and the Dniestr, intersected by innumerable streams, most of which form salt lagoons, and narrow islands and peninsulas on the borders of the sea. Of this tract, which is called Bessarabia by Europeans, and Bôjâk, by the Turks, the reader will find more details under the head Bessarabia. The Dniestr passes through the lagoons called Lacul Ovidului by the Moldavians, in its way to the sea, and its mouth is obstructed by a sand-bank, on each side of which there is a passage. That on the right is rather more than half a mile wide, but has scarcely eight feet of water in depth; so that nothing but boats can go up so high as Ak Kirmân. From Eminêh-hurud to this point the whole of the coast is extremely low and difficult to be described; with banks and shallows extending to a considerable distance. Between the Dniestr and the Dniestr there is one continued line of cliffs, fifty or sixty feet high, intersected here and there by the valleys, through which rivulets descend to the sea, and surmounted by a naked level surface, varied only by a few tumuli, like those on the plains of Troy. At a distance of about thirty miles from the entrance to the Dniestr, the coast forms a small bay, and then takes an easterly direction. On the western side of that bay is the modern town of Odessa, and opposite to it, more than twenty miles distant, is the mouth of the Oză Limanî, or port of Ochâkov, (Oczakow,) a large arm of the sea, which receives the waters of the Bôgh and the Dniestr. From Kil-boruo, or Kin-burun, the southern extremity of that entrance, the coast bends to the south and east, and stretches along to the gulf on this north-western side of the Crimea, called the Dead Sea. Odessa, in lat. 46° 29' N. and long. 30° 45' E. now occupies the site of the Tatar villages formed once the Castle of Kôjah Bey, partly for the purpose of withdrawing from subjection to the Russian government. It is equally distant from the mouths of the Dniestr and the Dniestr, and has a safe road, capable of receiving ships of the line. This road has been converted into a harbour by the erection of two large piers, capable of containing 300 vessels. Seven

Churches, a Hospital, Custom-house, Court of Admiralty, Exchange, and Theatre, are the public buildings which already adorn this rapidly increasing city, which has sprung up, as it were by a magic touch, in the midst of a desert.

As the coast is here elevated, the site of the town is healthy; but a dearth of water and a total want of inland navigation render it in other respects improper for a great commercial establishment; and competent judges have affirmed that Ochâkov, on the Limanî, would have been greatly preferable. However, as this is one of the places where goods from Turkey are compelled to perform quarantine, it has become an emporium of the Asiatic trade of the south-western provinces; and, though begun since the peace of Yassy, in 1792, its population amounts to nearly 40,000. The coast along the north side of the Black Sea, is exactly such as the last described, and forms the boundary of the vast plains anciently possessed by the Nôghâi Tatars, and cover it continues to be throughout the northern half of the Crimea. Kozlov, or Guzel-ovah, (the beautiful plain) in lat. 45° 10' N. and long. 33° 25' E. has a port capable of containing fifty vessels at a time, and once carried on a considerable trade, but it has dwindled away to nothing since it fell under the dominion of Russia. At the southern extremity of the peninsula there is a narrow and deep inlet of the sea, which forms the road of Aktiâr or Sebastopol. It has several secure bays in the numerous indentures of its sides, and could afford convenient anchorage to all the fleets in the world; it appears to resemble, on a larger scale, the harbour of La Valeta in Malta. In order to prevent the embazzlement of the public stores, none but ships of war are allowed to enter the bay: and the town of Sebastopol is in a very wretched condition. Round two head-lands, at a small distance from Sebastopol, is Balaklavah, the Palæum of Strabo, whence a well was carried to the gulph of Aktar, in order to cover the smaller Peninsula or Chersonesus. "The port of Balaklavah," says Dr. Clarke, "is one of the most remarkable in the Crimea. From the town it appears like one of the smallest of our northern lakes, land-locked by high precipitous mountains. Although its entrance is so narrow that ships can hardly obtain a passage, yet it affords excellent anchorage, and security in all weather from the dreadful storms of the Black Sea. Ships of war find sufficient depth of water and a safe asylum here. The heights around it are the first objects descried by vessels sailing from Constantinople." The town is colonized by Greeks from the Morea, fugitives from the bloody mandate of the Porte, by which the whole population of that Peninsula was at once consigned to the sword. To the south of Balaklavah the coast rises and gradually forms bold and lofty promontories, of which the southernmost, called the Ram's-head (Crim-metopon) by the ancients, now bears the Turkish appellation of Karâjah-burun. The low lands, between this point and the harbour of Sudak, are represented by travellers as a sort of terrestrial paradise. Sheltered by lofty, precipitous mountains from the northern blasts, and continually fanned by sea breezes from the south, they enjoy a climate of an unparalleled excellence. Copious and frequent streams afford onfiling supplies of water, and a fertile soil provides these valleys with the productions of Asia as well as of Europe; and the acclivities, upon which

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Caffa or
Theodosia.

the villages are placed, are free from the pestilential exhalations so destructive to health in the rest of the Crimea. Nearly under the meridian of 35° E. long. is the village and harbour of Súdac metamorphosed into Súdagh by the Tatars, a place of some importance under the Genoese; and at about twenty-five miles further to the north-east is Kéffich or Theodosia. It rises, like a vast theatre, with its numerous mosques and minarets over all the hills that enclose the south side of a beautiful bay. It was once in a highly flourishing condition, and called by the Tatars Cuchuc Sümböl, (Little Constantinople;) but twenty years ago its population had been reduced to less than 300. From Kéffich the coast runs, with large indentures forming considerable bays, nearly due east, to Point Tanghin, the entrance of the straits of Yenikálch, leading into the sea of Azof. The coast on the western side is bleak and rocky; on the eastern it is a broad sand backed by naked downs. The width of the passage is not above eight or nine miles; and immediately opposite to the Crimea is the island of Taman, formed by two arms of the river Kúblán; one of which discharges itself into the sea of Azof, and the other into the Black Sea, and form the bógház or strait through which the southern branch flows. From this to Anáph,

whence our survey of these coasts began, there is only an interval of about twenty-five miles along a flat sandy beach. Of the sea of Azof, which is more intimately united with the Black Sea than that of Marmora, an account has been already given under its proper head; and further observations on the depths, currents, and temperature of the Euxine will be introduced in the account of the ancient geography of this sea and the countries along its shores.

Larger details will be found in Dureau de Lamalle's *Géographie Physique de la mer Noire*, Paris, 1807; Reuilly, *Voyage en Crimée et sur les bords de la mer Noire*, Paris, 1806; Schérrer, *Hist. du Commerce de la mer Noire*, Paris, 1788; Peyssonnel, *Traité sur le Commerce de la mer Noire*, Paris, 1787; (Anthoine) *Traité historique sur le Commerce*, &c. Paris, 1805; Dr. E. D. Clarke's *Travels in Europe*, &c. London, 1816, vol. ii.; Lechevalier, *Voyage de la Propontide et du Pont Euxine*, Paris, 1802, tom. ii.; Beauchamp, *Relation historique*, &c. in the *Mémoires sur l'Égypte*, ii. p. 109; Cantemir's *History of the Ottoman Empire*; Olivier's *Voyages*; Tournefort's *Voyages*; Guthrie's *Travels in Tauride*; Haji Khalifah's *Jehd-namé*, Constant. 1732; Storch's *Gemälde des Russischen Reichs*. Pallas, *Reise in der Krim*, &c.

BLACK
SEA.
—
BLAD-
DER.

BLACKVELLIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Dodecandria, order Pentagynia. Generic character: calyx five-fid, half-superior; corolla of fifteen petals; capsule unilocular, many-seeded. Willdenow describes three species, inhabiting the islands of the Indian Ocean.

BLACKWATER, a river of England, in the county of Essex, which rises near Saffron Walden, in the north-west part of the county, and after passing Bocking, Coggeshall, and Kelvedon, it joins the Chelmer at Malden; after which the united stream falls into the estuary called Blackwater Bay, on the eastern shore of that county, which has long been celebrated for the quality of its oysters.

BLACKWATER is also the name of three rivers in Scotland; one in Banffshire, one in Berwickshire, and one in Perthshire. Several rivers in Ireland are likewise distinguished by the same appellation. One of these rises in the mountains between the counties of Limerick and Kerry, and is considerable. Its course is at the first towards the south or south-east, but it afterwards bends to the east, crosses the northern part of the county of Cork, till it reaches the ancient city of Lismore, and then turns to the south and enters the sea at Youghall Bay, a short distance below that town, which stands on the right bank of its estuary. The length of this river, without estimating its windings, is about ninety miles; and it flows through a rich and well wooded country, which Mr. Arthur Young has described as "equally remarkable for beauty of prospect and fertility of soil."

BLADDER KETMIA, a name given to the *Hibiscus Trionum*.

BLADDER, v. } A. S. *blædr*; Ger. *Matter*;
BLADDER, n. } Dutch, *bladder*; Swe. *blådra*; —
from the A. S. *blæd*, *flatua*; the past participle of the A. S. *blæan*, to blow.

That which is blown or blown, puffed or inflated.

For every mortal mames power o' is
But like a bladder full of wind yow;
For with a median point, when it is blow,
May all the best of it be laid full low.

— *Chaucer. The Second Nonnes Tale*, v. 97651.

Let never man presume on worldly wealth,
Let riches never breede a lofty minde,
Let us man boast too much of perfit wealth
Let nature gifts make no man over blinde
For these are all but bladders full of winde.

— *Turberville. Epitaph on Maister Tyfton.*

Only a garland of rose-buds did play
About her locks, and in her hand she bore;
A hollow globe of glass, that long before,
She full of complaisance had bladdered,
And all the world thereat depicted:
Whose colours, like the rainbow, ever vanished.

— *George Fletcher. Christ's Triumph on Earth.*

If you see him [a Dutchman] fist, he hath been rooting in a cabbage-ground, and that bladdered him.

— *Fletcher. Character of the Low Countryman.*
What are they when they stand upon the highest pinnacle of worldly signification, but bladders swelled up with the breath of popular rout, nothings set a-stir. *Hopkins. Sermon*, fol. 32.

Stumbling from thought to thought, falls headlong down
Into doubt's boundless sea, where, like to drowns,
Roots bear him up a while, and make him try
To swim with bladders of philosophy.

— *Rocheater. Satire against Menkinds.*

This sportive boy, around some base's brims,
Behold the pipe-drawn bladders circling swim.
— *Churchill. The Rascals.*

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"Blad, folium: frons. Blad, (says Pecunius) is so called from *Plat*; i. e. *latus, planus*." Kilian.

The shoulder blade, then, will be the flat bone of the shoulder.

If it be green, like to lake blades, then or black it is to be kept yll. *Sir T. Eglet. Cast of Health, p. 52.*

Because it had not earthy yewage underneath it to grow it nupture to the fall tygesset, soon after it was shot forth aboveground, it dried up and withered away as soon as any fervent heat of the sunne came to it, and so even in the first blading it perished. *Udall. Lake, ch. viii.*

That even from the shoulder-blade
Into the breast the broad gun wade,
Therabout his heart it ran.
Weber. Anna and Amiloun, v. 1363.

For it is a blade of grass with a stalk, as big as a great wheaten reed, which hath a blade, issuing from the top of it, on which, though the cattle feed, yet it groweth every day higher, until the top be too high for an ox to reach. *Sir Francis Drake Revised, fol. 55.*

Lta. Helen, to you our wounds we will unfold,
To morrow night, when Phoebe doth behold
Her silver visage, in the watry glass,
Decking with liquid pearls the dusky grass,
(A time that lovers flights doth still conceale)
Through Athens' gates have we devils to steal.
Shakespeare. Midsummer Night's Dream, fol. 147.

Besides, what is also clay, but a foul woody marsh,
And that she calls her grass, so blady is, and harsh,
As cuts the cattle's mouth, constrain'd thereon to feed.
Dryden. Poly-Otton, Song xxv.

Blad, through the dusk, the smoking currents shine;
And from the bladed field the fearful hare
Lings, awkward. *Thomson. Summer.*

Dr. Swift somewhere says, that he who could make two blades of grass grow where but one grew before, was a greater benefactor to the human race than all the politicians that ever existed.

Barbo. On Mr. Fox's East India Bill.

Say, is the Persian carpet, than the field's
Or meadow's mantle gay, more richly wov'n;
Or softer to the votaries of ease

Than bladed grass, perfum'd with dew-dropt flow'rs?
Warton. The Enthusiast.

BLADE, s. } Junius thinks that Chaucer, when he
BLADE, s. } wrote *platte*, for *blade* (or. of a sword)
(*Squires Tale*, v. 176.) intimated his opinion of the origin of the word. *Plat*, Mr. Tyrwhit says, is the Fr. *plat*, *flat*; and this Casseuene deduces from the Gr. *πλάτος*, enlarged, expanded. Skinner prefers the A. S. *blad, folium*, because it (the blade of a sword) *lata est iuxta folia*. *Blade* is applied (met.) to any one who pretends to the sharpness, brightness of a sword blade.

By his belt he bare a long parade,
And of a sword ill trenchant was the blade.
Chaucer. The Reeve Tale, v. 3928.

As she had said her damazelle might perceive,
Her with these words full peared on a sword;
The blade embowed and hands besprang with gore.
Barry. Anna, book iv.

Thus speaking, in the midst thereof she left, and there withal
With breast on piercing sword her ladies saw where she did fall:
The blade in fenny blood, and hands abroad with spouting
flow'rs. *Pharro. Emily, book iv.*

As when an arming sword of groots is made,
Both Steele and iron must be tempered well;
(For iron gives the strength unto the blade,
And Steele, in edge doth cause it to excel)
As each good blade-mouth by his art can tell.

Mir. for Mag. Newton to the Reader.

Atrides lance did gore
Pylemen's shoulder, in the *blay*.
Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book v. fol. 73.

With dauntless hardihood,
And brandish'd blade rush on him, break his glass,
And shed the lascivious liquor on the ground,
But seize his wand. *Milton. Comus.*

Ceryll, on the other side, play'd a smooth edge upon Raleigh
throughout the trial; his blade seemed ever anointed with the
balsam of compliment or apology, whereby he gave not such rough
and snarling wounds, tho' they were as deep and fatal as the
other. *Oldys. Life of Raleigh, p. clvii.*

So fares it with those merry blades,
That frisk it under Pindus' shades,
In noble song, and lofty ode,
They tread on stars, and talk with gods.
Prior. A Simile.

Vanbrun dy'd—his son, we're told,
Succeeded to his father's gold.
Flush'd with his wealth, the thoughtless blade,
Desp'd his frugality, and trade.
Cotton. Death and the Rake.

Again our trenchant blades aloft we heave,
Destruction again the sever'd bodies cleave,
And triumph in the deed.
Cambridge. The Scythian, book ii.

BLADHIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Pen-
tandria, order Monogynia. Generic character: calyx
five-partite; corolla rotate, five-lobed; berry one-seeded;
seed arilate.

Four species are described, all natives of Japan.
Thunberg. Flora Japonica.

BLERIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Te-
trandria, order Monogynia. Generic character: calyx
four-partite, corolla four-lobed. Staminoinserted into the
receptacle: capsule four-locular, many-seeded.

A genus of the Henth tribe, belonging to the south
of Africa. Willdenow describes nine species, all of
which were referred by Thunberg to the genus *Eria*.
Thunberg. Prodomus Plantarum Capensium.

BLASLING, in Zoology, a synonym of the Greater
Coot or *Fulica Atreva*. See *FULICA*.

BLAIN, A. S. *blēgen*: Dutch, *blagen*. Junius and
Skinner say, perhaps from the A. S. *blāwan*, to blow.
The latter adds, a *blain*, is a distention, tumor, or
inflation of the skin.

For if his finger dooe hut ake of an hoate blaine, a greate
manys runnes mouthes blowing out his pryze, wyll scanty doe
him among them all, half so much ease, as to have one boie blow
upon his finger. *Sir Thomas More, fol. 124.*

And there brake out scores with blaines both in ma & beast,
so that the sorrowers coult not stand before Monce, for there
were blotches upon the enchansters and upon all the Egyptian.
Hilde. 1531. End. cap. ix.

Itches, blaines,
Sore all th' Athenian housemen, and their crop
Be generally leprose.
Shakespeare. Titus of Athens, fol. 90.

Not first the lawless tyrant, who desires
To know their God, or message to regard,
Must be compell'd by signs and judgements dire;
Riches and blaine must all his flesh imbore,
And all his people.
Milton. Paradise Lost, book xii.

BLAIR ATHOL, a village and parish of Scotland,
in the county of Perth, and noted for the castle be-
longing to the Duke of Athol. This edifice, though
now devoted to the purposes of a private residence,
was formerly a point of contest during the period of

BLADE.

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BLAME. If days be to be feared in such as show thy propitious smile
 against that which is blameless, what shall we think of
 those that under the pretence of zeal deface the minster, and the
 word that he prescribeth for doing that which is lawful, and the
 which of duties he ought to do.

Whitgift. Defence, fol. 268.

But if we receive the grace of God in vain, and take no care to
 perform the condition, and do neglect to improve the grace and
 assistance of God's H. Spirit to that purpose, we have none to
 blame but ourselves.

Falstoun. German xlvii.

It is the excess, not the thing itself, that is blameable.

Prior. Preface to Solomon.

Not simple Nature's unaffected sons,
 The stevenson Indians, round the forest-cheer,
 In sunny lawn or shady covert set,
 Held none unspotted converse.

Thomson. To the Memory of Lord Talbot.

We give to chance, blind chance, ourselves as blind,
 The glory of thy work; which yet appears
 Perfect and unimpeachable of blame,
 Challenging human scrutiny, and prov'd
 Then skillful most when most severely judg'd.

Cooper. The Task, book v.

I therefore took occasion to observe, that the world in general
 began to be blameless indifferent as to doctrinal matters, and
 followed human speculations too much.

Goldsmith. The Vicar of Wakefield, ch. xiv.

To share that glory. There to perish here,
 No law, no oracle expels. To die,
 Uncall'd, is blameful. *Glover. Leonidas, book x.*

Thrice happy land! though freeing on the verge
 Of arctic alms; yet, blameless still of arts
 That polish to deprave, each suffer close.

Mallet. Angustar and Theodora, can. 1.

The disturbance and fear, which often follow upon a man's
 having done an injury, arise from a sense of his being blame-
 worthy; otherwise there would, in many cases, be no ground of
 disturbance, nor any reason for fear, repentance or shame.

Bulter. Anatomy of Religion, part i. ch. iii.

A wise man may frequently neglect praise, even when he has
 best deserved it; but, in all matters of serious consequence, he
 will most carefully endeavour so to regulate his conduct as to
 avoid, not only blameworthiness, but, as much as possible, every
 probable imputation of blame.

Smith. Mor. Ser. part iii. ch. ii.

BLANC, MONT. The highest mountain in Europe,
 is situated in Savoy, between the valleys of Chamouni
 and Entreves, about latitude 45° 42' N. and longitude
 6° 45' E. forming a part of the ancient *Alpes Pennine*.
 It derives its name from the immense mantle of snow
 with which it is enveloped for about 12,000 feet in
 height, with scarcely the appearance of a single rock
 for the eye to rest upon as a relief from the glaring
 whiteness of the scene. This colossal mass presents
 different aspects when viewed from different quarters,
 but its outline being in general formed of gently
 flowing curves, its *total ensemble* is rather that of sub-
 lime majesty, than of terrific grandeur, impressive in
 its magnitude rather than awful from its figure. It
 rises imperceptibly among the other mountains that
 bound one side of the vale of Chamouni, but soon
 towers far above them all. On that side it assumes a
 rounded form, its surface being nearly smooth and covered
 with snow; but when seen from the valley of
 Aost, its acclivity is more broken, abrupt and dark, and
 the prospect it presents is strongly contrasted with the
 smoothness and symmetry of the other parts. Various
 descriptions have been given of *Mont Blanc*, and the
 valley of Chamouni; but we are not acquainted with
 any which conveys a more lively and distinct idea of

General appearance.

either, than that of M. Simond, in his late work on
 Switzerland; and which we shall therefore present to
 such of our readers as have not had an opportunity of
 examining these interesting scenes for themselves.

"The valley of Chamouni," says this writer, "may
 be compared to a street, with splendid edifices raised
 by the hand of Nature on each side. They are so
 high, and the interval between them comparatively
 so narrow, (about half a mile wide) that little more is
 seen than the ground story. The magnificent front
 of *Mont Blanc*, rising 11,780 feet above Chamouni,
 itself 3000 feet above the sea, occupies six or seven
 miles in length of the south side of the valley; and
 over the way stands the *Brven*, which is *Mont*
Blanc's nearest neighbour. Other mountains follow
 on that side as far as the *Col de Balme*, which termi-
 nates the long vista at the distance of about eighteen
 miles. Buttresses nearly at regular distances appear to
 prop up *Mont Blanc*, chiefly composed of calcareous
 strata, turned up against the granitic mass, and are
 less precipitous than the rest of the front. These
 afford a footing for trees, varying in species according
 to elevation. In the first zone, they are deciduous,
 the second is composed of pines, and these are
 followed by larches; forest above forest waving
 their lofty and dark shades, accessible for three or
 four thousand feet above Chamouni. The interval
 between each of these widest buttresses is filled with
 a glacier. There are six or seven of them: those of
Tacony and *Bussens* before coming to Chamouni; and
 of those *Montanvert*, *Des Bois*, *D'Argentiere*, and *De*
la Tour, beyond it. The *Glacier des Bois* is the most
 considerable. The cap of snow over the head of *Mont*
Blanc, turned to hard ice solely by the pressure of its
 own accumulated mass, covers the neck and shoulders
 of the giant, and hangs down to the ground, forming
 an irregular drapery, of which the glaciers above
 enumerated are the skirts. It is the quantity of snow
 falling upon the cap of *Mont Blanc*, that is upon the
 upper third of its height, where it never melts, and not
 the intenseness of the cold, which determines the
 progressive encroachments of the glaciers over the
 fields at their lower extremities." When M. Simond
 visited this part of Switzerland the fall of snow during
 the preceding winter had been greater than usual, and
 its accumulation on the upper part of the mountain
 had pushed these glaciers several hundred feet over
 the valley of Chamouni. But he does not consider
 that the encroachment will be permanent; for the
 glacier encountering more heat as it descends, the
 principles of dissolution will ever be found commensurate.
 In these advances, the glaciers proceed with
 slow, but irresistible power, the ice pushes forward
 vast heaps of stone, bends down large trees to the
 earth, and gradually passes over them. It does not
 form a field of solid ice, and scarcely presents an inch
 of even surface, the whole hissing over with sharp
 ridges, and points bent forward like the pikes of
 embattled soldiers.

When seen from this valley, or the *Col de Balme*,
 towards its termination, the summit of *Mont Blanc*
 appears of a rounded form, and to end rather
 abruptly in a point, called *Dome de Gouté*. This point,
 however, is succeeded by a hollow, which is followed
 by another elevation called the *Middle Dome*; a
 gradual sinking again takes place, in the midst of
 which rises a pyramid of ice, and afterwards the

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BLANC, MONT.

BLANC,
MONT.View of
Mont Blanc
from Bre-
vres.

highest point of the mountain, in the shape of a compressed hemisphere, called *La Basse du Dromadaire*. When this summit, however, is reached, it is found to be a horizontal ridge, scarcely broad enough to allow two persons to walk abreast upon it. One of the most perfect views of *Mont Blanc* is from this point, *M. Simond* observes, "the prospect of *Mont Blanc* was here little different from what we had found it at the *Châtel*, (on the side of the mountain, about 3000 feet above *Chamonix*;) yet the summit of *Mont Blanc*, the *Basse du Dromadaire*, appeared now less fore-shortened, and the whirlwinds of snow-dust upon it were clearly distinguished against the dark blue of the sky, moving round with great violence on particular spots. The view here was undoubtedly a most extraordinary one, placed full in front, and about mid-height of *Mont Blanc*, and therefore at equal distance between the summit and the base. Sufficiently far to embrace the whole at one glance, sufficiently near to distinguish every detail, we saw this stupendous object like a full length picture hung up there for our pleasure and information. When we began to ascend the *Brevres*, and half way up to its *Châtel*, we could not turn round and look at *Mont Blanc* without experiencing the unpleasant sensation of its falling upon us; but as we ascended higher this sensation ceased."

Mont Blanc is indisputably the highest point of Europe, and though the variety of results obtained by some of the most accurate observers in Europe, may leave some doubts as to the actual height, it can leave none as to its preeminent elevation.

Height.

The following are the principal of these measures, and are results derived partly from trigonometrical, and partly from barometrical operations: viz.

Names of observers.	Height in English feet above the sea.
M. Deluc	15,304
Sir George Schuckburgh	15,602
M. Picotet of Geneva	15,530
M. de Saussure	15,670
M. Tralles	15,760
The mean of these results is	15,587½

Division.

Mont Blanc may be divided into three regions; the lower consisting of the central mass, and the adjacent mountains, attaining the height of six or seven thousand feet; the second embracing the middle story, which is about 12,000 high, and the third, the *Basse du Dromadaire*, or the most elevated peak. The highest rocks are formed of strata of granite, nearly parallel to each other, and almost vertical. Those on the east side of the mountain are mixed with *steatites*; while on the south *schist* and *lapis cornarus* are interspersed; and some of them about 150 yards below the summit appear as if they had been shivered by lightning.

Attempts to
reach the
summit.

Curiosity is too powerful a stimulus in the bosom of man not to render a visit to the summit of this colossal mountain an object of ardent desire to the adventurous traveller; but the repeated failures that attended the first attempt, caused it to be thought for a long time altogether impracticable. Toil and danger were, however, despised, and each fresh attempt smoothed either the way for its successor by overcoming previous difficulties, or became a source of encouragement, from its partial success, till the amazing height and wintry horrors of the summit

seemed rather to invite than to appal the daring adventurer, and perseverance at last triumphantly trod the summit. A brief sketch of these attempts will therefore not be uninteresting. The first serious essay with which we are acquainted was made by *M. Courtenay*, and three guides from *Chamonix*. They set out from the *Frigny* on the 13th of July, 1776, about eleven at night, and after climbing rugged ascents, passing valleys of ice and plains of snow for about fourteen hours, they attained the summit nearest to the *Basse du Dromadaire*. At first they thought themselves not more than a league from the highest point, but soon found that this arose from an optical deception, originating in the clearness and rarity of the atmosphere, and that it would require them at least four hours more to reach the desired point, even should the task be practicable. Under their circumstances of fatigue, and the day being so far spent, they were obliged to abandon the object of their desire, and to descend. They reached *Chamonix* after an absence of about twenty-two hours. The point reached by this party is estimated by *Sir George Schuckburgh* to be 13,000 feet above the level of the Mediterranean. No serious attempt to scale this summit appears to have been made from that time till 1784, when the indefatigable *Bourrit* had his mind zealously bent upon the enterprise. After several unsuccessful essays, he set out from *Bionnassay* attended by six guides; but as he was scaling what he calls the "rampart" of *Mont Blanc*, he was suddenly so much affected by the cold as to be wholly unable to proceed; but two of the guides who had passed on before the rest, reached the *Dome de Gouté*, and passed the *Middle Dome*, but the approach of night obliged them to return. In the early part of the following September, *Marie Couët* and *James Balma*, two of the *Chamonix* guides, reached a place at a considerable elevation, where they passed the night under a rock, and setting off next morning before sun rise, passed the *Dome de Gouté*, and were proceeding towards the highest point, when a violent storm of hail compelled them to give up the enterprise. The partial success which had attended these attempts, appears now to have dissipated the idea of impracticability, and though *M. Bourrit* had suffered from his former adventures, he joined *M. de Saussure* in a fresh essay. They left *Bionnassay* on the 18th of September, 1786, with twelve guides, and passed the night at a hut constructed for the purpose, at an elevation of 7808 feet above the level of the sea. Next morning they reached the *Dome de Gouté* without much difficulty, but a fresh fall of snow rendered all further progress impracticable. In July of the following year, another unsuccessful attempt was made by six guides of *Chamonix*; in which *James Balma* having been separated from the rest of his companions, passed the night on a spot beyond the *Dome de Gouté* more than 12,000 feet above the level of the sea; and by reconnoitring the surrounding regions next morning, he discovered a place of more easy ascent than had yet been attempted; but on reaching *Chamonix*, he was seized with a severe indisposition, occasioned by the cold and fatigue he had experienced. During his illness he was attended by *Dr. Paccard*, a physician of *Chamonix*, to whom he communicated the discovery of this passage, and offered to conduct him to the summit. The 7th of August was the day fixed upon for their departure,

BLANC,
MONT.M. Cour-
tenay.

M. Bourrit.

Couët and
Balma.Bourrit and
Saussure.

Balma.

Dr. Paccard.

BLANC,
MONT.

when they passed the night on the mountain of *La Côte*, and at three in the morning, pursued their route to the *Dome de Gouté*; passed the *Middle Dome* on the east, and traversed the ridge seen from Geneva, on the left of the summit. The cold and fatigue they experienced was severe, and it required all the enthusiasm and animation of the guide to induce the Doctor to proceed; but after a Herculean task of fifteen hours, they overcame all obstacles, and at six in the afternoon stood upon the summit of *Mont Blanc*, before untrodden by human feet. They remained about half an hour on this elevated spot, where the cold felt extremely intense, and the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer sank to 18½ degrees. On returning to Chamouni, their lips were swelled, their faces excoriated, and their eyes greatly debilitated by the reflection of the snow.

Success having thus ultimately crowned these hazardous attempts, a new scene was opened to Philosophic enterprise. The height of the mountain, the nature of the atmosphere, and other Meteorological phenomena, were fresh incitements to the ardour of scientific inquiry. M. de Saussure of Geneva, having again arrived at Chamouni with suitable instruments for prosecuting the inquiry, engaged eighteen guides to convey the apparatus, and attended by these and his servant, he set off on the 1st of August 1787, provided with a tent, mattresses, and other requisite accommodations. They passed the first night at the top of *La Côte*, which is about a mile in perpendicular height above the village of Chamouni. The next day they found the ascent more difficult, and pitched their tent, about four in the afternoon, at an elevation of 12,762 feet above the level of the sea. For this purpose they dug a hole in the snow sufficiently large to contain the whole company, and covered the top with a tent cloth. The following morning, their ascent became still more difficult, and sometimes was so steep that the guides were obliged to cut steps for their feet with hatchets. This, with the necessity of frequently stopping for want of breath, from the rarefaction of the atmosphere, rendered their progress very slow, and they did not reach the summit till about eleven o'clock, on the 3d of August. In this elevated situation, they found respiration very difficult, and this was greatly increased by the least exertion, a stooping posture, or the use of either wine or brandy. They lost all appetite, and experienced a burning thirst, without any relish for any thing but draughts of cold water, which could only be obtained by melting the snow. In this situation they remained three or four hours, and made a variety of interesting experiments, and then descended, and arrived at Chamouni without any accident.

Mr. Beau-
foy.

A few days after M. de Saussure's expedition, Mr. Beaufoy, an English gentleman, succeeded in the same enterprise, and reached the summit on the 8th of August, but from the enlarged chasms in the ice, he experienced more difficulties in the undertaking than the other party. Since that period there have been several successful, and perhaps more unsuccessful attempts to reach the summit of the giant of European mountains; and it deserves to be remarked that during a space of thirty-three years no fatal accidents had occurred in these various attempts. Only two severe accidents are mentioned during that period, and from both of these the sufferers recovered. In an attempt,

however, made by Dr. Hamel, a Russian, employed by the Emperor Alexander in making philosophical observations in the neighbourhood, in August, 1820, accompanied by Messrs. Henderson and Dornford of Oxford, and eight guides, the snow gave way under their feet as they were approaching the object of their wishes; that on the highest part of the slope followed, and buried them all in the mass, and hurried them down the side of the mountain towards two vast chasms (called by the natives *crevasses*) in the ice on a lower part of the declivity, and in which three of the intrepid guides perished beneath the accumulated mass of snow by which they were overwhelmed.

The principal observations that have been made either on the summit or the elevated parts of this mountain must now be specified. When the highest point was attained it was found to consist of a narrow ridge, running east and west, and towards the west extremity it becomes so narrow as to resemble the roof of a house. The northern side is the steepest, the slope being from 45 to 50 degrees. It is wholly covered with snow, and no rock is to be seen within 150 yards of the top. The surface of snow is seamy, and in many places covered with an icy crust; but under this it is dry and dusty, and wholly without consistence, the whole moisture having apparently been absorbed by the atmosphere. Another circumstance which distinguishes these elevated regions is the death-like silence that prevails, all animated nature being restricted to the lower regions. The chamois is the animal that ascends the highest, for these are sometimes found among the glaciers, at a considerable elevation. M. de Saussure observed the *mos-campian* in blossom at an elevation of 11,292 feet above the level of the sea, while on the most elevated rocks he found the *lichen sulphureus*, and *lichen rupestris* of Hoffman. On the summit, he also observed two butterflies, which he supposed to have been driven thither by the wind. On the 3d of August, Reaumur's thermometer at the top of the mountain stood at 27½ degrees below the freezing point, which answers to 47 degrees of Fahrenheit, while the latter instrument was observed by M. Senelier of Geneva to stand at 82°. The height of the barometer on the summit was likewise found to be 16.181 English inches, while at the above city it was 29.02 inches; thus differing by 12.839 inches. Experiments made with the hygrometer proved that the air contained only about one-sixth of the moisture which it did at Geneva; and this great dryness of the atmosphere seems to be the cause of the extreme thirst and high degree of fever uniformly experienced by those who dare to intrude upon the solitude of these upper regions. The difficulty of respiration also springs from the same cause. The effect upon the pulse is so great, that those of three persons belonging to Saussure's party, which beat at Geneva, in a state of repose at the rates of 49, 60, and 72, were increased on the summit to 98, 112, and 100 respectively. Dr. Hamel's pulse was at one time 128 per minute, and it was supposed that those of some of his companions were equally high; but they had probably been increased by the dangers above mentioned. Their thirst, however, was so great for some time that they drank of the pure drippings from the glaciers every few moments. M. de Saussure likewise found the air on the summit to be positively electrified, but the divergence of the balls of his

Observa-
tions made
on the sum-
mit and
elevated
parts of the
mountain.

BLANC,
MONT.
BLANCHE

electrometer was only three French lines. The great rarefaction of the air also rendered sounds on the summit of *Mont Blanc* very feeble, and the report of a pistol there was only like that of a small Chinese cracker in the lower regions of the atmosphere. Water was likewise found to require nearly twice as long for boiling on the top of the mountain as it did at Geneva. It also boiled with a temperature of less than 167 degrees of Fahrenheit, though it requires 212 degrees, when the barometer stands at 29 English inches. On this subject, the reader may consult with advantage Coxe's *Travels in Switzerland*, vol. ii.; Sature's *Voyage dans les Alpes*, vol. iv.; Martyn's *Sketch of a Tour through Switzerland*, App.; Simon's *Voyage dans la Suisse*; Dr. Hamel's *Relation de deux tentatives recenies pour monter sur le Mont Blanc*, Geneva, 1820; also *New Monthly Magazine* for April and May, 1821.

BLANCHE, v. Fr. *Blanc*; It. *bianco*; Sp. *blanco*; Bla'ncere, v. A. S. *blanc*; Ger. *blitzen*, *blinken*, to shine, to glitter, to twinkle or blink; *lucere*, *cornescere*, *micare*; and by consequence, *dealbare*, to whiten; *quis (album) prae reliquis coloribus copiosissimam lucem reflectit*, Skinner.

Blanch, *bleach*, and *blink*, are probably the same word differently written and applied. (See also BLEAK.)

To *blanch*, to brighten, to whiten, (*lucescere*, *dealbare*.) and thus—to give a fair appearance, a fair face to any thing.

To *bleach* or *blink*; to give to the eye the twinkling motion or action of a star, (*cornescere*, *micare*.) And as this is done, to avoid or shrink from any sudden action upon the eye;—to *bleach* or *blink*, is, consequently, to avoid or come to avoid, to evade, escape or shun, to shrink, or start away from, to startle. And *blanch* also is sometimes so used. *Blancher*, cited from Sidney, is used exactly as *blencher* in Beaumont and Fletcher.

Ah! now I see the sweetest dawn,
Thrice welcome to my longing sight!
Hail divine beauty! heavenly light!
I see thee through yon cloud of lawn
Appear; and, as thy star doth glide
Blanching with rays the east on every side.

Sharnburn. The Sea Riser.

Wallnuts, if they be *blanched*, are supposed to be good for the stomack.
Sir T. Egton. Cost of Health, fol. 27.
And so many days were spent, and so many ways used, while
Zelmone was like one that stood in a tree waiting a good occasion
to shoot; and Gynecia a *blancher*, which kept the dearest deer
from her.
Sidney. Arcadia, book i.

Look then upon herself, beauties in mind,
Scarce angels more refined;
Her actions *blanch'd*, her conscience still her sway,
And that not fearing day.

Cartwright. On the Queen's Return.

To those choice waters, I must felly may compare,
Wherewith nice women use to *blanch* their beauties rare.
Drayton. Poly-silvion, Song xxx.

Yet fair and lovely seems to look's dim eyes,
But hell more lovely, Pluto's self more fair
Appears, when her true form true light describes
Her lustrous face, *blanch* skin, and snaky hair.
P. Fletcher. The Purple Island, can. 12.

This Spanish inclination is

A trapper, so style sett;

As into it wile, proflity, rich,

By *blanchers* lace as (are) fett.

Warner. Athen's English, book ix.

Men of wit and confidence will always make a shift to say something for any thing: and some way or other *blanch* over the blackest and most absurd things in the world.

Tullius. Sermos xxx.

Then the sleek brightening lock, from hand to hand,
Renews its circling course: this feels the card;
That, in the comb, admires its growing length;
This, *blanch'd*, emerges from the oily ware;
And that, the snapper knit, or ruby, ditches

Dyer. The Floor, book ii.

BLANCO, CAPE, an appellation bestowed chiefly by the Spaniards and Portuguese upon various points of the coast of the southern Europe, and other parts of the world; two or three of the most noted of which are the following. A point on the west coast of Africa, discovered by the Portuguese, in 1441, and situated in latitude 30° 47' N. and longitude 16° 58' W. A point on the coast of Peru, about 190 miles south of Guayaquil; latitude 4° 18' S. and longitude 81° 6' W. A point on the coast of Terra Firma, in the 10th degree of latitude. One on the coast of California, in the 33d degree of latitude; and another conspicuous point on the north-west coast of New Albion, about latitude 43° 23' N.

BLAND, adj. Lat. *blaudus*, soothing. Of un-
BLANDEMENT, certain tenderness. Sir Thomas
BLA'NDMENT, More and Hall write blandment.
BLA'NDMENT, Soothing, mild, gentle, lulling,
BLA'NDMENT, caressing, flattering.

If he flatter or *blaudie* more than him ought for any necessitie;
(In certain he doth sinne.)

Chaucer. The Parson's Tale, v. li. p. 310.

For thou were wont to hushen and chaper her with many words, with she was *blauding* and prent, and purvaile her with sentences that were drawn out of mine entre, that is to say, of mist imagination.
Id. Arcadia, book ii. fol. 21b.

If the world frowne upon thee: vnaeth it may be that thy vertue
(which all lift vpraise should have God alone to please) stand
somewhat vnto the *blauding* of the world's & favour of y^e people
believe.
Sir Thomas More, fol. 16.

Woman's blandishments he charged into the desire of heavenly loves
and dispelling y^e blast of vaine glorie which he before desired, now
with all his mind he began to raise the glorie and profits of Christian
charitie.
Id. fol. 4.

The King answered her [Queen Anne] with faire words, and
with dissemblinge blandishments and flatteringe leynages comforted
her, and vblodyng her to be of good comforte, for to his knowledge
she shoulde have none other cause.
Hall, Richard III. fol. 49.

The rose yields her sweete blandishment,

Lost in the fold of lovers' wreathes,

The violet exalts the sent

When early in the spring she breaths

Hastington. Cantata, part ii.

———— The force of that fallacious frail,

Tint with the exhilarating vapour bland

About their spirits had plaid, and instant powers

Made erre, was now calld d.

Milford. Paradise Lost, book ix.

Ah! could'st thou here thy humble mind content,
Lowly with me to live in country cell,
And learn suspect the courts' proud blandishments,
Here might we safe, here might we sweetly dwell.
P. Fletcher. To Mr. J. Tomlin.

Array'd in arms, and bland in voice and look,
Beside Hippomedes he stand she took;
Yet, while her artful tale the warrior heard,
He fear'd her looks, and wonder'd why he fear'd.
Lewis. Theid of Statius, book ix.

In former days a country life,

For so time-honour'd poets sing,

Free from anxiety and strife,

Was *blaud'd* by perpetual spring.

Copier. The Retreat of Aristippus, Ep. 1.

BLANCHE
BLAND.

BLAND.
—
BLANK.

So tranquil Nature's works appear,
It seems the sabbath all the year;
As if, the Summer's labour past, she chose
The season's sober calm for blanching repose.
Pope, An Autumnal Ode.

O could I steal
From Harmony her softest-warbled strain
Of melting air! or Zephyr's vernal voice!
Oh Philomela's song, when love dissolves
To liquid blandishment his evening lay.
Mallet. Amator and Theodora, can. 3.

BLANDFORD FORUM. **BLANDFORD CHIPPING,** or **MARKET BLANDFORD**, a market town in the north-east part of the county of Dorset, on the banks of the river Stour. It twice returned members to Parliament in the reign of Edward III., and was incorporated as a Borough by James I. An extensive manufactory of shirt buttons which employs many female hands at present exists; and till the beginning of last century, lace of the finest order was produced in this town. It rivalled that of Flanders, and some of it is said to have been valued at £30. per yard. Blandford has been a frequent sufferer by fire. In 1579, in 1677, and 1713 it was severely damaged; but on the 4th of June 1731, it was almost entirely destroyed. The Church, Town-hall, Alms-houses, Free-school, and all the houses excepting forty were burned to the ground. More than 400 families were deprived of dwelling places, and to increase their distress, the small pox was raging among them at the time. About fourteen persons were killed in the confusion, and the damage, exclusive of insured property, exceeded £90,000. By liberal subscriptions, the present town soon arose from its ashes. It is now one of the handsomest in the west of England, and contained in 1821 a population of 9643 inhabitants. The church is a vicarage in the gift of the Dean and Chapter of Winchester. Distant 23 miles west of Salisbury, 103 west of London.

BLANK, v. } Skinner denotes the Eng. blank;
BLANK, n. } Fr. Blanc; It. bianco; Sp. blanco;
BLANK, adj. } through the Ger. blanken, from the
BLANKNESS. } A. S. blancan. It is no doubt the same word as blanch. (q. v.) To blank, is to whiten, to make pale, to appal, or cause to look pale, to strike with the paleness; to have the paleness; (sc.) of disappointment, of astonishment, of dismay; and thus, to disappoint, astonish, or dismay. And more nearly to the usage of blanch; to avoid, evade, escape, shun, or shrink, or start from, to startle. A blank, (sc.) paper, is a white paper, with nothing distinguishable upon it, that destroys its entire whiteness: also a white mark or spot at which to aim: and thus the aim, mark, or point aimed at—is so called.

These fellows being right glad that the Seducer was put to a foyle and blanked, and that Jesus had answered to their minds, they lyke learned men propound and putte forth the vato him by one of the scribles, set up for the games to play this parte, a notable question out of the motte inward mysteries of the law.

Edwall. Mark, ch. xii.

Did not I score right now as the with mine eyes in the garden with Jesus? Peter being with him saying utterly blanch and sore astonished, wished himselfe accused yf ever he knew Jesus.

Id. John, ch. xviii.

These reasons did Spylls elledge against Pompey, and told him plainly, that if he were bent to stand in it, he would resist him. All this blanked not Pompey, who told him frankly again, how men did honour the rising, not the setting of the sun.

North. Plutarch, fol. 531.

As many affirm, a dead man's hand was made to subscribe one blank, that they might write above what it pleased them best.

Amar.

History of Reformation, fol. 34.

Men do not stand

In an ill case, that God hath with his hand

Sig'd kings blank-charters, to kill whom they hate.

[It] betokeneth guilt of conscience, and a blankness which a pale colour will bewray.

Holland. Ammannus, fol. 439. Annotation.

It was the curiosity, delleney, or nervous of his [Waller's] spirit, which did rather constrain him to blank his mental tables, than to leave there any records, that were not choice and singular.

Boyle. Letter to Mr. Boyle, v. 333.

Now, (shame to Fortune!) on 81 run at play

Blank'd his bold visage, and a thin third day:

Swearing and superlative the hero said;

Blasphem'd his gods, the dice, and damn'd his fate.

Pope. The Dunciad, book i.

When he would declare what he is unto us, he only saith, I AM, leaving us to make the application of him to ourselves, according to our several wants, capacities, or desires; he sets us as it were his hand in a blank, that we may write under whatsoever good thing we would have of him.

Beccordig. Sermon cxxiii.

Heard, nightly plung'd amid the silent wars,

The frequent caw; while, on each other fix'd,

In sad passage, the blank assistants sec'd;

Silent, to ask, whom Fate would next demand.

Tamson. Summer.

That is, like many other thick wits,

He bought a score of lottery tickets,

And saw them rise in dreadful ranks

Converted to a score of blanks.

Cavertown. The Lottery.

There, touch'd by Reynolds, a dull idiot becomes

A lucid mirror, in which Nature sees

All her reflected features. Cowper. The Task, book i.

Fond royalty! how alter'd in thy looks!

How blank thy features, and how wan thy hue!

Blair. The Grave.

The Earl of Surrey is said to have translated one of Virgil's books without rhyme; and beside our tragedies, a few short poems had appeared in blank verse, particularly one tending to reconcile the nation to Raleigh's wild attempt upon Guiana, and probably written by Raleigh himself.

Johnson. Life of Milton.

BLANK, a coin value eightpence, struck by Henry V. in France, but forbidden to be current in England.

§ Stat. Hen. VI.

BLANKENBURG, a Principality of Germany, in the Lower Hartz, joining Halberstadt and Anhalt on the north, Stolberg and Hohenstein on the south, and Gruberhagen, Wenigerode, and the Upper Hartz on the west. The whole extent of Blankenburg is not more than 150 square miles, and the population about 12,000, who occupy two towns, three boroughs, and fifteen or sixteen villages, beside detached houses. The northern part is fertile and produces considerable quantities of corn, but the southern is principally occupied by the Hartz mountains. These are covered with forests, except a few pastures, and contain several valuable iron mines. Blankenburg was originally one of the German Counties, and first came into the possession of the house of Brunswick in 1590. It was raised to the rank of a Principality in 1707; and annexed to Wolfenbittel in 1731; but still continued to be governed by its own laws, administered by its native Consistory. The principal sources of its revenue are its mines, forests, and marble quarries, with some duties on brandy, beer, and tobacco. The occupation

BLANK.
—
BLANK.
ENBURG.

BLANK of the inhabitants varies with their locality, in the north they are principally engaged in agriculture, while in the south mining occupies their chief attention.

**BLANK-
TYRE.**

BLANKENBURG, the metropolis of the preceding Principality, is situated near the base of a rocky mountain, on which stands one of the most spacious of the ancient castles in that part of Germany, which was formerly the residence of the Prince. The town contains about 2700 inhabitants, and its principal buildings are two Churches, a Town-house, a Grammar-school, and a Hospital. It has a considerable trade in iron, marble, and earthenware; and is the seat of the provincial colleges and the ecclesiastical superintendency. It stands about 9 miles south of Halberstadt, and was for sometime the residence of the King of France, (Louis XVIII.) during his exile.

BLANKET, *v.* *Fr. blanket; It. bianchetta, pau-*
BLANKET, n. *It. albidus, Skioner.* A white
BLANKETING. *It. albidus.* It is applied (met.) by
Shakespeare, from the verb, to blank, as we might now
use *blankness*.

To blanket; to cover with, to toss in, a blanket.

Nope blanket in his bed, no white bred by fore him.
Peter Pluckman, p. 106.

Would he not wear that y't were a sort of froes following an
albot of minor in a christened gown y't were prickled in blankettes,
and then should stand up and preach upon a stool and make a
snowy sermon. *Sir Thomas More, fol. 358.*

My face be grime with filth,
Blanket my loins, etc. all his hairs, in knots,
And with powdered nakedness out-lace
The winds, and persecutions of the sky.
Shakespeare. Lear, fol. 293.

Come thick night,
And pull thee in the damnest smoke of hell,
That my ken's knife see not the wound it makes,
Nor heaven's peeps through the blanket of the dark,
To cry, hold, hold. *Id. Macbeth, fol. 134.*

But (maide) see
Ye bathe his feet: and then with tapestry,
Best sheets, and blankets, make his bed, and lay
Soft wincles by him. *Chapman. Homer's Odyssey, fol. 298.*

BLAS. *Clarendon!* worst of all: for him to know this,
Is a second blanketing to me.
Mansinger. The Parliament of Love, act iv. sc. 5.

Inasmuch that I fancy, had Tully himself pronounced one of
his orations with a blanket about his shoulders, more people would
have laughed at him than have admired his eloquence.
Spectator, No. 41.

Himself among the story'd clouds he spins,
As from the blanket, high in air he flies, in hoists,
And oh! (he cry'd) what street, what lane, but knows
Our purgings, pumpings, blanketing, and blows!
Pope. The Dunciad, book II.

Haste! far, O far, your infant throng remove!
Quick from your stables drag your steeds and unles!
With well-wet blankets guard your cyprus rods.
Greiner. The Sugar Cane, book III.

Let us leave this place, and endeavour to get a night's lodging
in some house or other; where God grant there may be neither
blankets nor blanketers, nor phantoms, nor enchanted Moors.
Smollet. Don Quixote, part I. book iii. chap. 4.

Those mayest depend upon it, that affair of the blanketing hap-
pened to thee, for the fault thou wast guilty of, in omitting to put
me in mind of it, in time. *Id. Ib. book iii. chap. 5.*

BLANQUILLE, a small coin current in Morocco
and the coast of Barbary, value about three halfpence.
BLANTYRE, a village and parish of Scotland, in
the county of Lanark. A cotton manufactory on a

large scale was erected here in 1787. There is a
mineral well in the vicinity, which was formerly much
resorted to for diseases of the eyes, and other com-
plaints. Population 2092. Distance two miles from
Hamilton.

BLAPS, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects of the order
Coleoptera, section *Heteromera*. Latreille placed it in
the family *Tenebrionidae*, in his *Gen. Crust. et Insect.*
from which he afterwards removed it into the *Pseu-*
diviidae. Generic character: antennae filiform, some-
what moniliform towards the apex, the last articula-
tions globular; labium exerted, transverse; max-
illary palpi with the last joint broad and compressed;
body elongate ovate, rather narrower before; thorax
subquadrate; elytra united, frequently terminated by
a point, inflexed beneath.

Tenebrio Mortungus of Linnaeus is the type of this
genus; it is a British isset, and is the species which
formed the subject of Boker's experiments recorded in
the *Philosophical Transactions*, No. 457, by which
it appears capable of resisting, to an astonishing
degree, the effects of submersion in alcohol, having
repeatedly revived after being kept in it for many
hours. The individual which he had often submitted
to this experiment, lived with him three years without
any food, and at last made his escape. It frequents
vaults, charnel houses, &c. from which circumstance
it may have derived its name.

BLARE, Dutch, *blaren*; Ger. *blarren, magire*. Mr.
Grose says *blaren* in the North is to roar and cry.
Lingua nam et irritum crementum, is rendered by
Holland, scornfully loling and blaring out his tongue.

Being thus armed and set out, they bring him forth against this
valinglorious Gault, set all upon joy full exultation, and (as the
ancient writers have thought it worth the noting and remembrance)
scornfully idling and blaring out his tongue.

Holland. Lingo, fol. 255.

BLARE, a Bernese coin value one penny.

BLARNEY, a village of Ireland, in the county of
Cork. Here is a castle built on a bold romantic sit-
uation. Houses 90. Distant 25 miles W. of Cork, and
128 from Dublin.

BLAS, SAN, a seaport of Mexico, in the province
of Guadalupe, and on the shore of the Pacific Ocean,
at the mouth of the river Santiago. The climate is
very hot and unhealthy, and it is therefore only inhabited
by those who are immediately engaged in the
trade of the port, or employed in official situations,
while the merchants and others of easy circumstances
live principally at Tepec, where the climate is milder
and more salubrious. The latitude is about 21° 32' N.
and the longitude 105° 2' W.

BLANKETS, or **BLANGUES**, a cluster of small islands
in the Atlantic Ocean, off the west coast of Ireland,
and near the entrance of Dingle Bay. The largest of
these is not more than three miles long, and less than
one broad; while several of the others are merely
barren rocks.

BLASPHEMIE, *Fr. blasphemer; Sp. blasphemar;*
BLASPHEMER, *Gr. βλασφημεν, τὰς τοὺς θεῶν;*
BLASPHEMERIES, *τὰς τοὺς θεῶν; βλάται, i. e. peto, and*
BLASPHEMY, *ὄψιν, ἴνα.*
BLASPHEMOUS, *To attack or assail the fame, cha-*
BLASPHEMOUSLY, *acter, or reputation. See BLAME.*
BLASPHEMY, *To attack, assail, insult, the*
name, the attributes, the ordinances, the revelations
the will or government of God.

**BLANK-
TYRE.**
**BLAS-
PHEME.**

BLAS-
PHÈME.

Thence the prince of priests to route his clothes and aside, he
bath blasphemed, what yet has we made to witness? Is now ye
have heard blasphemy.

Wiclif. *Methow*, ch. xxvi.

Then the hye priest rent his clothes saying: he hath blasphemed:
what oode have we of anye moo wytnesse, beheld now ye haue
heard his blasphemy.

Bible, 1551.

Men schuler be lounger himself, courteous, high of berryage,
proude, blasphemous: not obedient to fadir and modir, unkynde,
cruel without affections.

Wiclif. *Tyte*, ch. iii.

Against whom (the confusions and assercions, maturely and de-
liberately considered) the judges, and doctores, and all other the
parties aforesaid alindred the same *Jonas*, a superstitious seuerous,
and a diabolical blasphemous of God, and of his sancties.

Hall. *King Henry VI*, fol. 115.

Now cometh harradile with his aspermentes, an vnlike and
raues, of which cometh deuil, false cates, chidings, and all
caving, blaspheming, and reuenge of God.

Chaucer. *The Pervous Tale*, v. li. p. 355.

Not long after Mr. Tyndal happened to be the company of a
certain diuine recounted for a learned man, and in communing and
disputing with him, he drew hym to that issue that the sayd
great doctour thrust out into these blasphemous words, and sayd, we
were better to be without God's love, than the Pope's.

The Life of Tyndal, book i. E.

The Romish Nahudomonar had by wrestyngs and perverting
the holy scriptures of God, to the establishing and maintenance
of his usurped supreme cyence so high: that he was not more
content to sitte in the chair of Mose, but had most blasphemously
exalted himselfe above all that is called God, that is to say, had
made Goddes worde frustrate, that his moote, corrupte and moote
pestilence doctrine myght take place.

Edm. Prof. *To the King's Majesty*.

Also in April was a nunn called the holy mayde of Keote,
twene musken, and twene frenes, hanged and beheaded, for treason,
blasphemy, and hypocricie.

Folger. *King Henry VIII*, Ann. 1534.

While 'painted blasphemers' general sight
Our painful author striveth,
And happy spirits which live in heavenly light
On earth reviveth.

Benson. *On Drayton's Muse*.

And more over (whiche is moche to be mercysed at) he (Ro-
minus) also prophetyed, that any thinge should be red or spoken,
republishable or blasphemous to God.

Sir Thomas Elgoh. *Governour*, p. 160.

Where though it followeth, the accusor neuer shewed signe of
abuse (the way to repentance) but terribly curseth, & blasphemously
sweareth he neuer comitted any such act; though the same be
repeated before the honorable, y^e Queene's Maiesties high
commissioners.

Stow. Ann. 1557. *Queene Mary*.

With that, all mad and furious he grew,
Like a fell mastiffe through enraged heat,
And curst, and hand, and blasphemous forth threw
Against the gods.

Spenser. *Fairie Queene*, book v. can. 11.

How long, O Lord, holy and true, dost thou not judge and
avowg thyself on all those who thus continually blaspheme thy
great and all-glorious name, and use it to palliate their most
atrocious crimes and barbarous enormities?

Burridge. *Sermon vi*.

The carnal conceits, that God will graciously receive sinners
where the world has left them; that when by calamitous constraint
they are at last brought to confesse their wickedness, and are only
remitted for the evil consequences of it, the conceits that they shall
find mercy, is as blasphemous a satire as the denial of a God.

Bates. *Danger of Prosperity*.

I have not yet intimated in the greatest part of their superstition,
not to say downright idolatry, in this kind: I mean in their extra-
vagant worship of the blessed virgin and mother of our Lord;
whom they blasphemously call the Queen of Heaven.

Tillotson. *Sermon xi*

He healed the man that was sick of the palsy, and forgave his
sins; a plain proof of his divinity, because none but God has the
power and prerogative of forgiving sins; and therefore the Jews
accused him of blasphemy for pretending to this power.

Forten. *Lecture ix*.

Sceptics may wrangle, and mockers may blaspheme; but the
pious man knows by evidence too sublime for their comprehension,
that his affections are not misdirected, and that his hopes shall not
be disappointed.

Brentie. *On Truth*, part i. ch. 2.

Much pains have been taken to poison the minds of all ranks of
people, but especially the middling and the lower classes, by the
most impious and blasphemous publications that ever disgraced any
Christian country.

Forten. *Lecture i*.

BLAST, v. } A. S. *blastan*; Ger. *blasen*, to blow.
BLAST, n. } Formed upon the past part of *blasen*,
BLASTER, } to blaze, q. v.
BLASTING, } To strike as with a sudden gust
BLASTMENT, } or wind; as with an inauspicious and
destructive wind.

To wither up, to desolate, to destroy, to annihilate.
It is used by Hall and Surrey for to blow or sound a
blast, to sound aloud, to proclaim.

But rode that bowth downe for every blast—
Full lightly came wind, it wot arise

But so old not an oke, when it is cast.

Chaucer. *Treiser*, book ii. fol. 165.

When thei were in the sea amid,
Out of the north thei saw a cloude,
The storm arose, the wyndes loud:
Thei blowen many a dreifull shote.

Gower. *Conf. am.* book viii.

A mighty we and of a noble height
Whose beaute blasted was with boyston wine
His leane late, the sappe was from the rhynde.

Skelton. *The Crouse of Laverell*.

Philip duke of Burgoyne, althysse still in his high & warlike
enterprise, united together at Flinsgrug, Frysland, Hollanders,
and swissmen a greave army, to the number of xliiii. so well armed,
so well trained, so well furnished with ordnance, & well provided
in all thynges, that they thought in their hartes, and blasted
consequent themselves, that the Calicians would leave the town
desolate, & fire for their sauegarde, hearyng nely the approaching
of the Goustoys.

Hall. *King Henry VI*.

All thy trees and fruit of thy londe shall be mowed with blas-
tynge.

Bible, 1651. *Deut.* ch. xxxviii.

Not blasted mayt name he by the mouth of those
Whom death hath shut in silence, so that they may not disclose.

Surrey. *Poem 86*.

After myght the trumpettes sounded in king Henrys boat;
then every man made hym redy; at the seconde sight they drew
out of their lodgynges, and ordered the battayle.

Chaucer. *Chaucer*, v. i. C. 237.

And now were all the hopes of my future life upon blasting.
The indicators were preparing: the time was set: my notes were
advised for the journey. What was the issue? O God, thy Pro-
vidence made and found it.

Hall. *Specialties of his Life*, p. 3.

Merc. I am no blaster of ladies beauty,
Nor hold intruder on her special favours,
I know how tender reputation is,
And with what guards it ought to be preserved, lady.

Brenstun and Fletcher. *Rais a Wife*, act i. sc. 1.

In the morne and liquid dew of youth,
Contagious blasters are most imminent.

Shakespeare. *Hamlet*, fol. 166.

But it may be noted, that the Moscoos do not forthwith dis-
cover the blast: an old experienced countryman having once given
an notion of a *blasy* moon, and within a day or two shewing the
proof upon the cherry-blossoms then budding, but not much
altering their colour till two days more were past.

Bayle. *Works*, *Prose*, *hr.* book iii. p. 154.

He [the debaucher] blasts all the fruit he tastes, and where the
brute has been devouring there is nothing left worthy the relish of
the man.

Spectator. No. cxcii.

BLAS-
PHÈME.
—
BLAST.

BLAST.

And see where early winter pines off,
Far to the north, and calls his ruffian blasts :
His blasts obey, and quit the howling hill,
The shatter'd forest, and the rag'd vale.

Thomson. Spring.

And though no gathering clouds the day control,
Through skies serene portentous thunders roll :
Fierce Mastin bolts from northern regions come,
And aim their vengeance at imperial Rome.

Bove. Lucan's Pharsalia, book i.

The secrets of th' abyss to spy,
He passed the flaming bounds of place and time :
The living throne, the sapphire-blaze,
Where angels scramble, while they gaze,
He saw : but, blasted with excess of light,
Clod'd his eyes in endless night.

Gray. The Progress of Porg.

Such is the disposition of mankind, if they cannot blast the action, they will censure the vanity.

McLach. Pity, Letter viii. book i.

Thou oft, reclin'd at ease, I lose an hour
At e'en'ing, till at length the freezing blast,
That sweeps the hoisted shelter, summons home
The recollected pow'r. *Cowper. The Task, book iv.*

These armoured blasters maintained their deleterious music,
while the queen (Elizabeth) rode through the till yard, to the grand entrance of the castle, which was washed by the lake.

Langens in Golpin. Tour through the Lakes, l. 51.

BLAST, in Iron Works and Foundries, is used to denote a powerful stream of air introduced into the furnace for accelerating combustion, and which is hence called a *Blast Furnace*, to distinguish it from those furnaces where the ignition is produced by a more gentle stream, or by the mere action of the atmosphere entering on a large surface.

As the subject of IRON MANUFACTURE is treated at large under its proper head in this work, it will be sufficient in this place to state generally, that the great object to be effected by the Blast is the reduction of a given quantity of solid fuel in the least possible time, and with it, the accompanying quantity of ore. That furnace and that Blast by which this can be effected always yields the greatest portion of iron, all other things being the same; but the means of producing this maximum of products, notwithstanding the various improvements which the last half century has introduced into our iron works, is perhaps still to be reckoned amongst the desiderata of English engineers.

Generally, before the introduction of the Blast, the furnace is filled with alternate strata of coke, ironstone or ore, and limestone, heated by a simple atmospheric pressure to a bright red or white heat, and the ironstone to a melting heat : after which the application of the Blast rapidly increases the temperature, exhibits the fuel under an intense white heat, and the ironstone rapidly dissolving before it, and showing itself of a blackish colour. With regard to the proper density of the air which constitutes the Blast, much difference of opinion exists amongst those, who, from their situations, ought to be best able to judge; some advocating a soft Blast, and others contending for one of less volume and greater density, the extremes varying from 14lb. to 40lb. upon a circular inch. The proper point of maximum effect, however, is as we have stated above, by no means of easy determination; because it is necessary in considering it to pay attention to the nature of the fuel, and this will affect our results in a much more sensible degree than is

BLAST.

generally supposed. In our treatise just referred to, we have endeavoured to examine this subject under all its bearings, and to furnish our readers with the best information that can be obtained on this highly important inquiry, and we shall therefore in this place content ourselves with the simple definition of the term as above given.

BLASTING, is a term used to denote the operation employed in quarries for separating pieces of the rock or stone from the general mass; it is also sometimes had recourse to for breaking up heavy logs of wood for the purposes of fuel, &c.

In the quarry the process is as follows : A hale is first made in the stone, by a tool proper for the purpose, to the depth of ten, twelve or more inches, according to circumstances; and about 1½ or 2 inches in diameter. A proper charge of gunpowder is then lodged in it at the bottom; the upper part is filled up with small fragments of the stone firmly rammed together; a hole or passage being left through these materials, by the insertion of an iron rod, which is turned round during the operation of ramming. This iron being now withdrawn, the space that it occupied is also charged with powder, and a slow match being applied to it, (in order to give the workmen an opportunity to retire) the explosion after a time takes place, and a piece of stone of greater or less dimensions is obtained. A more modern practice however is now very commonly adopted: this consists in merely introducing a straw filled with gunpowder amongst the powder or charge at the bottom of the hole, and filling the other part of the cylinder with loose sand. A match being then applied as before to the powder at the upper part of the straw, the explosion is produced with the same effect as in the former case. It is difficult to account for the great resistance which the loose sand opposes to the powder in this operation, but it is an effect well known to millerists, who sometimes avail themselves of it to burst their cannon in order to prevent their falling, in a serviceable state, into the hands of an enemy.

The process for Blasting large and knotty blocks of wood, as roots of trees, &c. is effected in nearly the same manner, at least according to the common practice; but Mr. Knight, of Foster-lane, London, has within a few years invented a very simple apparatus for that purpose, for which he received the medal of the Society of Arts; and an account of it is published in the *Transactions* of that Society for 1802, under the denomination of a *Blasting Screw*. When a piece of wood is to be split, a hole is bored in it to proper depth with an auger, and a quantity of gun-powder introduced. The screw is then forced into the cylindrical hole by means of a handle at its upper part, to which a lever may be applied when necessary. It is screwed down till it nearly touches the powder, and a match is then passed through the hollow part drilled along its axis. This match, which is about eighteen inches long, and made of fluen twist steeped in a solution of saltpetre, is then set on fire, and the log rent into sundry pieces. It should be observed that there is some danger in using this screw, if the piece of wood is in any way decayed, as in this case, the threads have not sufficient hold, and it is in such instances driven out of the hole without exploding the wood, and may cause some mischief. One case is mentioned in the *Transactions* above referred to.

BLA-
TANT.
—
BLAU-
BEUREN.

BLATANT. "I know not," says Skinner, "whether or not from the Lat. *blatus*; q. d. *balans* vel *balatus*." See BLATTEA.

But now I come into my course again,
To hisatchment of the blatest heat;
Who all this while at will did rage and rain,
Whil'st none was him to stop, nor none him to restrain.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book vi. can. 12.

Our voyage is to the Ile of Dogges, where there the blatest
beast doth rule and rage, railing the credit of whom it please.
And. Divi. Drenia. The Returne from Fennasus, act v. sc. 4.

RIND. The Panther's breath was ever fam'd for sweet;
But from the Wolf such wishes oft I meet:
You learn'd this language from the blatest beast,
Or rather did not speak, but were possess'd.
Dryden. The Hind and Panther, part ii.

Let by the blatest voice along the shies,
He comes, whose faction over cities flies;
A talking fiend, whose snaky looks distract,
And numerous mouths deform her dusky face.
Parnell. Queen Anne's Peace.

BLATTA, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order Orthoptera, family Blattarie of Latreille. Generic character, after Lamarck; antennae setaceous, inserted beneath the eyes; labium rounded before; labium bifid; body shining, suboval, depressed; thorax nearly flat, smooth, shield-shaped, marginate, covering the head; elytra horizontal; abdomen furnished with two short conical appendages; feet formed for running, tarsi with five joints.

The common cockroach, *B. orientalis*, which is the type of this genus, is but too well known in our kitchens. Like all its congeners, it is an active, voracious insect, running with great rapidity, and devouring indiscriminately almost all the common articles of food, particularly bread, flour, sugar, &c. They conceal themselves during the day, behind the walls and hangings of the rooms, and at night pour forth in hordes, sometimes literally blackening the floor with their numbers. It is said that they are killed by an infusion of the roots of *Nymphaea alba*, the white water lily. *B. americana*, is often brought to this country alive in cargoes from America. It is a most destructive insect. The larvæ differ but little in appearance from the perfect insect, except in wanting the wings and elytra.

BLATTER, Lat. *blatero*, from *blatio*, which BLATTERON, Vossius says may derive from the Gr. *βλάτω*, for *βλάτω*, cast, thrown forth; ἀπὸ τοῦ βλάλλω.

Th' throw out, (sc.) idle words, to speak foolishly, to babble, to blab.

For before it (the tongue) the habit set a palli'd of sharp scath, to the and that if peradventure it will not obey reason, which within holdeth it hard as if with a strait bridle, but it will blatter out and not tarry within, we might like it until it bleed again, and so restrain the intemperance thereof.

Holland. Platerch, fol. 158.

She [a ship] roasts at peace, through his outly pains and excellent indurance, how ever eury list to blatter against him.

Spenser. On Ireland.

I will endeavour to lose the memory of him, and that my thoughts may never run more upon the fashion of his face, which you know he hath no cause to brag of: I hate such detestations.

Hawell's Letters, book ii. let. 75.

BLAUBEUREN, a small town in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, at the confluence of the river Ach with the Blaas. Both linen and woollen cloths are made there, but it is most noted for an engagement which

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took place in its neighbourhood between the Austrians and the French in 1800, in which the latter were victorious. It is about 7 miles west of Ulm.

BLAZE, or BLAYES, a seaport of France, in the department of Gironde, about 90 miles north of Bordeaux. It stands near the conflux of the Gironde with the Durdogne. The town consists of two parts, the upper or citadel, and the lower, which is the seat of trade. The harbour is capacious, and is frequented by numerous vessels, foreign as well as domestic, which export great quantities of wine, brandy, and grain. The population was lately about 3500. Lat. 45° 5' N. long. 0° 34' W.

BLAZE, v. A. S. *blæsan*, to blow. Past participle, blazed, blas'd, blast. Ger. *blasen*; Blä'sinu, Dutch, *blæsen*; *suoritare ignem flatu*. Blä'zer, Kilian. To raise a flame by blowing. Blä'sure. More probably to emit a flame, like a blast.

To rush, issue, send forth or emit, like a blast; i. e. suddenly, widely, rapidly.

To spread or disperse, to divulge, to publish, to proclaim; also to display or set forth conspicuously, ostentatiously. And also restricted to the heraldic blazour of arms.

This lady brought in her right hand
Of burning fire a blasing brand
Whereof the flame and heat fire
Hath many a wily in desire
Of love brought.

Chaucer. The Romance of the Rose, fol. 133.

Thou laye there certaine woodde cliffs
Of which the pines now and ofte
She made hem in the pines wete,
And put hem in the fyre lete,
And take the brande, with all the blaze,
And tries the began to rase

About Esau. *Geogr. Conf. Am.* book v. fol. 106.
And there withall the blasing of her eye,
Was like the beames of Titan, truth to tell,
Which glads vs all that in this world do dwell.

Georgic. Dan Bartholomew.

While I was glorious in worldly wealthiness, and had soche goodes in wealth, as maken manne rich, this was I drawe into compaignies that looe, priore, and name yene: the loudest blazers, the curriose glousters, the welcommen flatterers the worshippid child, that now drices not to looke.

Chaucer. The Testament of Love, book i. fol. 294.

And as it seemeth that the reuerberation of a light doth more offence unto the feeble eyes; even so these reproches which are returned and sent back again by the truth, upon a man that blazed them before are more offensive. *Holland. Platerch*, fol. 157.

For when they hear so much evil blazed abroad in the world, and few or none escape without having some foul blot rubb'd upon him, and infamous crime reported of him, whether truly or falsely, they think that sin and wickedness is so much strange thing, and so embolden themselves to commit that which they hear is so common.

Hopkins. Exposition upon Ninth Commandment, fol. 209.

A traine of powder was made, and set on fire, which gave to the blessed martyr of God, a blaze, and scorched his left hand and that side of his face, but neither kindled the wood nor yet the coales.

Knox. History of the Reformation, fol. 6.

Vipers of secrets be from thence debar'd,

Babblers of folly, and blazers of crime.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book ii. can. 9.

I can not tell you what was this knyghts name, nor of what countrey, but the blazour of his arms was grules, two fesses sable, a border sable.

Freisant. Croydey, v. l. c. 281.

Large shells of wale their covering helmet yield,

And o'er the region, with reflected eyes,

Tall groves of needles for their lance blaze,

Dreadful in arms the marching mine appear.

Parnell. Battle of the Frogs and Mice, book ii.

4 L

BLAU-
BEUREN.
—
BLAZE

BLAZE — **BLEACH** star. Others are of opinion that it foretells lust and bloodshed, and believe it of the same prognostication as the tail of a blessing *Spectator*, No. 127.

But when their chains were cast aside,
See the glad scene unfolding wide,
Clasp the glad wing, and tower away,
And mingle with the blaze of day.

Paradise. A Night Piece on Death.

Near, and more near, the swimming radiance roll'd;
Along the mountain stream the lingering fires,
Sublime the groves of life blaze with gold,
And all the heavens resounds with louder lyres.
Brutius. The Judgment of Paris.

If of Dryden's fire the blaze is brighter, of Pope's the heat is more regular and constant. *Johnson. Life of Pope.*

BLAZON, n. (From blaze.) Fr. *blasonner*. To **BLAZON**, v. } blaze arms. Coignave. As to blize,
BLAZON, v. } so to blazon is.
To spread or disperse, to divulge, to publish, to proclaim. Also to display or set forth conspicuously, ostentatiously.

I wot not what I say yet, although I know what I would say:
for I would sear *blazen* lose with any tongue, without I were
sure hurt is mine redressing. *Golden Book*, part iv. 2.

But cow friend Cornelius, with I have *blazened* his name,
harkens his virtue and worthiness. *Id.* y. 8. 1.

Well, if it were felle to *blaze* things which are responsible to
be recovered, with Had I wist doth *blaze* as a *blaze* of
good understanding.

Gauguin. Advertisement to the Reader.

Indeed a silence does that tomb bett,
Where is so herald left to *blaze* it.

Dante. Rites upon the Author.

The hour lay long revealing what might be,
The best event of such an embassy:
Then *blaze* in dread smile her hideous form;
So lightning glides the unrelenting storm.

Garth. The Dispensary, can. 2.

His whole mind was *blaze* over with a variety of glittering
images; corsets, excursions, &c.

Goldsmith. Cities of the World, let. 164.

My honorable friend has not brought down a spirited imp of
chivalry to win the first achievement and *blaze* of arms on his
silk-white shield in a field lined against him.

Burke. On Shortening the Duration of Parliament.

These historians, recorders, and *blazons* of virtues and arms,
differ widely from that description of historians, who never
assign any set of politicians to a good motive.

Id. A Letter to a Noble Lord.

BLEACH, v. } A. S. *blecan*, *adcan*, *deanbare*; Ger.
BLEACH, n. } *blechen*; Dutch, *bleeken*; Sw. *bleka*.
BLEACH, adj. } To whiten, to make pale, or white.
BLEACHER.

Some one, for she is pale and *bleach*,
Some one, for she is out of speche.
Gower. Conf. Am. book v.

When shepherd's pipe on eaves straws,
And merle larks are ploughman's clocks;
When turtles tread, and rooks and doves,
And maidens *bleach* their summer smocks.
Shakespeare. Love's Labour's Lost, fol. 144.

After that, they be spread abroad and displayed open to the sun,
and left without doys to take all weathers both day and night,
and to be *bleached*, until they be drie and white.

Holland. Plinie, v. 1 fol. 470.

Three runneth likewise out of vines a certain gum, which is
padding good for the *bleaca*, scabs, and scabs in little children.

Id. v. 1 fol. 391.

Virgil, to give this thought likewise a clouting of poetry,
describes some spirits as *bleaching* in the winds.

Taite, No. 154.

Immortal liberty, whose look sublines,
Hath *bleach*'d the tyrant's cheek in every varying clime.
Smollett. Ode to Independence.

In the price of linen we must add the wages of the flax-dresser,
of the spinner, of the weaver, of the *bleacher*, &c. together with
the profits of their respective employments.

Smith. Wealth of Nations, book 1. c. 6.

On the side of the great *bleachery* are the public walls.

Pecant.

BLEAK, } The same word as *bleach*, differ-
BLEAKNESS, } ently applied. Pale or white; as the
BLEAK, } earth, the herbage, *bleached* or *bleaked*
BLEAKLY, } by cold piercing winds; and then ap-
plied to that which is exposed to cold, piercing winds;
to that which is chill, dreary, desolate.

By the fourth *scale*, the heat, the voyce, and the pale horse,
mayest thou understande the heretikes, whoe dyd dyverce wayes
and a long tyme vex the holy church with false doctrine.
And have made it, as it were pale & *bleaked* for very sorrow &
heaviness.

Edell. Revelations, ch. vi. fol. 8.

With *bleak* and with congealing winds
The earth in shining chains he binds;
And still as he doth farther pass,
Quarries his way with liquid glass.

Cotton. Translations. Winter.

Being shipped at Delpe, the sea used so hardly: and, after a
night and a great part of the day following, sent us back well
wind-beaten to that *bleak* haven whence we set forth.

Hall. Account of Himself.

Yet this dull earth
Veto a few small herbes affords a birth,
Which are the hardy *Nascomites* ferns,
Neer the sea coast they *bleakly* wated are.
Blay. Lacan, book 14.

Those limbs, in lawn and softest silk array'd,
From sun-beams guarded, and of winds afraid,
Can they bear angry Jove? can they resist
The parching dogstar, and the *bleak* north-east?

Prior. Henry and Emma.

The inhabitants of Nova Zembla go naked, without complain-
ing of the *bleakness* of the air: so the armies of the northern
nations keep the field all winter.

Addison.

Go shrubs they *bleach*, and, on the *bleaky* top
Of rugged hills, the thorny bramble crop.

Dryden. Fer. Gen. III.

For is there aught that Nature's hand has sown
To bloom and ripen in the hottest zone?
We raise it here, in storms of wind and hail,
On the *bleak* bosom of a sunless vale.

Cuthbert. Of Taste.

BLEAK, in Zoology, the vulgar name of the *Cyprinus
Alburnus*.

BLEAK, v. } Skinner and Junius coincide
BLEAK, adj. } with Minshew, that *bleak* is the
BLEAKNESS, } Dutch, *bleek*, *puistula*; and Skinner
BLEAKEDNESS, } adds that *bleak* is from the Ger.
BLEAKED, } *bleken*, *lumenere*; from the A. S.
blea-on, *feare*, *infirmitas*, *q. d. cutis infirma*.
To *bleak* the sight, (met.) is to dim, impede, or
obstruct the sight, as if disordered with pustules
or blains.

Ha *bleased* hem w' his bulles, & *bleved* have eye.

Piers Plouman, p. 4.

Phobus, (quod be) for all thy worthiness,
For all thy beauty, and all thy gentleness,
For all thy song, and all thy minstrelsy,
For all thy waiting, *bleed* is this eye,
With on of liel reputation.

Chaucer. The Manly Tale, v. 17198.

BLEAR.

BLEAT.

Enticing dames my patience still did prove,
And *bleare* mine eyes, till I became so blind
That sear not what furie brought mee fourth,
I followed most (alwayes) that least was worth.
Greengasse. The Fruit of Follies.

And leste than shouldste suppose by space
my talke myghte overgrow
In bulke the *bleareful* Crispian roole
whose tongue on pattens free
Did reftlesse run, even here I cease
not one word more of me.

Deant. Horace. The first Satyre.

The Jewe putteth away his wife for steech of breath, for *bleare*
are of the eyes, as for any such like fautes, where as among christe-
men, there is but one come only whiche dissoluth wedlocke,
and that is the breach of the faith & promise of matrimony.

Udall. Mark. ch. x.

Thy bright eyes, *bleare* and wrinkle: and so change
Thy forme at all parts, that thou shalt be strange
To all the woemen.

Chapman. Musae's Olysses, book xiii. fol. 208.

But say the eyes be enflamed and *bleared* early, without any
extraordinary moisture appearing in them, the little muscles
lying within the joints of a swine, roasted and afterwards musked
to a cataplaine, and so applied, do quite rid away the same
blearedness.

Holland. Plinie, li. fol. 325.

They, who be loath and take heed to offend and hurt them that
are *bleare-eyed* or otherwise given to the paine and inflammation of
the eye, do mingle among the gallant and lively colours, some
dusky shadows.

Id. Plutarch, fol. 252.

Thro' which, by strength of hand, Alcides drew
Chaine'd Cerberus, who lag'd and restive grew,
With his *blear'd* eyes our brighter day to view.
Tate and Shadstreet. Quil's Met. The Story of Ægeus.

Is 't not a pity now, that tirriling rheums
Should ever teaze the lungs and *blear* the sight
Of oracles like these? *Cowper. The Task, book iii.*

BLEAT, v. } A. S. *bletan*: Dutch, *bleten*; Ger.
BLEAT, n. } *bleken*; It. *belare*; Fr. *beler*; Sp. *balar*;
BLEATING. } Lat. *balare*.
Bleat is the cry of the sheep.

Awe *bleat* after lamb,
Lhoop after calve
Bullock stertle
Bocke werte

Murie sing cooce. *Ritson's Ancient Songs*

Set in my ship, mine rare reacht, where we rod
The bewailing of oxen, and the *bleate*
Of fecies sheepe.

Chapman's Olysses, book xii. fol. 187.

Then suddenly was heard along the main
To low the ox, or *bleat* the woolly train.

Pope. Olysses.

Ere yet we reach'd the coast the *bleat* of sheep
And lowings loud of oxen in the stall,
Came o'er mine ear.

Cowper. Olysses, book xli. l. 387.

And Sammel answered: what moveth the *bleating* of the
sheepe I myne eares, and the wnyne of the wret which I heare.
Joh. 1551. 1 Samuel, ch. xv.

The bumble shepherd to his rays,
Flav'ring his rustic homage fold,
And to some cool retired shade
Driven his *bleating* flocks to graze;
Sits down delighted with the sight
Of that great lamp, so mild, so fair, so bright.

Sherburne. The Sun Rise.

How he could fade in his heart to be served at his table with
the dead bodies, and as men may say, very idols, to make his
food and nourishment of those parts and members which a little
before did *bleat*, low, bellow, wate, and see.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 470.

The Troians (like a sort of ewes pond in a rich man's fold,
Close at his dore, till all he milke; never basing hold,
Hearing the *bleating* of their lambs) did all their wide host fill
With shouts and clamours.

Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book iv. fol. 60.

The wolf, who from the eighty fold,
Fierce drags the *bleating* prey, ne'er druck her milk,
Nor wore her warning fleece. *Thomson. Spring.*

In time his [Shenstone's] expenses brought clamours about him,
that overpowered the lamb's *bleat* and the lamb's song; and the
groves were haunted by beings very different from him and
lambins.

Johanna. Life of Shenstone.

In cold stiff rolls the *bleaters* oft complain
Of gasty sills, by shepherds term'd the halt:
Those let the neighbouring fold or ready crook
Detail; and pour into their cleave feet
Corrosive drugs.

Dyer. The Fleece, book I.

BLEB. Skinner says, from the Ger. *bleen*, tumes-
cere, turgescere, to swell. See *BLAN*.

"A blister; also a bubble in the water. North's
Grose.

And were not the angels a great deal better employed in the
beholding the worth of their Creator, than to diminish their own
happiness, by attending those, whom nothing can make happy
looking on this troubled passing stream of the perishing genera-
tions of men, to as little purpose almost, as idle boys do on dancing
bells and bubbles in the water.

Merr. On the Sea, Q. 6.

BLECHINGLEY, a small Borough in the county
of Surrey, at the foot of the great chalk range. It has
returned two members to Parliament since 43 Edward
1. Population 1821, 1187. Distant twenty miles
south of London, two from Godstone.

BLECHNUM, in Botany, a genus of Ferns.

BLEE, A. S. *bleoh*, from *blewan*, efflorescere, to blow,
to bloom. In Ritson's *Ancient Songs*, p. 27, "Hire
blee blyketh so bright."

Applied generally to the complexion, hue, colour.

Mine herte appressed is so wonderfully,
Quey for him which so is bright of blee,
Alas I trowe I shal him never see.

Chaucer. Lamentation of Mary Magdelen, fol. 320.

Dure bej rois of red ble,
And like lik ful for to se.

Uncertain Author. Hicet, l. 230.

Before him came a dwarfis full lowe,
That waitted on his knee,
And at his backe five hande he hore,
All wan and pale of blee.

Sir Cosmo, in Ferry, poem li. p. 54.

Forth then byed our king, I wisse,
And an enery man was he;
And soon he found queene Elmore,
That bride so bright of blee.

Id. 18

BLEED, } A. S. *bled-an*. Skinner prefers the
BLEEDING. } Dutch, *blazen*, *rubescere*; a colour
sहित. To grow red; to bloom, or bloom.

Of al þat me him blimeide, hit ne blode ne, we seide.

(Belimide, cut off the limbs.) *St. Elmore, p. 568.*

Ich circumgyfede myne some, and al so for has take
My self and my myne, and alle þat myle [male] were
Bidden blod for þat lorde lowe.

Piers Plowman, p. 318.

Sire, he wold say, an emperour note nedis
Be vertuous, and hater tyrannic.
For which he made him is a hollie to blede
On loche kin armen till he moute die.

Chaucer. The Monk's Tale, v. 14425.

In this means tyme in Englede, y^e Jewys in dyscreit pharis of
the realme, as Lyncoln, Stauneford, & Lynne, were robbed &
spoyled; and at Yorke to the comber of cccc. & mo, cutte they
mayster rynges & led to deth.

Folger. King Richard I. Anno, 1181.

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And said wimple alas, there nio no more
But thou shalt fele as wel the shate of me
As thou hast felt the bleeding of Tybe
And with that word, he smote him to the hart.
The blade out of the wound as broke start
As water, when the conduit cruide is.
Chaucer. *Troike of Bekham*, fol. 201.

Wherupon he [Cato] called for all his men, one after another,
and very angrily asked them his sword, and gave one of them
such a blow on his face, that his nose fell a bleeding, and his hand
was all bloody withall.
North. *Pitchech*, fol. 668.

The lumb thy riot dooms to bleed to day,
Had he thy reason, would he ship and play?
Pleas'd to the last, he crops the flowery leed,
And licks the hand just run'd to shed his blood.
Pope. *Kany to Man. Epist.* 1.

Patriots have toil'd, and in their country's cause
Bled nobly; and their deeds, as they deserve,
Receive proud recompense. We give in charge
Their names to the sweet lyre.
Cooper. *The Task*, book v.

BLEKINGEN, a province of Sweden, situated in South Gothland, having the title of county. It was united to the crown of Sweden by the treaty of Roskilde in 1658, and is bounded by Smaland on the north, Schonen on the west, and the Baltic on the other sides. The length is about 100, and the breadth 25 miles, including a surface of less than 1000 square miles, with about 67,000 inhabitants. A great part of this province is a mountainous and woody district, but nevertheless one of the most pleasant in the kingdom. Only a small proportion of the area is cultivated; and the inhabitants chiefly subsist by hunting, fishing, trade, and breeding of cattle. Carlscrona is the capital.

BLEMISH, v. } To blemish, is to affix some
BLEMISH, n. } blame, some cause of blame; some
BLEMISHLESS, } stain, some spot, which sullies,
BLEMISHMENT, } taints or tarnishes the original
BLEMISHING, } soundness, fairness, or purity.

And thus it sufficeth not onely, that thy reverence is usually me
sought, but if thou of thy fir will, rather be blemish'd with mine
offence.
Chaucer. *Boccon*, book l. fol. 241.

But whence he came to menues astate he then was right sorry,
and wolde saye full often, to his familyers, a prince is greatly
blemish'd whicene he taketh conyngt of lecture.
Polydore. *Anglo*, 1585.

To see how Christ was prophesied and described therein, childe
& marke, how that the blide or hault must be without spot or
blemish, and so was Christ onely of all nakid, in the sight of God
and of his law.
Tyndall. *Worke*, fol. 459.

But now the Frenchmen have fortified, victualled and manned
their townes, and we have spent tyme and dooen nothyng at all,
layvering for the kyng your master, to the losse of vs and greate
blemishyng of our honours.
Hall. *King Henry VIII.* fol. 18. li.

For if ye do ye shall greatly shate the honour of the lady, and
also the honour of the honore of the queene of Castill her daughter,
for then ye shoulde make her worse then a hastarde.
Frascard. *Crangle*, v. li. c. xliii.

If any natural blemish blot our face,
You do protest, it gives our beauty grace.
Dryden. *Eng. Heroic. Epic.* fol. 129.

Full many lords, and many knights her loved,
Yet she to none of them her liking lent,
Ne ever was with fond affection moved,
But rul'd her thoughts with goodly government,
For dread of blame, and honour's blemishment.
Spenser. *Fairie Queene*, book ii. can. 2.

A life is all so blemishless; that we
Enoch's return may sooner hope, than he
Should be outland'd by any.

Poetham. *Lusoria*, xxxvii.

The earl thinking there might remain some grudge of the last
year's falling out, caused Sir Walter Raleigh and Sir Francis Vere
to shake hands; "which we did both," says he, "the more wil-
lingly, because there had nothing passed between us that might
blemish reputation."
Ogilby. *Life of Raleigh*, cxi.

They have possessed other beauties, which were conformable to
just criticism; and the force of these beauties has been able to
overpower censure, and give the mind a satisfaction superior to
the disgust arising from the similitude.

Hume. *Essay* 23. *Of the Standard of Taste*.

BLEMMYES, a name given to a people in the in-
terior of Africa, whose peculiar conformation is first
mentioned by Herodotus, although he does not assign
to them the name by which they were afterwards
known. He calls them *ἱερὸν δὲ ἐν τοῖς ἀγρίοις*
τοῖς ὀρθοῖς ἀνθρώποις (iv. 191.) They are afterwards
mentioned by Strabo, xvii, and Pomponius Mela, l. 4.
It is clear from the context that Herodotus did not
believe in this fable, for he gives it only on the au-
thority of the Lihyans, and he afterwards distinguishes
the wild men in whom he does believe, as *ὄρεσι δασύ-*
φρονες; an expression which has given the commen-
tator much unnecessary trouble, but which it may be
as well to bear in mind, since it affords one among
innumerable other proofs, to the strict veracity of the
father of history. Pliny, of whom this quality cannot
always be equally predicted, is in this instance re-
markably cautious. His words are, *Blemmyæ tanquam*
capitis abesse, ore et oculis pectori affixis; thus warily
intrenching himself behind a hearsay. Vopiscus men-
tions their subjugation by Probus, and the astonishment
which their arrival excited at Rome. In justice to this
writer, however, it must be admitted that he does not
enter into particulars. *Blemmyæ etiam subegit quorum*
capitibus Romanis transmissi, qui mirabilem sui cunctis stu-
pore populo Romano, præbuerunt. In the reign of
Diocletian, we find them rebelling against that Em-
peror. "Barbarians," says Gibbon, "whom antiquity,
shocked with the deformity of their figure, almost
excluded from the human species, presumed to rank
themselves among the enemies of Rome." (vol. ii. 136.)
The Nobatæ were persuaded by an extensive grant of
territory to remove from their ancient abodes to the
tract above Syene and the cataracts of the Nile. Here
they were opposed as a barrier against the ravages of
the Blemmyes. (Procop. *de bell. Pers.* i. 19.)

It is the more necessary to guard the reputation of
ancient writers against the imputation of an absurd
belief in the falsest monstrosity of the Blemmyes,
because M. de Pauw (*Recherches Philosophiques sur les*
Americains, l. 154.) has taxed St. Augustin with this
credulity in comparatively modern times. The charge
is founded on the following passage in one of the good
father's sermons. *Ecc ego jam Episcopus Hippoensis*
eram, et cum quibusdam Christi ad Æthiopiæ
perrexi ut eis sanctum scripti Evangelium prædicarem,
et viderem ibi multos homines ac mulieres capitis non ha-
bentes, sed oculos grossos in pectore, cetera membra æqualia
habentes. (Serm. xxxvii. *ad Fratres in Ereno*, tome vi.
345. ed. Par.) It has been sufficiently proved, how-
ever, by Erasmus, Baronius and Lamy, that this ser-
mon is not from the pen of St. Augustin, who in fact
never set foot in Ethiopia, and did not understand the
language of the country, therefore never could have
preached the Gospel to the natives who understood no

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other. (*Epist. Augustin. 242.*) But in the tract de civitate Dei, St. Augustin expressly avows his disbelief of these unnatural existences. After mentioning the Scipios, a race who used their feet as parrots; some who had but one eye, and others who had no mouths, he proceeds, "*Quid dicam de Cynocephalus quorum capita canina ipsi latratus magis bestias quam homines confiteri. Sed omnis generis hominum que dicuntur esse, credere non est necesse.*" (xvi. 8.)

Various explanations have been given of this fable. Some have strangely attributed to the whole tribe of Blemmyes the very uncomfortable and not very easy habit of depressing their heads between their shoulders, so that their necks might appear very short. Others with Bochart have contented themselves with calling them a people not without heads but only without hrains, and have resorted to a Hebrew derivation for their support; answering to the Greek primitive α and ρ o, hrain. And lastly, Bryant rejecting the pure Greek β lemmyes, forms three Egyptian words, Ac-caph-el, which he interprets, the *Rock consecrated to the Sun*. This, which is the same with Cahen-caph-el, (*cynocephalus*) he affirms was an University in Upper Egypt, which furnished all the Temples with Priests. *Völsä*, says Larcher, to whose note on the passage first quoted from Herodotus, we have been largely indebted, *Völsä*, à ce qu'il me semble bien de l'érudition en pure perte.

BLEND, v. } See to BLANCH and to BLINK. To
BLANCH, a. } avoid, or cause to avoid, to evade,
BLANCHER, } to escape, elude, shun, to start or
BLANCHIR, } shrink from, to startle. And by
Gower, to hlink.

Thence shalt þe blenck at a bergh.

Piers Plowman, p. 122.

For now if ye shoulde have answered him as I have shewed you, though ye shoulde have somewhat blenched him therwith, yet he might & wold of likelyhod have gone further with you & have asked you wherby ye knowe yf ye shoulde beleve the church.

Sir Theo. More, book iii.

And thus thinkende I stonde still
Without blenchinge of mine eye,
Right as me thought that I sein
Of paradis the most ioie.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vi. fol. 128.

Male old offences of affections new,
Must true it is, that I have look'd on truth
Alike and strangely; but, by all shew,
These blenches gave my heart another youth,
And worse ways prov'd thee my best of love.

Shakespeare. Sonnet cx.

Lyke as the good husbande, when he hath sown his grounde,
withen vp cloughes or theedes, whiche some call shalles, some
shewes, or other lyke shewes, to feare away hyrdes, whiche he
furethw rede to drawe and kerte his corne.

Sir Thomas Elyot. The Governour, fol. 82.

The noble lord who then conducted affairs, and his worthy colleagues, whilst they trembled at the prospect of such distress as you have since brought upon yourselves, were not afraid steadily to look in the face that glaring and dazzling influence of which the eyes of eagles have blenched. *Burke. On American Taxation.*

BLEND, v. } A. S. blendan; Swe. blanda. To
BLAND, part. } mix, to mingle.

To see both blended in one flood,
The mother's milk, the children's blood,
Makes me doubt if Heaven will gather
Roses hence, or lilies rather.

Crashaw. Upon the Infant Martyr.

Nothing is a greater sacrifice than to prostitute the great name of God to the petulance of an idle tongue, and spend it as an expletive, to fill up the emptiness of a weak discourse.

Taylor. Sermon xxi. fol. 228.

But not that matters wilde, and myde
without reason should goo

Blended as one, serpage poets may,

this lewe they do not fynde

Serpents with byrds, tyger with lambs

In joyne aginste their kindes

Draut. Horace's Art of Poetry, A. 1.

He mournd still, and wept ful sore

I sweare by the holy croce

The teares he for his master wept

Were blent water, and bloude.

Old Robin of Portegale, in Percy.

Upon the spacious level's utmost bound,

The Gings rolls his rapid waves around.

But soon in fift Heron's channel lost,

His blended waters seek Heron's coast.

Rose. Lucan's Pharsalia, book iv.

The particulars in which an object continues the same, are often so blended with those in which it has become different, that we cannot find proper words for marking the distinction, and therefore must have recourse to obscure circumlocutions.

Boswell. On Truth, part. 1. ch. ii.

BLLENDE, in Mineralogy, an ore of zinc in which the metal is combined with sulphur. This sulphuret of zinc is commonly known in the mining districts of this country by the name of Black Jack.

BLLENHEIM or BLANKENHEIM, a village of the kingdom of Bavaria, in the circle of the Upper Danube. It stands on the northern bank of the Danube, about two miles from Hachstadt, and in the late Principality of Neuburg, and, with its environs, contains a population of about 1500 individuals. This village will ever form a conspicuous object in the history of Europe, from the battle gained there in August 1704, by the British and Imperial troops, over the French and Bavarians. The former were commanded by the Duke of Marlborough and Prince Eugene, and the latter by Marshals Tallard, Marsin, and the Elector of Bavaria. This celebrated victory was chiefly owing to the superior military skill and promptitude of the great English commander. The engagement commenced by a line of about five miles in length, and Marlborough's first attempt was to carry the village of Blenheim, in which the French had taken up a strong position that covered the right flank of their army; but finding himself unable to carry this point without too great a sacrifice, he rapidly concentrated his forces, and here upon the French line between that place and their centre, while the troops under Prince Eugene were opposed to their left, which consisted of the Bavarians. Complete success having attended the Duke in this point, both the French centre and left wing were obliged to retreat; but instead of pursuing them in their flight, Marlborough placed himself between them and a detachment of 13,000 men posted at the village of Blenheim; and by thus cutting off all communication, obliged this body of troops to lay down their arms. The total loss of the French and Bavarians was stated at 30,000 men, of the English and Allies at 12,000. Marlborough's great object on that occasion was to have taken his opponents by surprise, and for that purpose he began his march at three in the morning, and though he arrived in front of the enemy about six, the length of the line and other unforeseen obstacles, prevented them from coming to close engagement till some hours afterwards; and the advantage of surprise was

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therefore lost; but the superior skill of the commander was not only adequate to the emergency, but was rendered more conspicuous by that circumstance. In commemoration of this decisive victory, a splendid mansion was built for the Duke at the expense of the nation, and named after the village where it was achieved. This the Marlborough family still hold on the tenure of delivering a French banner at Windsor on the anniversary of the engagement.

BLENNIUS, from the Greek *βλέννιον*, mocus or slime, Arted. Lin. Bloch. Lacép. Cuv. *Blenny*, Pen. In Zoology, a genus of animals belonging to the family *Gobiidae*, order *Acanthopterygii*, class *Pisces*. Generic character. Ventral fins before pectoral, and composed generally of not less than two nor more than four rays: anal tubercle.

This genus of fishes is very remarkable for a viscid mucus, with which it is covered, and whence it has derived its name. The body is lengthened and compressed: there is generally but one dorsal fin, and both dorsal and ventral are made up of six slender rays. They live in shoals amongst the pebbles on the shore, swimming and leaping about. They are very tenacious of life for a long while after having been taken out of the water.

They have been divided by Cuvier into five subgenera, viz. *Blennius proprius*, *Salaria*, *Clinus*, *Guanellus*, and *Opiatognathus*, principally from the arrangement of their teeth.

a. *Blennius Proprius*.

Teeth long, regular, serrated, and arranged in a single row in both jaws, which in some species terminate behind in one longer curved tooth; most have a little appendage over each superciliary ridge; others have the head erected; but some have neither erect nor superciliary appendage.

B. Ocellaris, Lin. Bloch; *B. Lepus*, Lacép.; *Blennius*, Salvin; *Butterfly Fish*, Ray. About six or eight inches long; head large; mouth wide and jaws furnished with a single row of straight serrated teeth; eyes prominent and above both a small process resembling a little ear, which the French fishers imagine to give it some resemblance to the head of a hare, and they have therefore called it *Lepus Marin*, on which account Lacépède has given it the same specific name: the operculum is composed of a single piece; the dorsal fin extending almost to the tail, is narrower in the middle than at the extremities; the body has no scales; the general colour of the fish is greenish with several irregular transverse bands of a dark olive; the dorsal fin also green with dusky blue and white spots, and from the fifth to the eighth ray of the same is a beautiful spot like an eye, black in the centre with a white margin, from which circumstance Ray named it *Butterfly Fish*. It inhabits the Mediterranean.

B. Palmicirris, Cuv.; *Gattorugine* of the Venetians; *Gattorugine*, Pen. About seven inches long; body compressed; teeth slender and close; above each eye a loose trifurcated membrane; pectoral fins broad and rounded, the rays of which extend beyond the membrane connecting them; dorsal fin made up of fourteen strong spiny and nineteen soft rays, which last are the higher; the fish is of an ashy colour marked with wavy lines; the extremities of the pectoral and ventral fins orange coloured. It inhabits the Mediterranean, but has been taken on the British coast.

B. Cornutus, Lin. Lacép.; *Horned Blenny*, Shaw. Is

a small species, having a single long thin process over each eye; the head irregularly studded with very small tubercles; it has one tooth longer than the rest on each side of the jaw; it is freckled with reddish spots. A native of the Indian seas. The *B. Tentaculatus* of Brunnich is considered by Cuvier a variety of this species.

B. Fasciatus, Bloch; *Fasciated Blenny*, Shaw. Has simple superciliary appendages, and two tufts between the eyes; the anal fin contains nineteen rays: it is about six inches long and of a greyish colour, marked with four or five brownish stripes. Inhabits the Indian seas.

B. Gattorugine, Bloch. About five inches long and without scales; two little appendages above the eyes and two more on the back part of the head, the latter palmated; the dorsal fin long and regular. It is a question whether this be not the same fish, only of a larger size, as that described by Montagu in the *Wormeries Transactions*; he says, "behind the crest are several minute, erect, filiform appendiculae."

Cuvier also mentions another *B. Gattorugine* described by Brunnich, and very different from those of Pennant or Bloch.

B. Galerita, Lin.; *B. Coquillard*, Lacép.; *Crested Blenny*, Pen. About five inches long; body smooth and slippery, of a brownish colour and spotted; on the head is a small crest like a fin, capable of erection, which Cuvier says takes place at the time of estrum; and behind this on the top of the head is a triangular process pointing backwards, edged with red. It is found occasionally on the British coast.

B. Pavo, Risso. Has also the crest on the top of the head.

B. Pholis, Lin. Lacép.; *Smooth Blenny*, Pen. About five inches long; head large and forming nearly a right angle with the mouth; teeth slender, sharp and close; irides red; ventral fins two rayed and bifid at their extremities; dorsal fin extending from the occiput almost as far as the tail; colour deep olive or black. Found in great numbers on the Anglesian coast.

B. Salaria, Schneid.; *Gadus Salaria*, Forsk. Head very steep; vertex emarginated. Found in the Alexandrine archipelago.

B. Covernus, Schneid. Body not covered with scales but spotted; eyes on the edge of the forehead; vertex hollowed transversely. Habitation unknown.

The three last species have neither crest nor superciliary appendage.

β. *Salaria*.

Teeth very numerous, extremely delicate, deeply serrated, curved at their points, compressed laterally and ranged in a single row; head compressed, but broad transversely; forehead vertical.

B. Salaria, Schneid.; *Blennie Sauter*, Lacép.; *Alicius Saltatorius*, Commers.; *Leaping Blenny*. This species was first noticed by Commerson on the coast of New Britain; the body is compressed and lengthened, of a brown colour streaked with black, and extremely slippery; the upper jaw very long; the eyes are placed on the upper part of the head, and have bright yellow irides; this fish has also a curious cartilaginous crest on the occiput, which causes a doubt whether it should be placed in this or the preceding subgenus; the pectoral fins are remarkably large, extending back to near the vent. After death the colour often fades to

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a bluish tinge. It is a remarkably active animal, scrambling up the rocks by means of its pectoral fins, and is taken with much difficulty.

B. Sujef, Lacép.; *B. Sinus*, Sujef.; *Sujefian Blenny*. This fish is described by Sujef in the *Acta Petropolitana*; it is about three inches and a half long; the mouth is underneath the muzzle; the operculum composed of two pieces; before the beginning of the dorsal fin a little fatty prominence is situated; tail rounded and having a spurious fin near it, containing four or five rays. Found in the Indian seas.

B. Quadripennis; *Sekarias Quadripennis*, Cuv.; *B. Gatergine*, Forsk. About three inches long; front very perpendicular; lips very broad and obtuse, the lower the shortest; teeth very numerous and slender, close set in a single row; eyes not far distant but very prominent; besides superciliary appendages it has on the occiput a double bundle of cirri, containing six in each, short and of a whitish colour, and before each eye one shorter, having a cleft in it, and the colour of the fish bluish or greenish, with the upper and fore part of the back spotted black, and the remainder blue. It is found in the neighbourhood of Alexandria.

γ Clinus.

Teeth short, pointed and arranged in several rows, those in front the largest.

B. Mustelaria, Lin.; *B. Mustela*, Lacép.; *Weele Blenny*, Shaw. The first dorsal fin having three, the second four-three rays. It inhabits the Indian seas.

B. Superciliatus, Lin. Lacép.; *Superciliatus Blenny*, Shaw. Head small; eyes prominent and situated laterally, each surrounded by an expanded membrane divided into three portions, similar to an eyebrow, whence it gets its name; all the rays of the dorsal fin pointed except the last five or six. It is one of those species which are viviparous, the young breaking their shell in the abdomen of the parent from which they are discharged alive. It inhabits the Indian seas, living on the smaller crustacea.

B. Punctatus, Oth. Fabric. This is considered by Cuvier as a distinct species, but Lacépède believes it to be merely a variety of the *B. Gunnellus*, differing from it only in size and the colour of the spots on the dorsal fin, five of which are black and the other five white; but the number of rays to the dorsal fin being a third less than that of the *B. Gunnellus*, mark it a distinct species.

δ Gunnellus.

Ventral fins very small and often single-rayed; teeth like last subgenus; dorsal fin extending along the whole length of the back.

B. Gunnellus, Lin. Lacép.; *Butter Fish* of the Cornish fishers; *Spotted Blenny*, Penn. Lacépède considers the specific name given to this fish to be from its thin and lengthened shape like a boat's gunwale; it is about six inches long; two very slender spines supply the place of ventral fins; the dorsal runs along the back to near the tail, and contains seventy-eight short spiny rays; anal fin extending from the vent, which is almost in the middle of the body, to near the tail; the back is of a deep olive colour, the belly whitish; pectoral fins orange; eleven black spots half encircled with white, are placed on the upper part of the back, and extend partly on to the dorsal fin. This fish is found on the British coasts living under stones among the tang.

B. Muraenoides, Lin.; *Muraenoides Sujef*, Lacép.; *Muraenoid Blenny*, Shaw. This fish differs little from

the preceding, except in having several small tubercles on the head; it is of a cinereous brown colour, and has no spots on the back; it is about six inches long.

B. Lumpenus, Gmel. Lacép.; *Arculated Blenny*, Shaw. This is a small species; the head and tail are yellow, the latter often spotted; the back and sides white spotted with brown; belly white; the ventral fins are similar to little beards, being placed very forward, and composed of three little filaments, of which the last is the longest. It inhabits the Mediterranean.

B. Centromotus, Cuv.; *Centronius Fasciatus*, Schneider. Body compressed and marked with brown and orange stripes; ventral fin composed of a single ray; scales very small and rough. It is found at Tranquebar.

ε Opistognathus.

B. Opistognathus; *Opistognathus Sonnerati*, Cuv. Of this there is but a single species, brought by M. Sonnerat from the Indian seas: it is similar in form to the true Blennies, but distinguished from them by the jaws being very large and extended far back, forming a long flat edge; it has three rays to the ventral fins, which are placed immediately under the pectoral.

See Linnæi *Systema Nature*; Lacépède *Histoire Naturelle des Poissons*; Bloch *Systema Ichthyologie* a Schneider; Cuvier *Régne Animal*; Shaw's *General Zoology*; Pennant's *British Zoology*.

BLENT, is the past tense and past participle, *blenzed*, *blint* or *blest*, from the A. S. *blinnan*; to stop, *sc.* the sight, the vision.

Lucifer looks no night, so light him a blest.

Poets Flaccian, p. 359.

O sely preest, o sely innocent,

With covetise anon thou shalt be blest.

Chaucer. *The Chaucer's Remains*, p. 16544.

Lo Argus, which that had an hundred eyes,

For all that ever he coude see or cryen,

Yet was he blest, and, God wot, so ben mo,

That weren wiser that it be not so.

Id. *The Merchant's Tale*, v. 9985.

He can so well his cause make,

And so well feign, and so well gloss,

That there no shall no man suppose,

But that he were an innocent,

And thus a man can be blest.

Gower. *Conf. Am. book v.*

BLENT, the past tense of *blench*, shrink-d, started

aside. Tyrwhit.

And therewithal he blest and cried, a!

As though he stonpes were unto the herbe.

Chaucer. *The Knight's Tale*, v. 1023.

Alas! alas! that I ne had yblent,

His hate love is cold, and all yquest.

Id. *The Miller's Tale*, v. 3731.

He blest away with a leep.

Id. *Richard Coeur de Lion*, v. 219.

BLESS, or

BLISS,

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BLISSFUL,

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A. S. *blissan*, *blissian*, *be-lyon*, *blithe*, *belithe*; *blissan*, *blithen*; i. e. *be-lissom*, *be-lithesome*. *Lithe*, *lithesome*, and *lissom*, are still used in the north, for quiet, still, gentle, pliant, flexible; from the A. S. *lysan*, to loosen or slacken; to loosen, or dissolve (*sc.*) the tightness, stiffness; to soothe or soften—the harshness; to still, quiet or tranquillize—the violence or turbulence, the pain or anguish; to pacify, to please, to gratify; to communicate or confer ease, pleasure, happiness, prosperity.

BLENNIUS.

BLESS.

BLESS. Bless you; may ease, pleasure, prosperity, be conferred upon you. I bless you; I (as far as my wishes and prayers are effectual to do so) confer prosperity, happiness upon you.

— *His Alonzo* here whom,
And take him al to God grace, & to stayle wende anon.
R. Gloucester, p. 406.

— *His gate was pat werre perul, withouten lore,
But noifer parties com nerre, I bless Ameline before.*
R. Brune, p. 97.

— *For he gaf his hys blessing, & al his tresour her to,
And he adds his modir al clene of gyfte al so.*
R. Gloucester, p. 421.

— *That they ben cursed of Christ. I can hem wel proue
Withouten his blessing have both thei in her werkes.
For Christ seyde hymselfe to swiche as hym folowed.
Y blessd most they ben, that men be in soules
And alle power in god, that hym selles blesseth.*
Piers Plowman's Creed, D. 3. 1.

— *Sonne, on my blessing troue you not his sawe,
But late him haf endyng, as a traytour yorgh lawe.*
R. Brune, p. 270.

— *And all be wise but evere were, by out ich can aspie
Prenede porre for beste, yf pacience hit fulwe
And bope bettere and bleasder, by many fable Jan richard.*
Piers Plowman, p. 209.

— *Bless ghe men that pursen ghen, bless ghe and nyle ghe
cure.*
Wiclif. Masseng, ch. xli.

— *Bless them which persecute you: Bless, but curse not.*
Bible, 1551.

— *O love brother, quod this Arius,
Yere me a plant of thille blessed tree,
And lo my garden planted shal it be.*
Chaucer. The Wyf of Bath, Pro. v. 6346.

— *Prosperina, whiche daughter was
Of Ceres, befell this cas,
While she was dwelling in Cecile,
Her mother in that ille while
Upon her blessing, and her best
Red, that she shulde be honest,
And lere for to weave and spinne
And dwelle at home, and kepe her inne.*
Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 91.

— *For the soule doeth not perishe whiche departeth from the
bodye, nor the bodye doeth not altogether go to destruction,
that in tyme to come shal live more blessedly, and be immortall.*
Cicili. Jehn, ch. xi.

— *For in this xxxi. Psalm describeth he also this blessed state
of man, declared now by the gospel, shewing that yf it is not
gave & received, as dar vult vs for the workes of Moses law,
but by the fre goodness of God, whereby we are moved & drawn
to believe.*
Id. Romaines, ch. iv.

— *Moreover Arius's felicity and blessedness standeth in any-
thing of this tribulation, and in riches, health, honour, worship,
friends, and authorities, which felicitate pleaseth our spiritally will.*
Tyndall. Preface to the Reader, fol. 103.

— *Therefore I geude necessary to prye brithers that thei come
bifore to ghen, and make redi for this blyght blessing to be redi
so as blessing and not as verrie. For I seie this thing, he that
sowth searsh shall also reape searsh, and he that sowth in
blessing shall also reape blessing.*
Wiclif. 2 Corynth. ch. ix.

— *Wherefore I thought it necessary to exhort the bretheren, to
come beforehand unto you for to prepare youre good blessing
promysed afore, that it might be ready: so that it be a blessing,
and not a defrauding. This yet remember, how that he which
sowth lytel, shall reape lytel, & he that sowth plentifully
shall reape plentifully.*
Bible, 1551. 2 Corinth.

— *Lo this is even the very grounds
this is the porphyte cease,
That most mislike themselves as muche,
and can no reason passe
In blessing.*
Draut's Herce, l. 4. 8.

— *When thou hast said or done any thing for which thou re-
ceivest praise or mission, take it indifferently, and return it
to God; reflecting upon him as the giver of the gift, or the
bliss of the action, or the aid of the deigo.*

— *Taylor. Holy Living, sect. iv. Of Humility.*

— *Blessed, who walk't not in the worldling's way;
Blessed, who with foul sinners will not stand;
Blessed, who with proud mockers dar't not stay;
Nor sit thee down amongst that scornful band.*

— *P. Fletcher. Psalm 1.*

— *But since so it pleaseth him, whose wisdom and goodness
guideth all, put thy residence in him, and one day we shall
blessedly meet again, never to depart.*

— *Spenser. Arcadia, book lii.*

— *The deeps and the towers, the hail and the rain, the birds of
the air and fishes of the sea, they can and do glorify God, and
give him praise in their capacity; and yet he gave them no
speech, no reason, no immortal spirit, no capacity of eternal
blessedness.*
Taylor. Sermon xii.

— *The assurance of a future blessedness is a cordial that will
revive our spirits more in the days of adversity, than all the wise
sayings and considerations of philosophy.*

— *Philaster. Sermon v.*

— *I took up Homer, and dipped into that famous speech of
Achilles to Priam, in which he tells him, that Jupiter has by him
two great vessels, the one filled with blessings, and the other with
misfortunes; out of which he makes a composition for every
man that comes into the world.*
Fletcher, No. 146.

— *The very babe
Knows this, and 'chance awak'd, his little hands
Lifts to the gods, and on his innocent couch
Calls down a blessing.*
Mason. Cenci, act. i.

— *BLESSED TWISTLE, the English name of the Centaurea benedicta.*

— *BLIGHIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Octen-
dria, order Monogamia. Generic character: calyx
five-partite; petals five, duplicate; style none; capsule
fleshy, three-valved, three-locular; seeds solitary,
with a very large aril.*

— *The only species of this genus, is the Akce tree, a
native of Africa, between the tropics. Koenig in Annals
of Botany, li. p. 571.*

— *BLIGHT, v. 1. Perhaps from the A. S. blātan, be-
blātan, v. 1. blātan, to alight, to descend, to fall
upon, to strike upon.*

— *Blight is applied to that which falls upon so as to
injure, to destroy, in winter up, to desolate.*

— *Blight is often caused by a continued dry easterly wind,
for several days together, without the intervention of showers,
or any morning dew, by which the perspiration in the tender
blossoms is stopp'd, so that in a short time their colour is
changed and they wither and decay.*

— *Müller's Gardener's Dictionary.*

— *Tho' they could not hinder brave and active spirits from
building out into noble beginnings, of most hopeful benefit to the
common wealth; yet could, by stopping the channel of supplies
or encouragement, limit them from advancing to any fruitful or
profitable conclusions.*
Olney. Life of Raleigh, xlvii.

— *The Lady Blunt, you must understand, has such a particular
malignity in her whisper, that it blights like an easterly wind,
and withers every reputation that it breathes upon.*

— *Spectator, No. cccxlii.*

— *Trust not, ye ladies, to your beauty's power,
For beauty wears like a shrivell'd flower;
Yet those fair flowers, that Sylvia's temples bind,
Fade not with sudden blight or winter's wind.*
Gay. Eclogues. The Ten-table.

— *I suspect it will be found, that whenever the blighting wind
and those frosts at blighting time have prevailed, the produce of
the wheat crop will turn out very indifferently.*

— *Burke. On Secrecy.*

— *The various seasons wove into one,
And that one season an eternal spring,
The garden fears no blight, and needs no fence.*
Camper. The Task, book 6.

**BLESS
—
BLOW.**

BLIGHT.
—
BLIND.

— Ah, gracious heaven ! attend
His fervent prayer ; restrain the tempest's rage,
The dreadful light disperse ; nor to one blind
The products of the labouring year destroy !
Dedding. Agriculture, can. 3.

BLIGHT'S ISLAND, an island lying in Prince William's sound, off the west coast of North America, about the sixty-first degree of north latitude. It is seven miles long, and five broad.

BLIGHT'S
ISLAND.
—
BLIND.

BLIND.

BLIN, v. }
BLIND, v. } A. S. blindan. blindian ; Ger.
BLIND, s. } blinden, or blinden ; Dutch, blinden, from the A. S. blinnan, to stop, Junius and after him Tooke.
BLINDING, v. } To stop, impede, obstruct, prevent or hinder, (ac.) the sight,
BLINDFOLD, v. } the vision, the perception, the understanding.
BLINDLY, }
BLINDNESS, }
BLINDSIDE, }

So longe hom speelde haddeliche, jat hi miste as wel Min.
R. Gloucester, p. 566.

Jo wende hyne Edmund to Londene mid þys rote,
And at þat tyme of Deemarch dwelt he aboute,
And drof hem out of þys lond, & put nolde he not stigne.
Id. p. 302.

Knoote gadrid him an oste, or Edmund he ran,
And Edmund on him ageyn, as a doughty man,
& trewiled sore Knoote, ceut he blewe.
R. Brune, p. 48.

Befor þe kleg & þe barons he more or þe bohr,
þat neuer Alfred his broþer þurgh him was dede,
No stignefid no slaye, bot þorgh Harald's rede.
Id. p. 54.

And the men that heiden him scorned him : and smytyn
him. And thei blindfolden him : and smytyn his face.
Wiclif. Luke, ch. xxiii.

And the men that stode aboute Jem mocked him, and smote
him, and blindfolded him and smote his face. *Bible, 1531.*

If ye will wincke is so open & cleare light and let yourselves
be led blindfolded, and haue your part with the hypocrites in
lyke sence and mischief ; be sure, ye shall haue your part with
them in lyke wrath and vengeance that is like shortly to fall
vpon them. *Tyndall. Works, fol. 341.*

Therefore I seie and witnesse this thing is the Lord, that ghe
walks not now as beestlike men walken in the vanite of her witt,
that han understanding deked with derk wemys, and ben alleced
for the lyf of God in ignorance that is in hem for the blindness
of her herte. *Wiclif. Ephes, ch. iv.*

Thus I say therefore and testify to the Lord that ye hereforth
walks not as other Gentyles walk, in the vanite of their
mynde, blindfold t their understanding, beyng strangers from
the lyfe whych is in God thorow the ignorance that is in them
because of the blindness of their hertes. *Bible, 1531.*

Er he cam ther, him to begile he thought,
And so he did, or that they went awin :
Til he had torded him, coude he not Min.
Chaucer. The Chaucer's Remains Tell, v. 16648.

And neigh the cattle wiche ther dwelten three .
That on of hem was blind, and might not see,
But it were with thilke eyes of his minde,
With which men mowen see when they ben blind.
Id. The Men of Letters Tell, p. 4970.

What blisful fortune may there be in the blindness of igno-
rance. *Id. Boetius, book ii. fol. 218.*

Lo thus blindly the world she dotheth
In lousse curre, as to me smeth.

Guerr. Conf. Am. book viii.

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For If also oure gospel is heurid, is there that pericueo it
is heurid, in which God hath about the souls of unfeithful men
of this world that the lighting of the gospel of the glorie of
Cris which is the ymage of God schyne out.

Wiclif. 2 Corinthians, ch. iv.

If our gospell bee yet hyde, it is hyd among them that are
lost, in whom the God of thy world hath ligended the minds of
them which beleue not, leact the light of the glorious gospel of
Christ whiche is the ymage of God, shoulde shine vnto them.
Bible, 1531.

As it was readye at hande at one tyme by reason of the ob-
scure and byndinge of God's worde among y^e Jewes thorow
the cursed Talmud wherinto they put more faith and trevedne,
and cleued more curiously vnto it than vnto the lawe of God
and to the prophets. *Uval. Revelations, ch. xiii.*

Men also stoned therewith he could transaw,
And stones to dust, and dust to ought at all ;
And, when him list the prouder looked subdew,
He would them gazing blind, or turn to other hew.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book i. can. 7.

God neuer gave a pow'r to ooe whole kind,
But most part of that kind did use the same :
Most eyes haue perfect sight, though some be blind ;
Most legs can nicely see, though some be lame.
Darwin. Immortality of the Soul, Reason i. sect. 30.

Nor do I think that Bolleguoke can be
So blind-amissive to affect the crew ;
Heving himself no title, and doth see
Others, if you should fall, must keep him down.
Darwin. History of Civil War, book ii.

Thus partiall judgements blindly nyne amise,
At things which stand without our reach retir'd,
Which whilst not ours, as treasures we desire,
But not the same whilst we the same enjoy.
Stirling. Chorus in the Alexander Tragedy, C. 5.

But now through their owne lacke of understanding, and
through their owne blindness, these menne have them faste
yoked, and in their daunger.

Jewel. Reple to M. Harding, ii. fol. 607.

And even then he made shift to flye and escape through by-
wales and blind-lewes. *Holland. Surinam, fol. 44.*

He [Love] blinds the wise, gives eyeght to the blind,
And mooues and stamps upon the lover's mind.
Dryden. Pateman and Arcite, book ii.

Fate's blindfold reigns the atheist loudly owns,
And Providence blasphemously detractions.
Id. Suan Cuique.

This husbands well his strength, (altho' he grows
With ire) and deals more sparingly his blows ;
That, caper of revenge, himself neglects,
And rushes blindly on.

Lewis. Theaid of Statius, book vi.

Thus the professors of wisdom, like the foolish Harpato that
Seneca speaks of, who inconsiderable of her own blindness always
complained the sun was down and the house dark, thought all
things were left at random, in worse disorder, and confusion
here below. *Bates. Spiritual Perfection ascribed, qv. ch. vii.*

Disput'd in all the masks of night,
We left our champion on his light,
At blindness's loof, to gropo his way,
In equal fear of night and day.

Burton. Hudibras, part iii. can. 3

4 M

BLIND.
—
BLIND-
NESS.

He is too great a lover of himself, this is one of his *blindfoldes*; the best of men, I fear, are not without them. *Suff.*

"Peace, peace, ye *blinded* Britons, and ye Gauls;
Nurion to nation is a light, a fire,
Enkindling virtue, science, and arts." *Extr. The Fleet, book iv.*

His exhortation therefore was, "Repent ye!" renounce those vices and abominations which at present blind your eyes and cloud your understandings, and then you will be able to see the truth and hear the light. *Porteus. Lecture iii.*

If I have an ancient window overlooking my neighbour's ground, he may not erect any blind to obstruct the light. *Blackstone. Commentaries, ii. 403.*

I never heard it prescribed as a recipe for strengthening the sight, to keep constantly *blindfolded* in the day-time, and put on spectacles when we go to sleep. *Boutin. On Truth, part iii. ch. 1.*

One month passes and another comes on; the year ends and then begins: but man is still unchanged in folly, still *blindly* continuing in prejudice. *Goldsmith. Citizens of the World, let. xciv.*

BLINDNESS. This term comprehends a variety of affections, both in degree and kind; for loss or deprivation of sight springs from numerous sources. Thus the state may be congenital or induced, constitutional or topical, the result of accident or disease; and, further, from the complicated nature of the visual organ with its large dependencies, very different diseases, or the same diseases, of very different parts, will conduce to the temporary suspension or total abolition of its important office. Thus the cause of Blindness may exist in the muscles that move the eye; it may be constituted by a disordered condition of the eyelids; it may reside in the membranes of the organ, or in what are called its humours; and lastly, an affection of the brain may produce a deprivation or even destruction of sight, while the eye itself, as an instrument of vision, retains its wonted integrity.

To these several affections, allusions will be found, and for them remedies pointed out in appropriate parts of this work. Our object in the present article will be limited rather to the moral than the medical circumstances of Blindness; and our paper will consist principally of a brief investigation respecting the modes that have been proposed and adopted for diminishing the evils of the state.

Respecting the quantum of this evil as the result of Blindness, different opinions have been entertained; nay, it has even been made a question, whether Blindness is to be considered an evil, or rather, whether the deprivation of sight is, upon the whole, a diminution in the sum of pleasurable feeling. The proverbial cheerfulness of blind men has been adduced in favour of that hypothesis which supposes the suspension of one faculty to be an increase of the others, in such sort as that the loss is fully counterbalanced, if not more than made up, by the exquisiteness of the remaining perceptions. "I knew a man," says a modern author, "who according to vulgar phraseology, had the *misfortune* to be blind. The conversation once turned, in his presence, upon a person who was subject, without any apparent cause, to a lowness of spirits, which, though many things had been tried, nothing had been able to remove. Upon the blind man being asked what he thought would be most likely to cure the malady of this mental invalid, he emphatically replied, 'put out his eyes.'"

BLIND-
NESS.

The above narration, however, it would scarcely be just to bring forward, even as one instance in favour of the position it seems meant to enforce, since the blind individual alluded to might have merely meant impressively to illustrate the known fact, that real evils are in many cases the best cure for those of the imagination; and in this point of view, the doctrine of a blind man's happiness in his misfortune may be considered as strongly opposed rather than at all supported by the reply in question. Certain, however, it is, that a flow of animal spirits is often providentially given to those who have been deprived of sight; and, in respect to Blindness from birth, the grounds of our commiseration and pity may be in some measure misconceived, since even the most unreserved communication of the blind with the possessors of vision must fail to make the former sensible of the nature of their loss; so that the resulting unhappiness must rather be of the negative than the positive kind.

Another question has been agitated on the subject of Blindness; viz. whether the locking up of the visual inlet to perception implies a diminished quantum in the whole of an individual's perceptive powers. As blind persons confessedly enjoy a nicety of touch, an acuteness of hearing, and quickness of smell, which is unknown to others not so affected, it has been imagined that the suspended faculty of vision is not properly lost, but merely diffused among the remaining powers.

"That if one sense should be suppressed,
It but returns into the rest."

And many circumstances connected with manifestations of extraordinary power on the part of the blind, would appear often to establish the correctness of the opinion. By other persons, however, it is maintained, that these displays of capacity are rather the result of exercise growing out of necessity, than proofs of larger possession; but if these objectors admit, as they must do, that more advance is made in particular branches of knowledge by individuals who are not distracted from the pursuit by the faculty of vision, than by others who have this faculty, they at the same time concede much to the justness of the law contended for; because, allowing acquirement and strength to be the result of exertion, it is the power itself of making the requisite exertion that is to be explained.

The temporary Blindness of some sleep-walkers, and the astonishing agility consequent upon nicety of perception, which is often evinced in this last state, may be taken as proof that the superior tact and talent of the individual deprived of sight may exist prior to all exercise; and that the exercise rather develops and confirms, than actually occasions or creates the power.

Under the article *Somaambulæ*, in the French Encyclopædia, we find a remarkable illustration of the principle, that the suspension of one series of affections increases the acuteness of others. "The Archbishop of Bourdeaux was at college with a student subject to walking in his sleep. On planting himself from curiosity in the student's chamber, so as to ascertain his motions, he observed the young man sit down to compose sermons, which he read page by page as he committed them to paper, if it can be

BLIND-
NESS.

called reading when no use was made of the eyes. On being dissatisfied with any passage during the recital, he crossed it out, and wrote the correction with much accuracy over it. The writer of the article saw the beginning of a sermon, in which was the following amendment. It stood at first *ce disois enfant*. On revision, it struck the student to substitute *adorable* for *disois*. So he erased the first word, and set the second exactly above it. But remarking that the article *ce* could not stand before *adorable*, he very nicely set a *t* after *ce*, and it then stood *cet adorable enfant*.

"To satisfy himself that the somnambulist in all these operations made no use of his eyes, the archbishop held something under his chin sufficient to intercept the view of the paper on which he wrote. But he wrote on, without being interrupted by this obstacle in the way of sight. To discover how the night-walker knew the presence of objects, the archbishop took away the paper on which he wrote, and pushed other papers under his hand. Whenever they were of unequal size, the student was aware of the change; but when they were equal, he wrote on, and made corrections on the spots, corresponding with his own paper.

"This power of distinguishing different sized pieces of paper, may (says the narrator) at first appear almost incredible, without the assistance of the eyes. But one can conceive that this might arise from the touch joined to any habitual sense of the space, which the pen had to traverse every line."

Many other instances might be brought forward in exemplification of the law that the above example so remarkably illustrates; and upon the whole we would infer, that the position of a modern writer on the subject of Blindness is somewhat objectionable, when he says, that "neither the deaf nor the blind are superior to other individuals enjoying the use of all their senses."

We might now proceed to the history of individuals, who, in spite of their Blindness, nay, in several cases, as a consequence of the defect, have proved successful cultivators of science and art. But in this miscellaneous department of our work we are always desirous of brevity, and we shall therefore pass on to a succinct account of those expedients that have been had recourse to in order to open the door of intellectual research to the blind. It must be sufficiently evident that the principle upon which these expedients is founded, is that of rendering instructive processes palpable, at least as far as the sciences of demonstration are concerned.

The celebrated Saunderson's is the first detailed account we have, by which arithmetical and algebraic calculations were rendered comparatively facile to an individual without sight.

This extraordinary individual caused a board to be plied with holes, in which placing pins or pegs of different sizes, that had a different value according to the place they occupied, he performed with facility the most complicated operations.

"Imagine to yourself," says Diderot in his description of Saunderson's instrument, "a square divided into four equal parts by perpendicular lines at the sides, in such a manner that they may present you the nine points 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. Suppose this square pierced with nine holes capable of receiving pins of

two kinds, all of equal length and thickness, but some with heads a little larger than the others.

"The pins with larger heads are never placed any where else but in the centre of the square; those with smaller heads never but at the sides, except in one single case, which is that of making the figure 1, where none are placed at the sides. The number 1 is represented by a pin with a small head placed in the centre of the square, without putting any other pin at the sides; the number 2 by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the square, and by a pin with a small head placed on one of the sides at the point 1; the number 3 by a pin with a large head placed in the centre of the square, and by a pin with a small head placed on one of the sides at the point 2; and so on to number 9.

"There are plainly ten different expressions obvious to the touch, of which every one answers to one of our ten arithmetical characters. You may easily conceive that there is not any number which one cannot express upon this table, and consequently no arithmetical operation which one cannot execute upon it.

"Let it be proposed for instance to find the sum or to work the addition of the nine numbers following.

1	2	3	4	5
2	3	4	5	6
3	4	5	6	7
4	5	6	7	8
5	6	7	8	9
6	7	8	9	0
7	8	9	0	1
8	9	0	1	2
9	0	1	2	3

"I express them on the table in the order as they are dictated to me; the first figure at the left of the first number, upon the first square to the left of the first line; the second figure to the left of the first number upon the second square to the left of the same line, and so of the rest.

"I place the second number upon the second row of squares, units beneath units, and tens beneath tens, &c.

"I place the third number upon the third row of squares, and so of the rest. Then with my fingers running over each of the rows vertically, from the bottom to the top, beginning with that which is nearest to my right, I work the addition of the numbers which are expressed, and mark the surplus of the tens at the foot of that column. I then pass to the second column, advancing towards the left, upon which I operate in the same manner, thence to the third, and thus in succession I finish my addition."

Diderot goes on to shew the manner in which Saunderson proceeded when he wished to make his board geometrical. In this case he placed his pins in the angular points, and united them, in the several forms required, by silken threads; and with this machine, such was the nicety of his touch that he could easily form calculations to any amount. Indeed by the notation thus described any number is capable of being expressed, and in consequence every arithmetical operation performed.

But the palpable arithmetic invented by Dr. Moysen is much more simple than Saunderson's, while it is equally comprehensive. The inventor himself gives the following description of it.

"When I began (says Dr. M.) to study the princi-

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ples of arithmetic, which I did at a very early period of life, I soon discovered to my mortification that a person entirely deprived of light could scarcely proceed in that useful science without the aid of palpable symbols representing the ten numerical characters. Being at that time unacquainted with the writings of Sanderson, in which a palpable notation is described, I embraced the obvious, though, as I afterwards found, imperfect expedient of cutting into the form of numerical characters thin pieces of wood or metal. By arranging these on the surface of a board I could readily represent any given number, not only to the touch, but also to the eye; and by covering the board with a lamina of wax my symbols were prevented from changing their places, they adhering to the board from the slightest pressure. By this contrivance I could solve, though slowly, any problem in the science of numbers; but it soon occurred to me that my notation consisting of ten species of symbols or characters was much more complicated than was absolutely necessary, and that any given number might be distinctly expressed by three species of pegs alone. To illustrate my meaning, suppose a square piece of mahogany, a foot broad and an inch in thickness, to be intersected into twenty-four equal parts; let every two opposite divisions be joined by a groove cut in the board sufficiently deep to be felt with the finger, and let the board be perforated at each intersection with an instrument a tenth of an inch in diameter.

"The surface of the board being thus divided into 576 little squares, with a small perforation at each of their angles, let three sets of pegs or pins, be so fitted to the holes of the board, that when stuck into them they may keep their position like those of a fiddle, and require some force to turn them round. The head of each peg belonging to the first set is a right-angled triangle about one-tenth of an inch in thickness; the head of each peg belonging to the second set differs only from the former in having a small notch in its sloping side or hypotenuse; and the head of each peg belonging to the third set is a square of which the breadth should be equal to the base of the triangle of the other two. These pegs should be kept in a case consisting of three boxes or cells, each cell being allotted to a set, and the case must be placed close by the board previous to the commencement of every operation. Each set should consist of sixty or seventy pegs, (at least when employed in long calculations;) and when the work is finished they should be collected from the board, and carefully restored to their several boxes.

"Things being thus prepared, let a peg of the first set be fixed into the board, and it will acquire four different values, according to its position respecting the calculator. When its sloping side is turned towards the left, it denotes one or the first digit; when turned upwards, or from the calculator, it denotes two, or the second digit; when turned to the right it represents three; and when turned downwards, or towards the calculator, it denotes four, or the fourth digit. Five is denoted by a peg of the second set, having its sloping side or hypotenuse turned towards the left; six by the same turned upwards; seven by the same turned to the right; and eight by the same turned directly down, or towards the body of the calculator. Nine is expressed by a peg of the third set when its edges are directed to

right and left; and the same peg expresses a cypher when its edges are directed up and down. By three different pegs the relative values of the ten digits may therefore be distinctly expressed with facility; and by a sufficient number of each set the stops and result of the longest calculation may be clearly represented to the sense of feeling. It seems unnecessary to illustrate this by example; suffice it to express in our characters the present year of the Christian era, 1788: take a peg of the first set, and fix it in the board with its sloping side turned towards the left equal to one; take now a peg of the second set, and fix it in the next hole in the same groove, proceeding as usual from left to right, with its sloping side turned to the right equal to seven; next take a peg of the same set, and fix it in the next hole with its sloping side turned downwards equal to eight; lastly, take another peg of the same set, and place it in the next hole in the same position equal to eight; and the whole will express the number required.

"When it is necessary to express a vulgar fraction, I place the numerator in the groove immediately above, and the denominator in that immediately below the groove in which the integers stand; and in decimal arithmetic an empty hole in the integer groove represents the comma, or decimal point. By similar breaks I also denote pounds, shillings, and pence, &c. and by the same expedient, I separate in division the divisor and quotient from the dividend.

"This notation, which supplies me completely with coefficients and indices in algebra and fluxions, seems much superior to any of the kind hitherto made public in the west of Europe. That invented and described by Mr. Grenville having no less than ten sets of pegs, is by much too complicated for general practice; and that which we owe to the celebrated Sanderson is apt to puzzle and embarrass the calculator, as the pegs representing the numerical digits can seldom or never be in the same straight line.

But it is not only in arithmetic and geometrical pursuits that artificial methods have thus in a manner supplied the sense of sight. In the inventive and mechanical arts the Blind have made great proficiency; and a book has lately been issued from a Paris press on the topic of Blindness, which was printed at the institution for the Blind by the Blind themselves.

This work, which has been translated (but not well translated) into English, is written by Dr. Guillié, and contains an account somewhat in detail of the methods adopted at the institution for teaching reading, writing, geography, languages, mathematics, vocal and instrumental music; and also the manual labours of printing, spinning, purse-making, weaving, basket-making, &c. and the games of cards, chess, and draughts.

We shall close this article by an abridged review of the principal points in the above mentioned work.

For instruction in reading, letters are cast in relief, and experience has proved that it is not the size, but the perfection of the form of the letters which helps the Blind to distinguish them. When their fingers are insufficient, they touch the objects they wish to ascertain with the point of their tongue, and are then never mistaken.

The letters are placed in two cases, divided into divers small squares, perfectly like a printer's. Every square which is called a box, contains one sort of letter. The boxes are larger or smaller, according as the letters

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Children who are sent to the institution are exercised in recognising the letters; but they do not begin the alphabet as with those who have sight, by *a, b, c, &c.* which would be creating unnecessary difficulties. They are first taught to touch the full stop, then the comma, by making them sensible of the difference between that stop and the stop with the tail below, which makes a comma; then the semicolon, the colon, the mark of exclamation, the interrogation, and the parenthesis. Care is always taken to compare one sign with another, and to make them touch from time to time a *quadrate*, as it is called, which serves to fill up the line of a paragraph. They next proceed to the study of the letters beginning with the *O* of the capitals, and immediately after they perceive the *o* of the lower case with all the series of letters which we call simple *l, b, i, j, d, &c.* and comparing whenever that is necessary, one letter with another, in order to exercise their touch.

The letters being known singly, they are taught to distinguish the vowels and consonants, and then to form syllables, words, and at last, phrases. The tasks are then done with these characters, as those who have sight do with writing.

Of Printing by and for the Blind. The mechanism of printing in relief differs in many things from common printing: in the relief, the letter pressed from above downwards incrusts itself in the paper, by repelling it in a contrary direction. To avoid tearing, the strongest and best made paper is employed. It is steeped for several days, and must be almost reduced to a paste before it is put on the form, and is carefully covered with several thick pieces of flannel. A man draws the bar of the press towards his breast, while another drives it back violently in the same direction. A great pressure is not made immediately, which, to make use of the expression among the workmen, would *astoutish* the paper.

It is impossible to print on both sides the paper when the relief is to be preserved. When it is wished to have the letters in relief and black at the same time, a tympan is added smeared with ink; and by letting it fall gently on the sheet which is then pressed between the form and the tympan, the letters appear black.

But the Blind can also print for those who have their sight; indeed the business of common printing is one which is most suitable for the exercise of their powers.

When books are printed in relief, the sheets are spread singly on the lices to dry, as soon as they are taken from the press. The sheets are then joined together by pasting the margins only, the lines of the *verso* are made to meet with those of the *recto*; finally by stitching the leaves together, they are made into volumes, which are covered with thick pasteboard.

"The discovery (says Dr. Guilié) of printing books in relief, is one of the most important for the instruction of the Blind. It is by the assistance of these books, which have so other inconvenience than that of being bulky, that they are taught the elements of languages, and fix in their minds the beautiful passages of history and morality which they have learnt; for they know much better what they have read, than

what they have heard; and we therefore suggest as far as our means will allow, the library of the Blind with works which we think fitted for their instruction. They have already two catechisms, the office for morning and evening, French, Latin, Greek, English and Italian grammars. One would hardly believe with what rapidity they read in these books, if one did not see it at the public exercises."

Attempts at composing for the Blind in the common manner, but using a thick ink, which upon drying would preserve the relief, have hitherto been unsuccessful.

But by means of books in relief, the Blind teach young people who have sight to read, who are afterwards useful to them as teachers. They begin by teaching them the letters. These, which are cut in pasteboard and fastened on the book, are perceptible to the Blind man who can touch them, and to those who have sight, who can see them. When the letters of the alphabet are learned, the Blind man having in his hands a table of syllables in relief, similar to a copy of black that is under the eyes of the child, makes him spell, and thus the readers of the blind men have learned to read and look with rapidity in the dictionary.

Writing by the Blind. A wide thick board is employed of which the bottom is fixed. Above is a parallelogram opening, in which is a frame opening with hinges on the left side, and kept shut on the right side by two small copper bolts. This frame is furnished with several moveable rods of iron. Below its two great ascending panels, there is on each side a broad steel spring, stretching from one extremity to the other, fixed at one end by two English screws, and at the other only stopped at pleasure by a turning bolt. It is between these springs and the lower part of the sides of the frame that the paper is placed, which remains immovable under the rods. Recently an improvement has been made on this machine, by substituting instead of a wooden bottom a thick silk which receives and retains the traces of the letters from the stylus or pencil; this affords the Blind man the advantage of reading what he has written. Mr. Heilmann, a Blind man, who proposed this improvement, has also constructed a portable portfolio for the Blind, by means of which they may write, and read directly what they have written with the greatest ease.

For palpable illustrations in geographical science, maps of pasteboard are contrived with the divisions marked by iron wire. The towns and islands are indicated by nails with demi-spherical heads of different sizes nailed into the pasteboard.

The plan pursued in the Parisian institution for the study of mathematics, is like that of Dr. Mynas, an improvement on Saunders's method, by the rejection of symbols that have a mere conventional or arbitrary value. "The letters and cyphers which we make use of at present, (says Dr. G.) are in no respect different from the common ones. These cyphers are mounted on a transversal chevron, the fractions are mounted in the same manner, but the upper part of the chevrons is hollowed in a square form to receive a moveable cylinder in the form of a wedge, by means of which the numerator and denominator, and then the necessary changes. Strings that may be placed horizontally or vertically, serve to indicate the divisions of the numbers.

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"People (he states) are astonished to see our pupils go through a course of optics as well as those who see, and they admire their sagacity in speaking of dioptries and catoptries. As we do not wish to enjoy an admiration that is unmerited, we must declare that what makes the demonstration of all the phenomena of optics easy to them, is that they reduce every thing to lines. They perceive only palpable points where we see coloured prints; for they have not, nor can they have any idea of colours,"—an interesting illustration of which the following anecdote furnishes. "One of the pupils at the institution, translating at a public exercise the first strophe of the second ode of the first book of Horace, was stopped at these words, *et rubente dextera*, &c. by the examiner, who asked him the proper translation of the words *rubente dextera*: the young man translated it, *his flaming right hand*. Being pressed again to translate literally the epithet *rubente*, he gave the equivalent *red*. Being asked again what he understood by a *red arm*, he answered that he did not think, like Locke's Blind man, that the colour red was like the sound of a trumpet; nevertheless he could form no proper idea of it, but that he had at first translated *rubente*, *flaming*, because he had been told that fire is red, whence he had concluded, that heat is always accompanied by redness, which determined him to mark the anger of Jupiter by the epithet *flaming*, because when one is irritated one is hot, and when one is hot, one must be red.

For teaching the Blind music, the figures of the notes, the keys, the rests, and all the alternate signs, with some lessons that serve as examples, are engraved on broad boards of pear-tree wood. It was formerly the custom to print music in relief, but this method has been abandoned; since besides the expense of it, the learner cannot read (with his fingers) and perform at the same time. The following is the way in which the lessons are now given; a boy, whom the Blind themselves have taught to read music, being placed in the middle of the orchestra, *solfas* some measures of a division which is before his eyes, announcing beforehand for what instrument the piece is which he sings. The memory of the Blind is so faithful, that it is seldom necessary to repeat the same phrase to them more than twice. After having thus learnt successively on all the instruments an equal number of measures, the (Blind) music master puts together what has been just learnt; the boy resumes his *solfas*, and at length, when from 150 to 200 measures have been retained in a sitting of about two hours and a half, the chief of the orchestra makes them be repeated several times, in order to give the necessary shades and expressions. This piece is connected with one that was learnt the preceding day, by executing them together. Thus long pieces are learnt, and masses, choruses, symphonies, &c. are so exactly retained, that sometimes a single repetition is sufficient to bring them forward again, though frequently neglected for several years.

With respect to Guillié's account of the modes in which the different kinds of manual labour are taught, we do not find any thing sufficiently interesting in this part of the work to detain us longer, we shall therefore bring this article to a termination by abridging the interesting account given of the communication between the Blind and the deaf and dumb.

"During the time that the institutions of the Blind and of the deaf and dumb, were united in the convent

formerly of the Celestines, the pupils of the two establishments, brought together by their habitation, but separated by their infirmity, endeavoured to establish points of contact between each other, which the heads of the two houses consented to.

"When the Blind had learnt that the deaf and dumb spoke to each other in the dark, by writing on the back, they conceived that this method might succeed also with them. This new language soon became common to the two families; the deaf and dumb who found it tiresome to have written on their back what they could see perfectly well, attempted to make the blind write in the air, as they do themselves; this means, which was as long as the former, appeared more uncertain, as the Blind wrote ill in that way; they therefore preferred the characters the latter made use of; but as these characters cannot be easily transported, the dumb taught the Blind their manual alphabet, and the one by sight and the other by touch, easily found by the inspection of their fingers, the letters that are formed by their different combinations. Nevertheless this manual alphabet only exhibiting words, slackened conversation amazingly. They felt the want of a more rapid communication, and the Blind learnt the theory of the signs of the deaf and dumb; each sign thus representing a thought, the communication was complete. This study was long and tedious, because it supposes a pretty complete knowledge of grammar; but the wish to talk got the better of all these difficulties, and in a few months, the signs being perfectly well known, took place of all the other means till then employed. The exchange between them was performed in the following manner.

"When the Blind had to speak to the deaf and dumb, he made the representative signs of his ideas, and these signs more or less exactly made, transmitted to the deaf and dumb the idea of the Blind. When the deaf and dumb in his turn wished to make himself understood, he did it in two ways; he stood with his arms stretched out and motionless before the Blind person, who took hold of him a little above the wrists, and without squeezing them, followed all the motions they made; or if it happened that the signs were not understood, the Blind man put himself in the place of the deaf and dumb, who then took hold of his arms in the same manner, and moving them about as he would have done his own before a person who could see, he filled up the deficiencies of the first operation, and thus completed the series of ideas which he wished to communicate to his companion.

"But the degree of instruction of the scholars not being the same, they could not make use of the signs equally well, and supplied them by all the means which their inventive imagination could suggest. It was an extraordinary sight to behold a pantomime acted in the most profound silence by 150 children, anxious to understand each other, and not always succeeding; tired out with long and fruitless attempts, and often ending like the builders of Babel, by separating without being able to understand each other, but at the same time not without having given reciprocal proofs of bad humour, by striking as the deaf do, or screaming as do the blind."

BLINDS, in Zoology, one of the Cornish names of the *Gadus Luscus* or *Bib*.

BLIND WORDS, in Zoology, the vulgar name of the *Agabus Fragilis*.

BLIND-
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WORDS.

BLINK.
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BLISS.

BLINK, v. } To blink, is to give to the eye the
twinkling motion or action of a star;
BLINK, s. } to twinkle, to wink; to look with
BLISS, s. } the eye partially closed; to close the
BLISS, s. } eye partially; to converse, to care: and
as this is frequently done to avoid, evade, escape,
elude, shun or shrink from any sudden action upon the
eye; to blink (so Gower writes it) or blink, is consequently

To avoid, or cause to avoid, to evade, to escape, to elude, to shun, shrink or start from. See to BLANCH and to BLANCH.

Than upon him she best up both her eye
And with a blink it came in till his thought
That he sometime her face before had seen
But she was in such place he knew her coope,
Yet then her look into his munde he brought
The sweet visage, and amorous blinking
Of false Cressida, sometime his own darling.

Chaucer. The Complaint of Cressida, fol. 157.

Braynesley kyndred that blowe at the cole.

Shelton. The Crowne of Laurell.
Remembere that the foolish blink-eyed boye
Which was at Rome, thou knowest whose I was.

Gower. Hearbe.

— The eyes bleat
Do must even blind with objects reherment,
So that till they themselves do well recuse
Lesse matters they be se.

Mere. On the Swan, 3. c. 1. Stan. 32.

The amorous mynch flee to and fro
With sugred wordes that make a shew
That fancee is well please withall
And lince itselfe content.

Twickenham. The Laver obtaining his Wish, &c.
Let rigid sentience such things write,
Who by a blinking lamp consume the night.

Cotton. An Epigram.

But chief he glory'd with licentious style
To lash the great, and monarchs to revile;
His figure such as might his soul proclaim;
One eye was blinking, and one leg was lame.

Pope. Dind, book ii. v. 261.

This floor let not the vulgar tread,
Who worship only what they dread.
Nor bigots who but one way see
Through blinks of authority.

Green. The Grotto.

On being pressed by her friends, sometime after the restoration, to go to court, "By no means," said she, [the Countess of Pembroke] "unless I may be allowed to wear blinks."

Gilpin. Tour to the Lakes, ii. 154.

BLINKER, a name given to the *Mentia fontana*, or Water Chickweed.

BLISS,

BLISSFULL,

BLISSFULLY,

BLISSFULLNESS,

BLISSLESS,

BLISSLESSNESS,

BLISSLY,

BLISSLY.

Just such a man schide in helle be, he carde in hys joye,
He coude forþ Gode's grace out of helle he bringe,
And to ys body ys joyed, & gat hym Christendom,
Was wish, as be worþt was, to blow of broen he com.

R. Gloucester, p. 71.

perþ tijing brouht biðle þu Scottis wit of þis
þis Scottis ow his side said þerof joy and þis.

R. Bruner, p. 297.

Thise glade folk to dinner bes yette,

In joy and merrit at mete I let hem dwell,

A thousand fold wel more than I can tell.

Chaucer. The Man of Lawes Tale, v. 553R.

BLISS
—
BLIST.

And sithen we know well, that many a maner hath sought the
fruit of blisfulnesse, not only with suffering of death, but eke
with suffering of paynes and torments: how might then this
present life make men blisful, and that thilke selfe life ended,
it so maketh folk no wretches.

Chaucer. Sermon, book ii. fol. 21B.

Alle these thingis I schewide to ghout, for so it behoueth mee
treasynge to reuerce syke men, and to have mynde of the word
of the Lord Ihesu, for he seide, it is more blisful to gyve than to
reueyue.

Wiclif. Treas of Sparite.

But the death of christians is nothing else but a sleep, from
the whiche they shall awake agayne at the coming of Christ,
to lyve a great deale more blisfully.

Edm. Thaumaturgus, ch. iv.

For it ought not to seme vnto you a grate or grievous matter,
though by afflictions and griefs that are but shorte and shall
soone have an ende, you come to the blisfulnesse that never shall
decaye.

Id. 1. Epist. Prior, ch. i.

Of him she thinks she cannot think too much;

This honey tasted still is ever sweet;

The pleasure of her ravish'd thought is such,

As almost here she with her bliss doth meet.

Darwin. The Immortality of the Soul, Raman ii. sec. 13.

If Love's sweet music, and his blisful cheer,

Ever touch'd your heart, or mollify'd your ear;

Tendres the case, and evermore the end

Shall praise your conscience both at board and bed.

Drayton. The Owl.

— It had been

A fault of judgment in me, and a dolence

In my affections, not to weigh and thank

My better stars, that offer'd me the grace

Of so much blisfulnesse.

Ford. The Broken Heart, act i. sc. 3.

For if he be so, that the heavens have at all time a measure of
their wrathful harmes, surely so many have come to my blisful
lot, that the rest of the world hath too small a portion, to make
with cause so wilful a lamentation.

Sidney. Arcadia, book iii.

The sacrecnesse of mothers bloods should have profited
Christes mother nothinge at al, onense she had more blisfully
carried Christe in her harte, then in her bodie.

Jewel. A Reple to M. Harding, l. 690.

Sometimes, with Scipio, she [Science] collects her sail,
And seeks the blisful shore of rural ease.

Thomas. Liberty, part v.

Being absolute master of his own actions, only both lawgiver
and counsellor to himself, all-sufficient, and incapable of ad-
mitting any accession to his perfect blisfulnesse.

Barnes. Sermon vii.

'Twas then two swains the Doric reed essay'd

To sing the praises of a peevish maid.

On Arden's blisful plain her seat she chose,

And hence her rural name Ardena rose.

Jago. Ardena.

BLIST. } What Spencer meant by this word is
BLISTING, } not evident. Certainly not wounded, from
Cotgrave's blisler, to wound, for not a wound was given.
Perhaps from the A. S. *blisan*, *exultare*, to leap about.
He leapt, jump about with his club.

Blis, in Shelton, or as it is written in the reprint,
blast, may be from the above named blisler.

The villain, leaping him into his mate

To be captiv'd, and handled as he list.

Himselfe address'd into this new debate,

And with his club him all about so blast,

That he which way to turne him scarcely wit:

At last, the caystles after long discourse,

When all his strokes he saw avoided quite, &c.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book vi. can. 8.

They gave me no leisure, answered Sazcho, to look to them
so sturly, for scarce had I laid hand on my truncheon, when
they blast my shoulders with their pines, in such sort as they
wholly deprived me of my sight, and the force of my feet to-
gether.

Shelton. Don Quixote, book iii. ch. i.

BLISTER. **BLISTER.** v. } Dutch, *bluyster*; Swe. *bläsa*. Per-
BLITHE. **BLITHE.** } *blästa*, a. } blows no more than *blast*, *flatus*,
 from *blæstan*, to blow, to puff up; as a pustule or
 blain.

Mine opinion is y^e he that will set full among so manie thornes,
 nor prick him among so manie thornes, nor blister him among
 so manie nettles, let him heare what I will saie, and do as he
 shall see.

Golden Booke, K. h. 11. l.

In hote destillations the head is very hot in fallage, the reume
 bring in the mouth is thyn and warme, the tongue or chekes
 within blistered.

Sir Thomas Elyot, p. 61.

Above all, it would be looked well oona, that they [prosser] be
 neat and bright, so as they shine againe; that no part of them
 be seene either scorched dew with the sunne, or circotised (as it
 were) and blistered.

Holland. Plinie, v. l. fol. 517.

At length, being arrived at Glasgow, the *Mistres* brake out, of
 a blewish colour, so the physicians presently knew the disease to
 come by poyson; he [the King] was brought so low that nothing
 but death was expected; yet the strength of his youth at
 last did surmount the poison.

Know. History of Reformation, fol. 438.

Blistering, *copping*, *bleeding* are seldom of use but to the idle
 and intemperate; as all those inward applications which are so
 much to practice among us, are for the most part nothing else
 but expedients to make luxury consistent with health.

Spectator, No. exv.

I'd not complain tho' Phoenix burnt the lands,
 And painful blisters swell'd my tender hands.

Granger. Tibullus, Elegy 3. book 11.

BLITHE. } See **BLISS**. *Be-lithe*, *be-lithesome*,
BLITHELY. } *be-lissom*, or *blithe*, *blithesome*, *blissom*.
BLITHENESS. } Gentle, easy, pliant, flexible, easy to
BLITHENESS. } move or to be moved. And therefore,
 active, sprightly, lively; having activity, liveliness,
 spriteliness, cheerfulness, gaiety.

For habbe you power y-now, you mygt be glad & blithe.

Ac oying ich wolde blithe be, yat you me woldest tyfe.

R. Gloucester, p. 114.

William ye Scotlie kyng therfor was fulle blithe.

R. Branne, p. 132.

He bare him so stille his harons, but noþer yong no old,
 Wold ruto him howe, as blithe of him holde.

Id. p. 2.

Therfor comen clerk to comforte hure sones

And bedes here be blithe. *Piers Plouman*, p. 39.

The sothe is this, the cutte felle on the knight,

Of which ful blithe and glad was every wight.

Chaucer. The Prologue, v. 860.

I shal right blithe, so God me saue

Holly with all the witte I have

Here you as well as I can.

Id. The Dreame, fol. 242.

O soppe of sorowe souken into care

O caddis Cresside ow & curremore

Gon is thy joy and al thy myght in earth.

Of all blithenes now art thou blake and bare.

Id. The Complaint of Cresside, fol. 196.

And after, when it was recorded

From the daughter, howe it stodee,

The yefte of all this worldes good

Ne shuld have made hir halfe so blithe.

Gower. Conf. Am. book viii. fol. 179.

Would'st see *blithe* looks, fresh cheeks, beguile
 Age, would'st see December smile?

Crashaw. In Praise of Lemus.

Droope not for that (man) but upbraid thy browes,

And blithe, so, fold ev'ry up in plaids

For, fro' thy makings, milke and milky flowers,

To feed the songster-swains with art's sweet-moists.

Brown. An Ecloga.

Short are our joys, and neighbouring griefs disturb

Our pleasant hours: inclement winter dwells

Continuous; forth with frosty blasts deface

The blithesome year. *Philips. Cider*, book 11.

Then follows blithe, equipt with fork and rake,

In light array, the train of nymphs and swains.

Dudley. Agriculture, can. 3.

Now the hill—the hedge—is green,

Now the Warbler's throat's in tune!

Blithesome is the veriest scurr,

Brightest'd by the beams of noon.

Cunningham. Nona.

BLITUM, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Mo-*
naandia, order *Digynia*. Generic character: calyx

trifid; petals none; seed one, covered with the fleshy

calyx. This genus belonging to the natural order *Atriplicia*,
 contains two species, viz. *B. capitatum* or Berry-headed

Strawberry-Blite, a native of Austria, and *B. virginicum*,
 or Sleeder-branched Strawberry-Blite, native of France and

Spain. *Curtis. Magazine*, 276.

BLAVE. See **BLAZE**.

BLOAT, p.

BLOAT, adj. } Perhaps *Mowed*, *blow*, *bloat*; l. e.

BLOATERNESS. } blown, swelled, puffed out

Let the blist king tempt you again to bed.

Shakespeare. Hamlet, act iii. sc. 4.

Grooms. Who you? you a masquer? why you mistake like so

many blist-herrings newly taken out of the chimney!

Ben Jonson. The Masque of Anger.

Then damn not, but indulge his rude essays,

Encourage him, and blist him up with praise,

That he may get more bulk before he dies.

Dryden. Prologue to Cato.

Past by her side a listless maiden gin'd,

With aching head, and squamish heart-burnings;

Pale, blist, cold, she seem'd to hate mankind;

Yet lov'd in secret, all forbidden things.

Thomson. Castle of Indolence, can. 1.

Smit by the rupture beaming eye,

Deep flushing through the midnight of their mind,

The sable bands combin'd,

Where fear's black banner blist the troubled sky,

Appell'd retire. *Brattle. Ode to Hope*.

Ah! how, my friend, has foul gorg'd luxury,

And blist slumber on the slothful down,

From the dull world all manly virtue thrown,

And slav'd the age to custom's tyrannic.

Mickle. A Sonnet.

BLOBBER-LIPPED, see **BLUR**. Having *blotted*;
 swelled lips. P. Plouman writes *baber-lipped*. See

BUTTLE.

They make a wit of their inept friend;

His *blotter-lips* and *buttle-brows* commend.

Dryden. Journal, Satire 3

A *blotter-lipped* shell, seemeth to be a kind of mussel.

Gray.

BLITHE.

BLOB-

BER-

LIPPED.

BLOCK.

BLOCK.

BLOCK, v.

BLOCK, n.

BLOCKHOUSE,

BLOCKADE, v.

BLOCKADE, n.

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From the A. S. *lycom, belycan* ;
Datch, *belycken, claudere, couclure*,
occludere, *occludere* ; to shut,
to close, to shut up, to lock.
Sommer.

A block of wood, or other substance ; i. e. a piece suited, fitted, to shut up, or close up, to include or exclude, to abstract.

A block, as well as blockhead is applied (met.) to any one who has the lumpishness, the heaviness, the dulness of a block ; whose faculties seem blocked up ; whose understanding is inaccessible.

To blockade : Fr. *bloquer*. To shut in, or block up, to besiege, bent or compass on all sides. Cotgrave.

This kynge the wether gan beholde,
And wist well, that moten holde
His roons enclough the marcha right,
And made upon the darke night,
Of great shydes and of blockes,
Great firs alyn the great rottes,
To shew upon the hillis high
So that the fete of Grece it sigh.

Gower. Conf. Am. book ii. fol. 53.

His brother the erle, when he should laye downe his had on the blocke to suffer, said to Syr Jhon Coeyere and Clappan, masters, let me dye for I am olde, but save my brother, which is younger, lusty and hardye, mete and spte to acorn the greivest prynces of Christend.

Hall. King Edward IV. fol. 263.

And except he defende them by his sumpels, in sayne gather they treasure, in mayne byle they blockours and munitions.

Jaye. The Expugnacion of David, ch. v.

I would not call it belyde, if one would translate *presbyterus* a blocke: but I would say he were a blockhead. And as very a blockhead were he, that would translate *presbyterus* an abler, instead of a priest, for that this English worde elder, signifieth no more a priest, then this Greke worde *presbyterus* signifieth an elder rick.

Sir Thomas More. Works, fol. 425.

It shall suffice that the conventions passed in verse long sithens, between M. Churchyard and Camel, were by a blockheaded reader construed to be indeede a quarrel between two neighbours, of whom one having a camel in keeping, and the other having the charge of the churchyard, it was supposed they had grown to debate, because the camel came into the churchyard.

Gaucygn. To the Youth of England.

I thincke not much that thinges are carps
comde from a blockyske pate,
But that those thinges are counted worse
which were commende of late.

Draut's Harne, G. 3. 1.

After the making thereof they had in a greedie endeavour burnt it quite, but that by blocking up the avenues they were driven backe, and so they made havoc of whatsoever could be found without the towne.

Holland. Ammianus, fol. 66.

And beginning from the city of Concruss unto the haven of Lerchaun, they shot and blocked up all the ways from the one sea to the other, with mighty great pieces of timber across, and with a marvelous deep ditch.

North. Plutarch, fol. 926.

How many princes of the blood (whereof some of them for age could hardly crawl towards the block,) with a world of others of all degrees (of whom our common chronicles have kept the account) did he [Henry VIII.] execute.

Raleigh. History of the World, Preface, viii.

On the side of which port, trending in forme of an halfe moone, stand six block-houses or small forts, wherein is some very good artillery, and the forts are kept with about an hundred Janissaries.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. M. John Eldred, v. ii. 268.

VOL. XVIII.

BLOCK.

While passers by

Slightly look in your lovely face, where I
See beauteous heaven, whilst silly blockheads, they,
Like laden mares, plod upon their way,
And wonder not.

Drayton. Elegies, Of his Lady's not coming to London.

Like as temperance, a modesty between the blockish stupidity of the mind moved with too much of pleasure, and an unbridled looseness whereby it is abandoned to all sensuality.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 57.

But what man can be so blockishly ignorant ever to expect piece or honour from a fortune king, having no other argument or persuasion than his owne dialogetic.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Sir Richard Grenvil.

Only feare, which being no less void of audacity and boldness, than of reason ; carrieth with it a certain blockishness or stupidity, destitute of action.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 214.

Am I twice said-blind ? twice so near the blessing I would arrive at ? and block-ids never know it ?

Brown and Fletcher. The Pilgrim, act iv. sc. 1.

Last night arriv'd a mail from Lisbon, which gives a very pleasing account of the posture of affairs in that part of the world, the enemy having been necessitated wholly to abandon the blockade of Olivenza.

Taiter, No. 51.

Some fool, some mere elder brother, or some blockheadly hero, Jove, I beseech thee, send her.

Dryden. Amphitryon, sc. ii.

With moles the opening flood he would restrain,
Would block the port, and intercept the main.

Rome. Lucan's Pharsalia, book ii.

He [Aristotle] tells us, that a statue lies hid in a block of marble, and that the art of the statuary only clears away the superfluous matter, and removes the rubbish. The figure is in the stone, the sculptor only finds it. What sculpture is to a block of marble, education is to an human soul.

Spectator, No. cxx.

Prompt at the call, around the golden roll
Brand hair, and hounds, and caps, a sable shoal :
Thick and more thick the black blockade extends,
A hundred head of Aristotle's friends.

Pope. The Dunciad, book iv.

A block-head, with melodious voice,
In boarding-schools may have his choice ;
And oft the dancing master's art
Climbs from the toe to touch the heart.

Swift. Cadmus and Famaus.

To these stones are added large blocks, which, when the whole shall be completed, will give it the appearance of an island just emerged from the ocean.

Melmoth. Flying Letter 31. book vi.

He [Col. Briggs] muttered a party, which he thought sufficient, and went himself on the enterprise. How it was conducted, my authority does not inform us—whether he got together the navigation of the lake, and blockaded the place by sea ; or whether, he landed, and carried on his approaches in form.

Gilpin. Tour to the Lakes, l. 148.

One would think from the speech of this learned lord Mayor, that the Parisiens, for this twelvemonth past, had been suffering the straits of some dreadful blockade.

Burke. On the Revolution in France.

And yet, whatever the reader may think of himself, it is at least too one but he is a greater blockhead than the most abiding dunder he affects to despise.

Goldsmith. Enquiry into present state of Polite Learning, ch. x.

He may truly be said to have been alive, when animated by Addison and Steele, though now reduced to that state of blockheadism, which is so conspicuous in his master.

Smart. Notes to the Hilled.

Blocks, in Mechanics and Naval Architecture, are pieces of wood in which sheaves or pulleys are placed,

BLOCKS. for the purpose of forming tackle, purchases, &c. in various operations in naval tactics and architectural constructions. The actual mechanical power of Blocks differs in no respect from that which we have described in our treatise on mechanics, under the term *Pulleys*, but the forms and combinations, as well as the mode of attaching and applying this highly convenient apparatus, are much more various under the present designation, than under the more scientific term of "Systems of Pulleys." The most usual denomination of Blocks are the single, double, treble, and fourfold Blocks; the number of sheaves being accordingly one, two, three, or four, but in some instances the number of sheaves in a Block are much more considerable. The double, treble, and fourfold Blocks are shown in figures 1, 2, and 3, plate XIII.

Besides this obvious distinction of Blocks, as depending upon the number of sheaves, we have also a variety of denominations depending on their shape, purpose, and mode of application: as the *Bee Block*, *Cheek Block*, *Long Tackle Block*, *Main Sheet Block*, *Nine-pin Block*, *Monkey Block*, &c. of which, however, we can only undertake to describe a few of those in most common use.

Ships Blocks in general consist of the sheaves or pulleys, (commonly of lignum vite) with a groove on their edges to receive the rope; but for architectural purposes, the pulley is very frequently of brass, and the cheeks of iron. The best sheaves of the former kind have in their centre what is called a brass hush; that is to say a piece of brass, in somewhat of a triangular form, drilled through in its centre, to receive the pin upon which the sheave revolves, and which latter is sometimes of lignum vite, but more commonly of iron. The pin is supported by passing through the sides or cheeks of the Block, which latter is commonly made of elm, oak, or other tough wood, with a hole mortised through it to receive the sheave, and to cause it to revolve steadily but freely on its axis, and at the same time to prevent the rope from getting out of the groove in the edge of the former.

When the Block contains two or more sheaves there is the same number of mortises formed, and when the sheaves work abreast they all run on the same pin or axis; but sometimes the sheaves are placed one above another, when they have, of course, separate pins.

The strap of a Block is sometimes a band of rope, at others, of iron; and in the former case it terminates in an eye of simple rope, or in an eye of rope enclosing an iron ring or thimble, made hollow on the outside something like the groove on the sheave, and at the other end it terminates in an iron hook, by means of which different Blocks are connected with each other. By this means one of the Blocks of a tackle is attached to the object to be moved, while the other is fixed to some permanent support. The former, in this case, is called the *running Block*, and the latter the *standing Block*. The usual proportions for single, double, treble, &c. Blocks, may be stated as follows: the length is eight times the breadth of the sheave hole, which is one-sixteenth of an inch more than the thickness of the sheave, and this is one-tenth more than the diameter of the rope for which it is intended, and the diameter of the sheave is five times the thickness of the former. So that if the diameter of the rope be an inch, the diameter of the sheave will be 5 inches, the breadth of the sheave $1\frac{1}{16}$ inch, and the

breadth of the sheave hole about $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch, and the length of the Block $9\frac{1}{2}$ or more exactly 9; inches. The breadth of the Block is six times the thickness of the sheave; and therefore for an inch rope its breadth is about $6\frac{1}{4}$ inches: these dimensions are not, however, rigorously observed, for sometimes the length of the Block is about double its thickness. Much more uniformity is however observed in the dimensions of Blocks since they have been made by machinery than formerly; but they of course still have different dimensions, according to the purposes for which they are intended.

In our treatise on the "Application of Machinery to the Arts, &c." a particular description is entered into of the admirable machine invented by Mr. Brunel, for the formation of Blocks; but as this is, we believe, the only engine of the kind in this country, it will be expected that we give some idea of the more common, but less scientific method of formation. The shells being reduced to their proper dimensions, the corners or angles are first cut off; and the workman then gauges out the size of the sheave hole, according to the rule we have given above, viz. $\frac{1}{4}$ th broader than the sheave, and once the thickness longer than the diameter, for a single sheave Block. In Blocks of two sheaves the partition preserved in the middle is $\frac{1}{4}$ th less than the sheave hole; each sheave hole is gauged on the opposite sides, and in the same manner for Blocks with a greater number of sheaves. The Blocks are then jammed up edgewise with wedges in a clavis or frame, and the sheave holes are made as follows: the length and breadth are first gauged out, and holes are bored half way through the Block along this part with an auger the size of the sheave hole, and the same being done on the opposite side the holes meet. Blocks from ten inches and upwards have one hole bored at each end, and cut through with a chisel, and the wood is sawed out with a rib saw. All Blocks have the sheave holes cleared out by chisels, and by burrs at the corners; those which have iron straps, have the strap fitted on before the wood is cut out in the middle; the hole for the pin is bored through the middle of the Block, and is one-tenth less than the diameter of the pin. The outside and edges of the shell are next rounded off by the stock shave, and neatly finished by the spoke shave. In the navy, these Blocks are left thick upon the edges of the cheeks, but in merchant vessels the edges are thinned off to a small square, and in part rounded.

The scores, which are the grooves to receive the strap, are gauged out along the outside of the cheeks, and tapered in depth from nothing at the pin to half the thickness of the strap at the ends of the Block, for a single score, and the same on each side of the pin for double scores, when the Block is to have double straps; and these are again gauged down across the breast of the Block to half the size of the strap, to allow for the *sering*. After the score is cut the sheaves are fitted, and a hale for the pin is bored through the centre of them, by a bit fixed in the mandrel of a turning lathe, or with a stock and bit, and opened out with an auger one-sixteenth larger than the pin, that it may easily turn. They are then put in a lathe and turned smooth, and the outer circumference hollowed one-third of its thickness, that the rope may embrace it closely. The diameter of the pin is equal to the thickness of the sheave; it is turned

BLOCKS. In a lathe, except its head, which is left octagonal to prevent its turning in the Block; and the pin is driven through the holes in the Block and sheaves. After the sheaves are fitted, the inside of the sheave hole, at one end of the Block, is gauged hollow to admit the rope and correspond with the sheaves, and a small oost chamfer is taken off the edges.

The variety of forms, names, and purposes, for Blocks on shipboard, renders it impossible for us to enter upon a general description of them in this article; the following however, with the corresponding figures, will serve to illustrate most of those in common use.

Bea Block is one made of elm, in length seven-ninths of the bea, in depth two inches for every foot of length, and in thickness seven-eighths of the breadth. A Block of this kind is trimmed square, chamfered on the outside edges, and fitted with a sheave in one end, and in the other a hole is cut to be fitted with a sheave, in case the other should fail.

Chock Blocks are half shells bolted against the mast heads. The chief bolt serves for the pin of the sheave. They receive the halyards and stays of their respective masts.

Clue Garnet Blocks are single sheaves suspended from the yards by a strap with two eyes; a lashing surrounds the yards and passes through the eyes, so as to suspend the Block beneath the yard; these Blocks receive the clue garnets or ropes, which are used to haul up the clues of the sail; this is applied to the main and fore yard.

Clue Line Blocks are for the same purpose as the preceding, but applied to the top sail, top gallant and sprit sails. Mr. Brunel, to whom we have alluded above, has made a great improvement in this description of Block. The old clue line and clue garnet Blocks were single sheave Blocks, strapped with two eyes; a knot was made at the end of the clue line or garnet, just at the place where it was attached to the clue of the sail, to prevent the corner being drawn into the block. This however was not effective, and frequent inconveniences arose by the rope having a tendency to get entangled with the sail, and the latter to be drawn over the sheave. This is avoided in the new Block; in this (see fig. 4.) the two holes *a* *o*, are where the rope goes in and out again; the sheave is placed in the centre of the Blocks, so as to be wholly enclosed except a mortise at *b*, where the sheave is put in. The strap surrounds the lower part of the Block, and then both ends pass through a hole in the upper part above *c*, crossing each other. They are then formed into an eye, by which the Block is suspended from the yard. In this way no accident can happen, because the garnet or line is so enclosed in the Block that it cannot be deranged without great violence, and the sail can by no means be drawn into the Block.

D Blocks are lumps of oak in the form of the letter D, from twelve to sixteen inches long, and eight or ten inches wide. They are bolted into the ship's side in the channels to receive the lifts.

Deep Sea Line Blocks are the same as the wooden snatch Blocks, (which see below) but smaller, being generally not more than from nine to eleven inches in length.

Long Tackle Blocks are two sheaves placed one above another in the same shell, (see fig. 5.) The lower sheave is only two-thirds the size of the other;

it is used in combination with a single Block to form the long tackle for loading, or for any other purpose. In the Navy, and in the East India service, the long tackle Block is used as yard tackle. The rope is reeved through it, as through a common double Block, but it is preferred to the latter where it is convenient, because the strap being in the centre of the resistance, it hangs more steadily than when the sheaves are all on one pin.

Main Sheet Block is used for the sheet tackle of the main sail booms of small vessels. The pin projects from each side of the Block, and the fall or rope of the tackle is belayed or twisted round this pin to stop it. This Block is either single or double, and has a hole through the end to receive the strap.

Monkey Blocks are sometimes used on the lower yards of small merchant vessels, to lead down upon the deck the running rigging belonging to the sails. The shells are made of ash or elm. Some are only single Blocks attached by a strap and iron swivel to iron straps, which embrace and are nailed to the yard, the Block turning to lead the small running ropes in any direction; others are nearly octagonal, with a roller working in the middle, and a wooden saddle beneath to fit and nail to the yard.

Nine-pin Blocks are used to lead the running ropes in a horizontal direction. The shells, which are made of elm or ash, resemble the form of a nine-pin, except being flattened on the sides. Their lengths are generally regulated by the place to which they are fixed, and this is generally under the cross piece of the fore-castle, and quarter deck bits. The breadth of the Block, sheave, &c. is governed by the rope, and tapers at the ends to three-eighths the breadth in the middle; the pin projecting at each end serving as a vertical axis, is two-thirds the size of the end; the thickness is five-eighths of the breadth; these Blocks, in the common manufactory, are turned in a lathe and afterwards flattened with a spoke shave.

Rack Blocks are a range of small single Blocks, made from one solid, by the same proportions as single Blocks, with ends in the form of a dove tail. These however are seldom used.

Sheet Blocks are two single Blocks cut in a solid piece transversely to each other, they serve for the falls of the bunt lines, but like the above they are not very frequently employed.

Shoulder Blocks are large single Blocks, left nearly square at the upper end, and cut sloping in the direction of the sheaves. These are used on the lower yard, to lead in the top sail sheets, and on the top sail yards, to lead in the top gallant sheets; by means of the shoulder they are kept upright, and thus prevent the sheets from jamming between the Block and the yard; they are also used at the outer end of the boomkins, to lead in the fore tackle. See fig. 6.

Sister Blocks are similar to two single Blocks, and are formed out of a solid piece about twenty inches long one above the other; between the Blocks is a scoring for a middle seizing; a round head is turned at each end and hollowed underneath to contain the end seizings; along the sides, through which the pin is driven, is a groove or scoring, large enough to receive part of the top mast shrouds, in which it is seized. These Blocks receive the lifts and reef tackle pendants of the top sail yards.

Snatch Block is a single sheave, with a notch cut

BLOCKS. through one of the cheeks of the shell, to admit the rope or fall to be lifted in and out without putting its end through first. The strap here does not surround the Block, but is passed through a hole bored in the divided end. (See fig. 7.) The rope in the figure is represented with two tails, which may be made up for a hook, a thimble, or eye, according to the situation in which it is to be employed, which is generally for the main or fore sheet Blocks in square rigged vessels. These Blocks when complete are iron bound, and terminated at the notched end, with a swivel-hook, or an eye-holt, large enough to receive several turns of lashing, by which the Block is attached to its fixed support. (See fig. 8.) That part of the strap over the notch in the side lifts up with a hinge, and is confined down, after the rope is introduced, by a small pin put across, through the end of the axis of the sheave, which projects up from the Block sufficiently to pass through an eye made in the hinge part of the strap. The strap on the other part of the Block is let into the latter, and confined by the pin and by nails. These Blocks are used for heavy purchases, where a warp or hawser is brought to the capstan, and are available for any rope in the Navy.

Spring Block is a new but rather whimsical contrivance, intended to give play to the sails, and to facilitate the sailing of a vessel by acting as a spring upon the rigging. It is not different from a common Block, except being furnished with a strong spiral spring, which is attached at one end to the Block, and at the other to the part to which the Block itself would otherwise have been fixed. It has never, we believe, been applied in actual service, nor do we think it is likely to be, and therefore any further detail seems useless.

Strap bound Blocks are single Blocks with a shoulder left on each side at the upper part, to admit the strap, a little above the pin. These Blocks are used at the clue of the square sails for the clue garnets or clue lines, and under the yards; the shoulder preserves the strap from being chafed.

Thick and thin, or quarter Block is a double Block, with one sheave thicker than the other, and is used to lend down the top sail sheets and clue lines.

Viol or Fiddle Block is one with a single sheave; the length is ten times the thickness of the sheave hole, which is three-eighths more than the thickness of the sheave, the thickness of the sheave is one-tenth more than the diameter of the viol; and the diameter of the sheave is ten times the thickness. The breadth of the Block should be eight times the thickness of the sheave, and the thickness two-sevenths of the length. This Block is double scored; the sheave is coated with brass, and the pin is iron, nearly as thick as the sheave. It is used in heaving up the anchor. The viol passes round the gear capstan, through the Block, which is lashed to the main mast, and the cable is fastened in a temporary manner to the viol in several places. It is seldom used except in the largest ships in the Royal Navy.

We have thus endeavoured to give a sketch of all Blocks in most common use, but many are necessarily omitted; the number of different sorts, and the different dimensions of those of the same sort, being so great as to bid defiance to enumeration. It appears that there are not less than 300 Blocks of different sorts and sizes constantly making at the Block machi-

nery mills at Portsmouth, and many sorts are notwithstanding put completely out of service in the Navy, which are still used in the merchant service.

The following are the names of the Blocks lashed to a ship's principal yards: to the *Lower Yards*, the *Jeer Block*, *Bunt Line Blocks*, *Leech Line Blocks*, *Lift and Top Sail Sheet Blocks* strapped together; *Quarter and Slab Line Blocks* strapped together; *Clue Line*, *Tricing and Preventer Brace Blocks*, *Pendant and Stud-ding Sail Holyard Blocks*.

To the *Top Sail Yards*, *Bunt Line* and *Tye Blocks* strapped together; *Top Gallant Sheet and Lift Block* strapped together; *Jewel Block*, *Brace Pendant Blocks*, *Clue Line Blocks*, and *Block* to lead down the top gallant sheets.

To the *Top Gallant Yards*, *Jewel*, *Clue Line* and *Brace Pendant Blocks*.

To the *Mizen Yard*, *Jeer Block*, *Derrick Block*, *Single Holyard Block*, *Throat Brace*, *Middle Brace*, and *Coak Brace Blocks*.

To the *Cross Jack Yards*, *Quarter Blocks*, *Jeer Blocks*, and *Lift and Top Sail Sheets Blocks* strapped together.

To the *Bowsprit*, the *Bee Block* bolted to the bowsprit, at the outer end under the bees; *Fore Bow Line Blocks*, lashed on each side to the fore stay collar; *Fore Top Sail Bow Line Blocks*, lashed to an eye-bolt in bowsprit cap.

Besides which we have the *Fish Block*, *Girt Line Block*, *Cat Block*, &c. &c.

Block House, in *Military* affairs, is a kind of wooden fort or battery, sometimes moveable on rollers, sometimes it is erected on a vessel, and at others fixed. In the former cases it is transferred to any place where a temporary defence may be necessary, and in the latter it is of course attached to the spot it is intended to defend; the defence however can only be attempted against musketry, unless when (as is sometimes the case) the term *Block House* is bestowed upon a permanent brick or stone fort competent to resist even the force of a cannon shot. It is then generally built on a bridge, or on the brink of a precipice or river, serving not merely for its defence but for the command of the pass or ford. A *Block House* of this kind formerly stood on the bridge of Dresden, but it has been now long demolished. The term *Block House* however more commonly implies a wooden building of the kind to which we have first alluded. In our plate (XIII 3.) figure 1 and 9, we have given a plan and elevation of a *Block House*, constructed by Major Gordon, of the Royal Artillery, in one of our possessions in America, during the late contest with that country. It is formed of timber felled for the purpose, and squared where that operation was necessary; it is however notwithstanding very strong, and bids defiance to any attack except where cannon are employed, in the power of which it must of course soon yield. The upper floor projects (as is shown in the elevation) beyond the walls of the lower story, and in this projecting part are holes in the floor, which may be opened in case the enemy has approached the walls; and through which much execution may be done upon the troops below, who may be attempting to force their entrance. The windows, in case of attack, are closed by proper shutters, and rendered as strong and capable of resistance as the walls themselves. In this circumstance the loop holes,

BLOCKS.

BLOCK.
—
BLOIS.

shown at *III*, &c. are those through which the troops direct their muskets, and fire upon the enemy, while they are themselves perfectly secure from the effect of any musketry fire. In this Block House the officers have their apartments all above, or on the second floor, but the kitchen appropriated to their use is below, and is marked *g* in the plan; *f* is a centre stack of chimneys, into which opens the fireplace; in each of the principal barrack rooms, *b b*; *a a a*, &c. are the soldiers' sleeping berths. The length of the building, on each side, is thirty-six feet; and the height, from the ground to the bottom of the roof, is twenty feet. Our representation is from a model of the original construction preserved in the Royal Military Repository at Woolwich.

Block Books, or Books of Images, certain books printed on wooden *Blocks*, in the early part of the fifteenth century. The manufacturers of playing cards, which were first invented and printed in the fourteenth century, had in the following century begun to engrave on wood the *images* or figures of the saints, to which they afterwards added some verses or sentences analogous to the subject. As the art of engraving proceeded, its professors at length composed historical subjects, chiefly, if not entirely, taken from the Scriptures, with a text or explanation engraved on the same *Blocks*. These form what are by Bibliographers termed *Block Books* or *Books of Images*, which are justly regarded as the first rude attempts at printing; the earliest specimen bears the date of 1423; it is

a very curious wood-cut of St. Christopher. These curious Xylographic works are described at considerable length by the different Bibliographers, and historians of the art of printing; who are not agreed concerning their number, some fixing it at seven, while Baron Heineken, (who has treated most fully on this subject) has described ten. He divides them into two classes, 1. *Books of Images without any text accompanying them*, but in which words and sentences are interspersed either at the top, bottom, or middle of the plate or page, or in scrolls proceeding from the mouths of the figures introduced; and 2. *Books of Images accompanied with text*, which have words, &c. interspersed in the same manner as in the preceding class, but with the addition of some plates of explanatory matter. See descriptions of these curious specimens of early art in Dibdin's *Bibliotheca Spenceriana*, vol. I. p. 4 to 53; Horne's *Introduction to the Study of Bibliography*, vol. II. appendix, p. 9 to 14; and Heineken's *Idée Générale d'une Collection complète d'Estampes*, &c. Leipsic, 1771, 8vo.

Block Island, an island situated near the coast of Connecticut, in North America, and included in the state of Rhode Island. It occupies part of the 42d degree of latitude, and is about seven miles long and four broad. It is nearly ten miles south-west of Point Judith, and constitutes the township of New Shoreham. The inhabitants are about 700, and derive their principal support from the fisheries. Block Island is also noted for its cattle, sheep, butter and cheese.

BLOCK.
—
BLONKET.

BLOCKSBERG, or **BOCKSBERG**, and not unfrequently called the **Brocken**, (*Mont Bructerus*), a mountain in the southern part of the kingdom of Hanover, distinguished as the highest point of the rugged district of Harz. It rises about 3600 feet above the level of the sea, and its summit presents a view of nearly 8000 square miles. This summit too, is noted for presenting one of the most singular curiosities to be seen in that part of the country. "Tradition, founded no doubt on the religious ceremonies of the Pagan Germans performed here in ancient times, makes this mountain the resort of all the witches of the north; and the spectre of Brocken, though a phenomenon perfectly natural, is calculated to strike the ignorant peasant with terror, and even to excite surprise in the philosopher. It is seen either in the morning or the evening, when the spectator at the top of the mountain happens to be placed in a right line between the sea and a cloud hovering in the atmosphere at a small distance, and is merely the image of the spectator reflected from the cloud, as from a mirror, but in a magnified and distorted shape."

BLOEDIT, is *Minerology*, a fibrous substance recently analysed by John, and found to consist of sulphate of magnesia, and of soda and water.

BLOIS, an ancient city of France, in the former Orleanois, and the district of Blainois, but now the chief town in the département of the Loire and Cher. It stands on an eminence near the right bank of the Loire, in one of the most agreeable districts of France.

The acclivity slopes to the river, which is here crossed by an elegant stone bridge. The town has been much improved by the Dukes of Orleans, but many of its streets are still narrow, and the houses low. There are several fountains in the town, which are supplied with water by an aqueduct cut through the rock, and supposed to have been the work of the Romans. The principal public buildings are the Cathedral, the former Jesuit's College, and the Episcopal Palace; but the Bishopric has been suppressed. The last Bishop who filled that dignity, was the noted Gregoire, so well known by his writings against the slave trade. The ancient castle stands on a rock overhanging the river, and was originally designed for the defence of the place. It was distinguished as the birth place of Louis XII., and as the scene where the Duke de Guise and his brother the Cardinal were assassinated, in 1587, by order of Henry III. Catherine de Medici, also expired there in 1589. The population of Blois, at a late enumeration, was 13,051, who carry on manufactures of woollen, hardware and glass, besides a good trade in wine, brandy, corn, wood, and fruit. It is about thirty-six miles south-west of Orleans, in lat. 47° 34' N. and long. 1° 20' E.

BLONKET. The Gloss says, "Blonket liveryes are gray coats." They are black, dismal liveries.

Our blonket liveryes been all too bad
For thilke same season, when all is yclad
With pleasure.

Spenser. *The Shepherd's Calendar*. May.

B L O O D.

BLOOD.

BLOOD, n.
BLOOD, n.
BLOOD, n.
BLOOD, adj.
BLOODINESS, n.
BLOODILY, adv.
BLOODLESS, adj.
BLOODHOUND, n.

See to BLEED. See also BLOOD, in Composition.

To a noble lord he scholde come, & here all lord be,
And kynges come of hys blod, & jure he scholde se
R. Gloucester, p. 10.

He adoun ys bloody suert, and lowde bygan to grede:
Englyshe men, Englyshe men, slep anon yeh rede.
Vor Edmond, vrc kyng, to deys ys ydo. *Id. p. 364.*

His ilk jre barons, borgh descent of blode,
Haf right & reason to jre courous fulle gode.
R. Brunne, p. 249.

And sawe hys bloody woundes wide and sore;
And alle eriden bothe leane and more,
Have mercie, Lord, upon us wimmen alle.
Chaucer. The Knightes Tale, v. 1757.

And a woman hadde ben in the blode flise twelve yer, and hadde resseyved many thinge of ful many leches, and hadde spendid at his good, and was nothing amendid but was rather the worse.
Wiclif. Mark, ch. v.

And there was a certayn woman, which was diseased of an yssue of blod xii. yeres, & suffred many thynges of many phisicians, and had spent all y^e she had, and felt come amendment at al, but waxed worse.
Bible, 1551.

Whit those caterpillars and bloody beasts had undermined him, they complaynd agayn to their lord cardinal.
The Life of Desiderius Erasmus, A. A. iii.

For loe he, tending my most humble vote,
The right, and faith, my Hector's bloodless corpse
Rendered, for to be layd in sepulture,
And sent me to my kingdom home againe.
Shakespeare. Hamlet, book ii.

— The Gods he fear'd
The laws of nature and of oaths heard.
He cheer'd my sorrows, and for sums of gold
The bloodless carcass of my Hector sold.
Fity'd the woe a parent undertook,
And sent me back in safety from his tent. *Dryden.*

But Dido quaking fierce with frantic mood and grisly ben,
With trembling spotted cheeks, her hope attempting to pursue,
Besides her self for rage, and towards death with visage wan,
Her eyes about the roils, as red as blood they looked than.
Shakespeare. Antioch, book iv.

But she
Shames not to be with guiltless blood defiled,
But taketh glory in her cruelties.
Fairer than fairest, let none ever say,
That ye were bloodied in a yielded fray.
Spenser. Sonnet XL.

Shortly after Pysistratus having wounded himself, and bloodied all his body over, caused his men to carry him in his coach into the market-place
Norik. Plutarch, fol. 50.

They who taught first to dismember, and cut in pieces for meat a tame goose, a house dove, and a familiar pigeon, a dung-hill cock, or domesticated hen of the roost, and that not for to satiate and remedy the necessity of hunger, as do those vipers and cats, and but overly for pleasure, and to feed a dainty tooth surely have confounded and strengthened all that diseases and savage cruelty which was in our nature, and made it altogether inflexible and immovable without any compassion.
Holland. Plutarch, fol. 779.

They will exact by torture what
Thou think'st, and hast thought:
Then, mercie God, amongst those men
No merchie is at all!
A bloodier law rule bloodierly
Was neuer heard or shelt.
Warner. Titian's England, book ix. can. 51.

And threw vnmuscled cries, about their waikes;
So horrid that a bloodless feare surprisde
My dashed spirits.
Chapman. Homer's Odyssey, book xl. fol. 161.

The public mischief was his private gain;
Children their slaughter'd parent sought in vain:
A brother here his poisoned brother wept;
Some bloodied dy'd, and some by opium sleep.
Dryden. The Art of Poetry, can. 4.

— A patriot's blood,
Well spent in such a strife, may earn indeed,
And for a time secure, to his lov'd land
The sweets of liberty and equal laws.
Cowper. The Task, book v.

Meantime remember, lifeless drone!
I carry bucks and bloods alone.
Warton. The Phantom and Our Horse Chair.

Stay, bloody soldier, stay thy hand,
Nor take the shepherd's gentle breath:
Thy rage let innocence withstand;
Let music soothe the thirst of death.
Langens. Fable iii.

When this great revolution was attempted in a more regular mode by government, it was opposed by plots and seditions of the people; where by popular efforts, it was repressed as rebellion by the hand of power; and bloody executions (often bloody returned) marked the whole of its progress through all its stages.
Burke. A Speech at Bristol.

Here may be seen, in bloodless pomp array'd,
The paste-board triumph and the cavalcade;
Processions form'd for pity and for love,
A mistress or a saint in every grade.
Goldsmith. The Traveller.

Blood, in Composites, gives birth to many words of powerful import. Examples of the principal of them are subjoined.

Now to close fight the saggy chiefs engage;
Like two fell griffins rous'd to equal rage;
Foss'd on their rolling trains they fiercely rise,
With blood-deposited crests and burning eyes.
Milke. The Engaged, book iii.

For the blood-lab'd'd Banquo smiles upon me
And points at them for him.
Shakespeare. Macbeth, fol. 144.

Tell him if he l'v' blood-c'd'd field, lay axon
Shewing the sun his teeth, grimacing at the moon,
What you would do.
Breanmont and Fletcher. The two Noble Kinsmen, act i. sc. 1.

By my soul, this pale and angry rose,
As cognizance of my blood-drinking hate,
Will I for ever, and my faction, wear.
Shakespeare. Henry VI. First Part, act ii. sc. 4.

And for myself, for as he was to me,
Might lighted traces, or short offending grones,
Or blood-consuming sighs recall his life;
I would be blind with weeping, sick with grones,
Look pale as prim-rose with blood-orending sighs,
And all to have the noble duke alive.
Id. Henry VI. Second Part, fol. 134.

BLOOD.

BLOOD.

In a theme so bloody-fac'd, as this,
Conjecture, especially, and surmise
Of sydes incertain, should not be admitted.
Shakespeare. Henry IV. Second Part, fol. 78.

Yet sathemore by his bold battle speech,
Cold his blood-frozen, but emboldened leg.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book I. can. 9.

Ah! coward hand; afraid why shouldst thou be?
(Thou instrument of death, shame and despite)
Why shouldst thou feare, with sharp and trenchant knife
To cut the thread of this blood-guittie life?
Fairfax. Godfrey of Boulogne, book xii.

To shed the blood of Christians, when blood may be spared,
that as hideous thing it is, you may guess by that emperor,
that having beheaded a Christian, was by the sight of fishes
bred that came to his table so astonished, phantying, that it
was the head of that slaughtered Christian gazing on him, that
he scarce recovered to his wit; or of that poor peasant
David, in his pathetic expression, deliver me from blood-
guiltiness, O Lord; a wonderful deliverance, it seems,
to get clear from that. And what an ocean of fishes brada, may
appear our day gazing on our men, I have no joy to tell;
deliver us from blood-guiltiness, O God.
Hammond's Works, vol. iv. serm. vii.

Then, taking couge of that virgine pure,
The bloody-headed babe into her trough
Did earnestly commit, and her conlure,
In vertuous love to traine his tender youth.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book ii. can. 3.

If he be very hot, he should by no means drink. At least,
a good piece of bread first to be eaten, will gain time to warm
the beer blood-hot, which then he may drink safely.
Locke. On Education, sec. 17.

Which pettitie once obtained, that sent out curriers into
every part, amongst whomes Homfrey Chieley pleying the parte
of a good blood hounde, foled the track of the fyre so even by
the weat, that he overtook and apprehended hyme not far
from Cöpciga.
Hall. Richard III.

Moreover, when as the people of Rome called upon him for
justice, and namely to have Helotus and Tigellinus executed,
the only men of all the blood-seeds and instruments of Nero
that wrought most mischief, he saved them from danger.
Holland. Suetonius, fol. 218.

Her unrelenting train : informers, spies,
Blood hounds, that sturdy freedom to the grove
Pursue.
Thomson. Liberty, p. iv.

Your naked infants spitte upon pykes,
Whiles the mad mothers, with their howles confus'd,
Doe breake the clouds ; as did the wives of Jewry,
At Herods bloody-hunting slaughter men.
Shakespeare. Henry V. fol. 79.

The emperor seeing the ill order, and that by the reason of
his blood-tinge and fouler, he was not present at the act, he
took such an heesinace at his heart, whereby he fell into a
trance.
Golden Bunch.

I thinke he was lette slide in the necke, accordinglye to the
blood-tinge in Lombardy, when they will smite a mannes
side.
Freinart. Croyce, v. li. C. i.

Now breath we loode, good fortune bids vs pause,
And smoothe the frownes of war, with peacefull lookes !
Some troopes pursue the bloody-saued quene.
Shakespeare. Henry V. Third Part, fol. 157.

Boy, break thy pipes, leave, leave, thy fruitlesse muse :
Rather the musk, and blood-red corall chuse.
Fletcher. Remorse, vi.

Among the proofs of the efficacy of appended remedies, we
must not pervert the memorable examples, that are delivered
by the judicious Portius de Rost, concerning the virtues of that
sort of Jasper, which is blood-red throughout the whole body
of the stone, not being mingled with any colour.
Brewer. On Natural Philosophy, p. ii. essay v.

The legs (of the Patriciole) and bare space above the knees
are blood-red.
Pennant. Zoology, v. ii.

BLOOD.

Why art thou troubled, Herod ? what vain fear
Thy blood-revolving breast to rage doth move ?
Hear n't King who casts himself weak flesh to wear,
Comes not to rule in wrath, but serve in love.
Crusoe. Susanna d'Herode.

Cannot my body, nor blood-sacrifice,
Intercede you to your wretched furtherance ?
Then take my soule ; my body, soule, and all,
Before that England give the French the foyle.
Shakespeare. Henry VI. First Part, fol. 115.

O natio miserable !
With an vitallid tyrant, bloody-scripted,
When shalt thou see thy wholesome dayes again.
Id. Marcell, fol. 146.

But when they hear thee sing
The pluries of thy King,
His seal to God, and his just awe o'er men ;
They say, blood-shakes then,
Feel such a flesh-quake to possess their powers.—
Ben Jonson. Ode to Himself.

Now shall thou dye, quod he, and with that word
At the altar him trembling can he draw,
Wallowing through the bloodshed of his son.
Surrey. Arcadia, book ii.

I am so butcherly murderer, no bloodshedder of Innocence.
Udall. John, ch. xix.

Harsh come these pestilences, famine, death, distractions,
burnings, and blood-shedings.
Jayr. Expedition of Daniel, ch. v.

They were taught to believe, that founding a monastery a
little before their deaths would atone for a life of incon-
tinence, disorder, and blood-shed.
Blackstone. Commentaries, iv. p. 468.

But trembling Dido eagerly now bent
Upon her arms detestation ;
Her bloodshot eyes rolling within her head ;
Her quivering cheek, streaked with deadly stains,
Both pale and wan to think on death to come.
Surrey. Arcadia, book iv.

In the remaining orb, the heavenly maid
The tale of childless Cynara display'd ;
A settled anguish in the look appears,
And from his bloodshot eyes flow streams of tears.
Gay. Ode. The Story of Atreus, book vi.

Reverent, her bloodshot eyes on fire
And bining envy's snakey tire.
Hamilton. Contemplation.

The best of prey
Blood stain'd, deserves to bleed : but, you, ye folks,
What have ye done ; ye peaceful people, what
To merit death.
Thomson. Spring.

They had such blood-drinking hertes, as could have been
contente to have smothered their owne parties.
Udall. John, ch. xviii.

Like shated sheepe, escaped from
Blood-narthing dogs, they quake
Imploring his protection ; which
He then did undertake.
Warner. Allions England, book x. can. 57.

I would, false murr'rous coward, on thy knee
Make thee begge pardon for thy passed speech,
And say, it was thy mother that thou mean'st,
That thou thyselfe was borne in bastardie ;
And after all this fearful homage done
Give thee thy byre, and send thy soule to hell,
Pernicious blood-sucker of sleeping men.
Shakespeare. Henry VI. Second Part, fol. 136.

BLOOD. But in calamitous seasons, under accidental illuses, in declining life, and with the pressure of a numerous offspring, the future wearers of the community, but the present drains and blood-suckers of those who produce them, what is to be done?

Burke. On Scarcity.

— Their blood-swollen eyes
Doo break; the fiery plague with botches flies
All o'er the face: their heavy heads fall downe.
Mey. Lucius, book vi.

So boiles the fiend Herods blood-swollen breast,
Not to be slak'd but by a sea of blood.
Crashaw. Suspecta d'Herode.

TAB. Prisoner? to whom?
COUNT. To me, blood-thirstie lord.
Shakespeare. Henry VI. First Part, fol. 103.

He call'd no lightning from the clouds, or from
His daz'd eyes to flash on Juliet's face,
And stamp upon his lips that flaming doom
Which due to their blood-thirsty flattery was.
Beaumont. Psycho, c. xi. st. 227.

This central night or universal spright
Of wo, of want, of baleful bitterness, &c.
Of warre, contention, and blood-thirstiness, &c.
This Stygian stream through all the world doth run,
And many wicked souls unto it self hath weene,
More. On the Sea, ill. ch. iii. st. 34.

Assassination, her whole mind
Blood-thirsting; on her arm reclin'd
Churchill. The Duellist, book iii.

The wide process or slanted part [of the lesser W. Nerve] is remarkably transparent, and when viewed with a lens of even moderately magnifying power, exhibits very distinctly the ramifications of the blood-vessels dispersed through it.

Pennant. Zoology, v. iii.

The nerves, blood-vessels, and tendons, which are necessary to the life, or for the motion of the limbs, must, it is evident, in their way from the trunk of the body to the places of their destination, travel over the movable joints.

Paley. Natural Theology, ch. viii.

Blood is usually designated a red fluid circulating in the arteries and veins. There is, however, some incorrectness in applying the epithet red to the blood in the way of distinctive appellation; for in the very small vessels the fluid is without colour, and there are animals in which a circulating fluid is not only presumed but detected, such fluid being destitute of redness in any part of the body.

In the more perfect animals too the Blood is of a different colour, as it is found in the arteries and veins; in the latter vessels being of a more purple, and in the former of a more crimson hue, while, as just intimated, in the capillary portion of the vascular circuit, it loses its colour altogether.

The circulation of the Blood, the preservation of its fluidity and homogeneous appearance during circulation, its immediate separation into distinct parts when removed from its vessels, its colour, its equality of temperature in the warm-blooded animals, during all exterior vicissitudes, and the freedom of it from perceptible change during the presence of some of the most malignant diseases, are the principal points of interest that attach themselves to our present inquiry; and we shall proceed to remark, with as much brevity and succinctness as possible, upon each of the above particulars.

Of the circulation. In other parts of this work, the course which the Blood takes will be found described, as well as the organization by which its circuit is

effected. We are here to confine ourselves within the limits of an observation or two respecting the *quo modo* of circulating agency. Dr. Harvey, the great discoverer of the circulation, imagined the whole projecting power to reside in the heart, and in this opinion he has been followed by several very able physiologists. Indeed this doctrine, which till lately might be considered rather on the decline, has very recently been resumed and ably defended by Dr. Parry; while other speculators, on the contrary, maintain that the Blood vessels themselves are actively and very materially concerned in the Blood's propulsion through its innumerable channels. This physiological problem involves, in some measure, an anatomical problem also; it being made a question, whether the fibrous coat belonging to an artery is actually muscular, and therefore contractile, or whether what have been described as muscular tanics are not merely membranous tissues, and therefore incapable of contraction. "I have sought (says a modern writer, Mr. Hare) in vain for the reputed muscular coat of an artery, and I am led to conclude, that the whole tube is constructed of cellular tissue, which, from its different degrees of density or compactness, appears to form separate coats, and which from its yielding power, is fitted for all the purposes of circulation, by the impulse which the Blood receives from the heart alone, the great muscular power of which appears more than sufficient for propelling it through elastic tubes to all parts of the body."

Others maintain, that the arteries are endowed with a truly muscular power from their construction; and that they acknowledge their proper stimulus to contraction, viz. the circulating Blood with as much readiness and as completely, as the voluntary muscles obey the excitation of the will.

These last reasoners contend, that there is as regular dilation and contraction of the artery, as there is of the heart, and that by the contraction of the vessel upon its contained fluid the Blood is projected forwards; while the former maintain that the alternate dilation and collapse of the vessel, as far as it does take place, is occasioned by its elasticity merely, and that the Blood gets to the extreme or capillary vessels by one great propelling agency. Hence they say, the uniformity of the pulsations in every part of the body, amidst all the incidental circumstances of the system which would otherwise largely disturb this synchronous effect; these circumstances being topical or general, casual or regular, organic or nervous. Those who argue for an independent and positive power in the vessel, urge the difficulty in conceiving that such a small apparatus, as is the heart, should be equal to the presumed effect; they, secondly, observe, that the topical excitation of vessels, as in case of a blush overspreading the cheek, while the general movements of the circulation are orderly, is inconsistent with the notion, that the alternate contractions and dilations of the heart, are the sole regulators of the Blood's impetus. And further they say, how can we account upon this hypothesis for increase and diminution of secretion, for sudden and partial growth, for wasting and decay of parts, while the general body is vigorous; for increased activity in the vessels of an organ, as for example the uterus, when particular circumstances require it; or for an organ being plentifully supplied

BLOOD.

BLOOD. with Blood one hour, and the next left with a diminished quantity?

Such in brief is the present state of the argument in reference to the circulation; but there is one difficulty connected with this phenomenon, which neither theory satisfactorily solves; and which indeed still remains inexplicable upon any principles that have hitherto been discovered, or any hypothesis that has yet been framed. It is this, admitting the projectile force of the heart to be capable of throwing at once the stream of Blood into the small and distant arterial branches, with the assistance of arterial agency in the process; how does it find its way through them, or rather by virtue of what faculty does it gain admittance into the extremities of the returning vessels? A species of imbibing power has been attributed to the venous capillaries, and to the venous chambers of the heart, in order to explain this effect; but beside that there is something gratuitous in this assumption of imbibing agency, it is not easy to say, at what precise point it commences, what are the laws by which it is regulated, or how in the capillary part of the circulation it can take place at all without actual extravasation or the throwing out of Blood by the arterial branches to be taken up by the venous ramifications. But we must refer to the articles *Circulation of the Blood*, and *Physiology*, for a more extended investigation of the facts and doctrines now alluded to, and proceed to the second division of our inquiry, viz. the fluidity and homogeneous appearance of the Blood during its passage through its vessels, and its immediate coagulation when extravasated.

That motion is, in some measure, the source of the Blood's fluidity is proved by this, that if the vessel into which any quantity of it is received, be kept in constant agitation, or if the Blood thus received into a vessel, be stirred with a stick, coagulation is retarded; and what is still more important, Blood is found to coagulate more speedily when taken from an enfeebled subject; but that the phenomenon of fluidity is not solely attributable to motion is shown, by the Blood continuing fluid, at least for a long time, when retained in its vessels, although it be insulated from the circulation by ligatures, and thus prevented from movement. Neither does temperature explain the mystery of vital fluidity; for though different degrees of heat do possess an influence upon the Blood's concretion, it has been found that, out of the body, both very high and very low degrees of temperature hasten coagulation. Nor does exposure to air account for the effect, for Blood will congregate in a vacuum.

And further, although solutions of some neutral salts prevent concretion, the Blood of an individual, while taking these substances, nevertheless coagulates; and upon the whole, we are obliged to refer fluidity and coagulation to vital laws, or such as are beyond the jurisdiction of either chemical or mechanical agency.

In doing this, however, we must be careful not to adopt that illegitimate mode of reasoning and phraseology on these subjects, which has been sanctioned by the great name of Hunter, and talk of the vitality of the Blood, as if in this fluid actually resided the vital principle; for such language is quite as unphilosophical and absurd as to state the pincal gland to be the place of the soul's residence in the body, or to point out the nervous system, or any

other parts as the localities of life. How vitality is connected with organization, we can never know; and it is high time that physiological language should be entirely cleared of those expressions which assume imaginary essences for the sake of explaining causation.

But let us proceed to describe coagulation, and to investigate the component parts of the Blood as shown by the coagulating and other processes.

Blood when received into a vessel from a living animal, separates soon into a fluid and a solid part.

"When it passes in a free stream into a basin, and is allowed to remain at rest, it begins to jelly or coagulate in three minutes and a half. A thin film appears first on the upper surface of the Blood, and generally near to the edge of the vessel, this thickens gradually until the whole is coagulated, but the upper surface coagulates first. In Blood taken from a healthy person, the coagulation is usually completed in seven minutes, and in twelve minutes (although it will sometimes take a longer period) the mass will be very firm.

"Soon after this, a transparent watery part will be perceived transuding through the pores of the coagulum, the coagulum at the same time contracting itself, leaving the sides of the basin, but still preserving the original shape. The transparent watery part forms the serum. The coagulum retains the red colour and forms the crassamentum. The crassamentum being the heaviest sinks in the serum. These two parts differ in the proportion they bear to each other in different people. In persons who enjoy a good natural state of health they are nearly equal; the crassamentum being of the two in the larger proportion. It is evidently so in stout laborious people, and in some inflammatory diseases." (Wilson's *Lectures on the Blood*, &c.)

Serum. The specific gravity of this part of the Blood, has usually been stated from 1020 to 1030. But it is subject to great variety. Its solid contents on evaporation, are stated by Bostock to be 12 per cent.; but Krüh (a recent and very excellent writer on the Blood) makes it somewhat lower. "One hundred parts of serum (says Brande) contain between eight and nine parts of albumen, rather less than one part of carbonate of soda, and about the same quantity of common salt, the remaining ninety parts being water. These, at least, are the proportions which my own experiments lead me to believe correct; but the analysis is involved in so much difficulty, that the results can only be considered as approximating to truth; indeed it is probable, that the composition of the serum is liable to much variation."

Albumen is the most important principle in the serum; it is that by which the serum is coagulable.

Crassamentum. This consists of the *cras* or colouring matter, and the *fibrina* or coagulable lymph. "If recent Blood be stirred for a few minutes, an adhesion of the coagulable lymph to the rough surface of the stick takes place; and this flaky substance losing, on repeated washing, its red particles, shows distinctly and beautifully the fibrin which forms its base." The proportion which this matter averages in entire Blood, is stated by Berzelius at 75 to 1,000. Others rate it very much lower. Now this fibrin is so named from its forming the base of muscle; and

BLOOD. arguments against the muscularity of arteries have been adduced from their being destitute of this matter. So nearly does it approach to actually organized muscle, that it contracts upon the application of the galvanic sum.

This fibrin or coagulable lymph is very conspicuous upon the coagulated solid mass which swims in the serum; it is more or less unobservable, as the Blood has been more or less early in separating, and is therefore, in some measure, a mark of inflammation; but let it be recollected, particularly by the young practitioner of medicine, that buff on the surface of the *crassamentum*, is by no means an absolute test of the inflamed state; for even in some conditions of extreme debility, the Blood being thinner than in health, the parts are in consequence more intimately mixed, the separation is therefore more slowly made, and a considerable quantity of fibrin will, in this case, lie upon the surface of the coagulum in the form of buff, although its relative quantum to the whole of the blood be much under the proportions of health.

The relative portion of the serum and the fibrin to each other is, with little exception, in the order of the vigorous and healthy condition of the individual. In vigorous stamion, and states of high excitement, the fibrin of the Blood is the most abundant, because it is the essence, as above intimated, of animal fibre; while on the other hand, where the powers are low, and the circulation languid, the serum will be found the predominating portion of the circulating fluid.

The *cras* consists of the red globules according to general statements, but Sir Everard Home has maintained in a paper which appeared in the *Philosophical Transactions* of 1822, that the colouring matter does not appear to be contained in the globules; "it merely envelopes them," he says, "and may easily be separated from them." Sir Everard remarks, "that to retain the globules in a coloured state, it is necessary that a very small quantity of Blood only be smeared as thinly as possible upon glass, in order that all moisture may instantly evaporate; they then retain their full size and colour. But if a greater quantity of Blood be laid on the glass, which shall retain moisture only half a minute, the colouring matter begins in a few seconds to separate and form a circle round the globe; and if the Blood be diffused in water, the separation of the colouring matter is instantaneous."

These globules have been variously estimated as to size, and differently described as to form. Leuwenhoeck considered the dimension of a single globule to be not more than $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of a grain of sand; but the most recent examinations of Sir Everard Home and Mr. Buser, make the diameter of each globule $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of an inch, which gives 400,000 globules to a square inch.

"It having been remarked, that no spherical bodies could be accurately measured by a common micrometer, and that therefore no correct idea of a globule of Blood could be obtained by that means, Sir Everard Home requested Captain Kater to measure them in what appeared to him the most satisfactory manner. The result was, that $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of an inch may be considered as about the mean diameter of a globule of human Blood. The measurements of Baron Haller, Dr. Wollaston, and Dr. Young, nearly correspond with this."

BLOOD. We talk of globules of Blood, as if the form and shape of these particles were decided upon by experimentalists, this is not absolutely the case. Leuwenhoeck represents them as circular when at rest, and elliptical when in motion; the elliptic form being assumed to accommodate them to the different diameters of the vessels they have to pass through. Hewson and Wells describe them as flat, with a vesicle in the centre containing a solid substance. The Padre de la Torre considered them as rings. It is now, however, generally allowed, that the form of the particles is globular, and that the different appearances which they assume, at different times, are referable to aberrations to the rays of light.

The use of the globules has not been ascertained. We have already remarked, that the fibrin of the *crassamentum* seems destined for the formation of muscle; Sir Everard Home has recently stated, that when the globules lose their colouring envelope they attract each other, and run into the form of fibrous lines; so that he imagines the ultimate muscular fibre to be constituted of globules thus losing their colour, and in consequence coalescing. "The enveloping colouring matter may be thus given to the globules for the purpose of keeping them separate in the Blood vessels, where their coalescence could be of no use. In the seceding branches of the arteries, from the smallness of the vessels and their orifices, or some other cause, the red envelope may be separated from the globules, and the globules being poured out singly and in succession may thus unite and produce the muscular fibres." These suggestions, however, though ingenious must be regarded at present, at least, as merely standing on the ground of conjecture.

How is colour imparted to, and retained by the Blood?
This fluid, when exposed to air which contains oxygen, undergoes a very considerable change in colour; it becomes of a crimson hue. Now the colouring matter of Blood when incinerated, has been said to afford the following residue: oxide of iron 50.; sulphate of iron 7.5.; phosphate of lime with magnesia 6.; lime 20.; carbonic acid and loss 16.5. It has hence been inferred, that the colour of the Blood is owing to the oxidization of its contained iron as it passes through the lungs, a hypothesis which has been thought to be strengthened by the fact, that iron taken as a medicine often increases the colour of the person taking it. Mr. Brande, however, has always found, in his experiments, that the traces of iron in Blood are exceedingly indistinct; and even if it did exist in the quantity alleged by others, that quantity does not seem equal to the supposed effect; and with respect to the medicinal operation of iron, this is more probably attributable to its generally invigorating agency upon the stomach and fibres, than to the impartation of a chemical principle. Iron is said too, to exist in quite as great a proportion in the colourless Blood of animals, as in red Blood. There is something, it must be allowed, still undetected respecting the rationale of the colouring process; for the exposure of chyle to oxygen gas does not give it the red colour, although we are told that there is very little difference between chyle and Blood, beyond the latter being coloured while the former is colourless.

Besides the serum and *crassamentum* of the Blood,

BLOOD. which we have thus described, authors speak thirdly of the *Saliva*, which immediately issues from Blood upon its extravasation and exposure; this is said to consist of carbon and hydrogen, and to this free gas, especially the carbonic acid, Sir Everard Home has lately attributed the beautiful process of vascularity, which takes place in extravasated Blood, when the system requires a new formation of parts or a reunion of old ones. This is one of the most remarkable and important processes of the living system; in inflamed states, for instance, or after wounds, coagulating lymph is thrown out from the extremities of the affected vessels, which thus becomes a matrix for the actual formation of new vessels; these, in the course of an exceedingly small time, innervate themselves, as it is anatomically expressed, with the old vessels, and thus is accomplished actual regeneration of lost substance.

"From a hint, which Sir E. Home says he received from Mr. Baur, respecting a process which that gentleman had discovered as taking place in growing vegetables, he requested his assistance in making some observations on the mode by which the coagulable lymph became vascular when extravasated. Professor Brande's assistance was also called in, and from his experiments it was discovered that the Blood, while circulating in its vessels, possesses a considerable quantity of gas in solution. It was ascertained that this is carbonic acid gas, and that it is met with in the same proportion in arterial and venous Blood; also that two cubic inches may be extracted from every ounce of Blood. It was also ascertained, that a considerable portion of this gas is extricated from the Blood during its spontaneous coagulation. This being known, a small quantity of human Blood was, while in a fluid state, received into a watch glass and placed immediately in the field of the microscope; the eye was kept constantly fixed on it to observe the changes that might take place. In about five minutes something was seen to be disengaged in different parts of the coagulum, and passing with considerable rapidity through the serum; and, wherever this extricated matter was carried, a net-work immediately formed, anastomosing with itself on every side through every part of the coagulum.

"When Blood, drawn from the arm, was placed under the receiver of an air pump, and the air extricated by immediate exhaustion, no appearance of a net-work took place where the Blood coagulated.

"When extravasation and coagulation of Blood take place, from whatever cause, in living animals, and this net-work is formed in the coagulum, as difficulty, Sir Everard Home infers, remains in accounting for it afterwards becoming vascular; since all that is necessary for that purpose is the red Blood being received into the channels of which the net-work is formed. This is an ingenious conjecture, but still it remains to be accounted for how these cavities contain coats similar to the arteries, possessing muscular fibres, *endo-vascular*, and nerves." Wilson's *Lectures on the Blood*, &c.

Recomposition of the constituent parts of Blood. 1st. *Serum*; 2nd, *Crasamentum*; 3rd, *Gaseous Halitus*. The serum, containing water, albumen, and several saline ingredients. The *crasamentum*, consisting of fibrin, having albumen in its composition, and the colouring matter, affording, according to the analysis of some chemists, small quantities of oxide and

subphosphate of iron, with lime, phosphate of lime, and carbonic acid; while the *halitus* is constituted of hydrogen and carbon, principally the latter.

That the temperature of the Blood continues nearly equal during exterior changes, is a fact in the animal economy that has not perhaps hitherto received a completely satisfactory explanation. It would seem to have an intimate connection with the respiratory process, and to be considerably dependent upon the chemical changes which take place in the lungs upon the mass of the circulating fluid. The laws however of animal heat have been laid down rather too precipitately, and much is attributable to the nervous system, and to the peculiar actions of the living system.

In a fluid of such importance as the Blood it will easily be conceived, that changes will be likely to occur very readily, from the different circumstances of health and disease, and that these changes will prove indices of the virulence of such and such affection; thus, its colour, its texture, its temperature, the proportion of the serum to the *crasamentum*, &c. may and do take place with their accompanying symptoms, but there is one peculiarity in this fluid, namely, that the most malignant maladies may pervade the frame without inducing any perceptible change in the chemical composition of the Blood. Thus, take Blood from an individual labouring under small-pox, or hydrophobia, and you shall not only fail of finding the *materies morbi* by subjuncting this Blood to minute tests, but you shall even find it without any alteration; while from this same Blood, and at the same moment, the secretory vessels of the saliva in one instance, and the general excretories of the surface in the other, shall be extracting and pouring out a highly poisonous material. It does not then seem to be strictly the case, that the Blood is without the poison, but that it exists in it in a latent undetectable state, nothing having the power of finding and drawing it out except the particular emunctory destined to this purpose. This is a very important law of the animal frame, and it is at variance with some theories of diseases that have had influence upon the practice of Medicine.

Partly in conformity with the law now alluded to, we do not find such dissimilarity in the Blood of different animals as might be supposed to exist; and what is very remarkably in unison with the same principle, the Blood of the ox, as stated by Berzelius, only differs from that of the human subject by containing a smaller quantity of saline matter and a larger proportion of azote. Now when we consider that man lives in a great measure upon animal food, while the food of the ox is exclusively vegetable, it might have been anticipated that human Blood would have proved the most azotic, since azote forms the main ingredient of animal matter. It has farther been found that some of the mildest and most inoffensive fluids, when received by the stomach, prove, when injected into the Blood vessels, powerfully poisonous. "It has been ascertained by repeated experiments, that atmospheric air injected into the jugular vein of a horse, will almost immediately destroy the life of the animal."

The quantity of Blood in the human subject has been averaged at about thirty pounds; this however is difficult to ascertain with precision, and circumstances must much vary the case. There is one fact which seems to have been satisfactorily made out, viz. that

BLOOD. Man has more Blood, in proportion to his size and weight than other animals, and that as you descend in the scale the proportion diminishes. It would seem too, from some well-conducted experiments, that the *crassamentum* bears a large proportion to the *serum*, as the animal from which the Blood is taken is stronger and more ferocious. "I have never found," says Mr. Thackrah, "the *serum* in such quantity as in the timid sheep, nor the *crassamentum* so abundant as in the predatory dog."

Transfusion of Blood. It was at one time supposed that much good might result in the management of disease, by the transference of Blood from a healthy animal into the vessels of the human subject. The experiment was simple, and consisted of inserting each leg of a syphon into the aperture of an artery of the animal, and the vein of a patient. In the ardour which attends a new invention it was supposed capable of prolonging life to an indefinite period; of correcting not only diseased states of the fluids, but even the disposition and temper. By a singular fatality, this project having been often employed, it is said, with advantage, certainly without injury, was at once abandoned in consequence of the death of a person, under circumstances in which the operation could not be blamed. This practice however has lately been resumed, not with the enthusiastic and ridiculous anticipations with which it was at first instituted, but under the notion that a life might be occasionally preserved by it, which would otherwise be suddenly extinguished by large hemorrhages either natural or accidental. In the few instances where the experiment has lately been tried, the results have not been such as to warrant an entire abandonment of hope; but it must be recollected, that the occurrences in which it might possibly be useful, are such as to demand immediate help, and that the almost necessary loss of time in the experiment may therefore be the loss of every thing. In cases of chronic disease and gradual exhaustion, nothing perhaps is to be expected from the practice, since it is not merely loss of Blood but loss of power, that characterises these states; and unless such power were restored, Blood would be in vain supplied. Were indeed the doctrine correct of abstract vitality possessed by this fluid, some expectation might be entertained of benefit from its artificial supply; but it has already been said that we reason erroneously and infer falsely, when we thus endeavour to embody and give residence to the living principle.

In *Spratt's History of the Royal Society*, the origin of *Transfusion* is traced to Sir Christopher Wren. "He was the first author of that noble anatomical experiment of injecting liquors into the veins of animals. An experiment now vulgarly known, but long since exhibited to the meetings at Oxford, and thence carried by some German and published abroad: by this operation divers creatures were immediately purged, vomited, intoxicated, killed, or revived, according to the quality of the liquor injected. Hence arose many new experiments, and chiefly that of *transfusing Blood*, which the Society has prosecuted in sundry instances that will probably end in extraordinary success." (p. 317.) From a letter written by Sir C. Wren to Sir William Petty, in the year 1656, it seems that the discovery was made about that time, "the most considerable experiment I have made of late is this: I injected wine and also

into the mass of Blood in a living dog, by a vein, in good quantities, till I made him extremely drunk, but soon after he voided it out. With two ounces of *Crocus Metallorum* thus injected, the dog immediately fell to vomiting, and so vomited till he died. It will be long to tell you the effects of opium, scammony, and other things which I have tried this way. I am in further pursuit of the experiment, which I take to be of great concernment, and what will give great light in the theory and practice of physic."

In the *Philosophical Transactions*, (No. 7. p. 128. 1665,) the discovery is claimed once more for Sir Christopher Wren; and Boyle, in his *Considerations on the usefulness of Experimental and Natural Philosophy*, (part ii. Postscript to Essay 2.) adds a singular fact connected with it. "The fame of this invention, and of the succeeding trials being spread and particularly coming to the knowledge of a foreign ambassador that was curious and then resided in London, it was by him tried with some *Crocus Metallorum* upon a maledactor, that was an inferior servant of his; with this success, that the fellow, as soon as ever the injection began to be made, did either really or craftily fall into a swoon, whereby being unwilling to prosecute so hazardous an experiment, they desisted without seeing any other effect of it, save that it was told the Ambassador that it wrought once downward with him, which yet might be occasioned perhaps by fear or anguish." The Ambassador appears to have considered his servant very much on the same level as Sir Christopher Wren held the unhappy dogs to be, which he sacrificed for the benefit of science, or rather for the gratification of curiosity. These dogs, however, greatly increased in reputation through their devotion to their cause. Boyle mentions one who was tortured into stupefaction by injecting opium, so "that there were wagers offered that his life could not be saved: but I," continues the humane philosopher, "that was willing to reserve him for further observation, caused him to be whipped up and down a neighbouring garden, whereby being kept awake and in motion, after some time he began to come to himself again; and being led home and carefully tended, he not only recovered, but began to grow fat so manifestly that 'twas admired. But I could not long observe how it fared with him; for this experiment and some other trials made upon him, having made him famous, he was soon after stolen away from me."

We trust that this cruel and wicked practice of needless experiments upon animals is exploded, at least, in our own country; and that the ardour of philosophy, falsely so called, does not now lead any English surgeon to practise the savage mutilation of living subjects, which are so painfully and so disagreeably registered in the annals of Spalanzani and others, and in which it is deeply to be regretted, that such great and good men as Boyle and Wren, could permit themselves to be seduced. On this point there is a dictum which cannot be too strongly impressed on the memory of the student, and we give it as a guide from which he should never permit himself to deviate. "When an experiment for any purpose useful to millions of our fellow creatures, has been once made upon an animal, it should be finally recorded by men of science and veracity, as authentic and satisfactory, and not to be repeated."

The *Philosophical Transactions*, (Nos 25.30.) continue to record some of the earliest experiments in *Transfu-*

BLOOD.

BLOOD. **BLOOM.** **BLOOM.**
 In November 1667, Drs. Lowen and King, in the presence of many considerable persons at Arundel House, transfused nine or ten ounces of the arterial Blood of a young sheep into a human vein of the arm. Mons. Denys, Professor of the Mathematics and Natural Philosophy at Paris, related in a letter to the Publisher of the *Transactions*, that "they had transmitted the Blood of four wethers into a horse of twenty-six years old, and that this horse had thence received much strength and more than ordinary stomach." The same writer in a letter to Mons. de Montmor, mentions the case of a young man, who after he had received the arterial Blood of a lamb, was cured of an extraordinary lethargy consequent to a violent fever, whereby he had been let blood twenty times. Sundry dogs grew fatter on similar operations; and a little spaniel bitch twelve years of age, having been saturated with kid's Blood, grew vigorous and active, and even proud in less than eight days.

Mons. Denys proceeded to cure a man of an inveterate phrensy by drawing ten ounces of Blood from the patient's right arm, and transfusing into it five or six ounces from the crural artery of a calf. (*Phil. Trans.* No. 32.) But a second madman died under the experiment, and Mons. Denys was subjected to an examination by the *Lieutenant Criminel*. The operation,

it seems, had been twice before performed successfully on the same patient, who had an interval of two months sanity after the first, and hopes of more permanent recovery after the second; "had it not been for the debauches of wine and brandy that he fell into. He was a Briton (Breton) by birth, and the original of his madness love."

At Dantzick two persons in the Lock Hospital of that city had medicines infused into the Blood. They are described to have been desperately diseased. One died and the other recovered. Three persons afterwards had alternative medicines thrown into the veins. One of these, who was lame with the gout, found himself pretty well next day, and shortly after went to harvest work, and professed that he was cured. The second, who was apoplectic, had no palsy after the operation; and in the third, who was afflicted with the *Plica Polonica*, all the sores readily healed. The date of this report is August 18, 1668. (*Phil. Trans.* No. 39.)

The reader whose curiosity leads him further in this subject, will find an abstract of the chief matters regarding it in Wren's *Parentalia*, or the details given at considerable length, in the early volumes of the *Philosophical Transactions*.

BLOOM, v. } Goth. *bloma*; A. S. *blom*, *blomian*;
BLOOM, n. } Dutch, *bloeme*; Ger. *blume*. Skinner
BLOOMING, } thinks from *blazen*, *tumescere*; Wach-
BLOOMY. } ter, from *blazen*, *flare*, *spirare*; quia
spirat (sc. *flor.*) *adornat*. In P. Holland we find "the
bloume-smithie." Somner gives, "*blotamian*, *florere*,
gemmare, *germinare*." To bud, to blossom, to bear
 flowers, to bloom, to flourish.

To bloom is to put forth, to throw forth flowers; to have the hue, the complexion, the sweetness, the freshness, of flowers just thrown forth—and thus, to flourish; to be in full vigour; in the full vigour of health, beauty, reputation.

In þat grete it mis, þe pope had grete despite
 þorgh þe Columpnis, cardinales of habite.
 þe were born in Rome alle þe Columpnis,
 þu byrde bare þe blome, riche men & certis.

R. Branne, p. 322.

Well now I neede not feare, these posies here to prayse,
 Because I knew them every flower, and where they grew awayse.
 And sure for my conceyt, even when they bloomed first
 Methought they smelt not much unles, nor not the very worst.

Garguic. *Comendatory Verses*.

The holtes that now are honore,
 both bud and bloume I sawe;
 I ware a garland of the byer
 that puts mee now in awe.
Terribile. The Lower cabineteth the Lady, &c.

We found it all full of goodly trees, meadows, fields full of
 wild corne and prawn bloomed, as thick, as ranke, as
 faire as any can be seene in Britaine.

Hakluyt. *Voyage, &c.* *Japen Cartier*, l. v. 3. fol. 205.

Men have devised also to make the females fruitful, by rust-
 ing upon them the *bloume* and *floure* that the male beareth,
 yea and otherwhiles by strewing the powder which he yieldeth,
 upon them.

Holland. *Phisie*, l. fol. 386.

Exceeding light it is, and apt to mount aloft with the smoke
 of the *bloume-smithie*, yery speedily, yea, and ready to flie out
 of the surface.

Id. v. li. fol. 51.

The lively sap creeps up

Into the blooming thorn.

The flowers, which cold in prison kept,

Now laughs the frost to scorn.

Richard Boscawen. *May*, in *Ellis*, v. li. p. 139.

O nightingale, that on yon bloomy spray

Warblest at eve, when all the woods are still,

Thou with fresh hope the lover's heart dost fill,

While the jolly hours lead on propitious May.

Milton. *Sonnet* i.

Thus did his adversaries reap dishonour and reproach in their
 victory, while he received triumphant applauses in his overthrow,
 like some flowers which are sweeter in their fall than others in
 their bloom.

Oldys. *Life of Raleigh*, clvii.

Ah no! the blooming pride of May,

And that of beauty, are but one:

At morn both flourish bright and gay;

Both fade at evening, pale, and gone.

Prior. *The Garland*.

Swiftly it falls, and as it falls invades

The rising herb, or breaks the spreading blades.

While infant flowers that rain'd their bloomy heads,

Crush'd by its fury, sink into their beds.

Brown. *Ecclesiasticus*, ch. xliii.

BLOOM.
—
BLOSSOM.

Beyond the dim horizon far,
That bounds the mortal eye,
A better country blooms to view,
Beneath a brighter sky.

Logan. *A Tale*.

Some few there are of scurvy mould,
Who barter youth and bloom for gold;
Careless with what or whom they make,
Their ruling passion's all for state.

Cotton. *Marriage*.

He, ere one flow'ry season fades and dies,
Designs the blooming wonders of the next.

Cooper. *The Task*, book iv.

But now the sounds of population fall,
No cheerful murmurs fluctuate in the gale,
No busy steps the grass-grown foot-way tread,
But all the bloomy flush of life is fled.

Goldsmith. *The Deserted Village*.

BLORE. See **BLARE**. Dutch, *blaren*; Ger. *blarren*,
to roar, to bellow. Applied,
To a roaring wind; a gale.

Here we sit at once round set with surging waters,
Stick fast in quicksands, sinking more and more,
There far again the furious billow batters,
Being hurled head-long with the south-west blow,
In thousand pieces against great Albion's shore.

Mirror for Magistrates, p. 838.

—But when they joyed the dreadful clamor rose
To such a height, as sat the sea, when up, the north-spirits blows
Her raging bellows; bellows so, against the beaten shore
Nor such a rustling keeps a fire, driven with violent force.
Through woods that grow against a hill.

Chapman. *Hamlet's Flood*, book xiv. fol. 156.

He found him sitting in his cottage door;
Where he had laid to every merry blow,
A front of great bright.

Id. *Hamlet's Odyssey*, book xiv. fol. 210.

BLOSSOM, v. } See **BLOOM**. To bloom or blossom
BLOSSOM, n. } is to put forth, to throw forth
BLOSSOMED, } the flowers; to have the hue, the
BLOSSOMY, } complexion, the sweetness, the
freshness of flowers just thrown forth.

Thou I be hoar, I fare as doth a tree,
That blossoms ere the fruit yvosen be;
The bloomy tree is neither drie nor dead.
I fele me so wher hoar but on my bed.

Chaucer. *The Merchant's Tale*, v. 9336.

—Some songes cleare
Laires of love, that toy it was to here
In worshipping and praising of her make
And for the newe blisful comers sake
Upon the branches full of blossom soft.

Id. *The Prologue to the Legend of Good Women*, fol. 158.

Aloose I went in my playing
The small fowles song berkening
That princely hew full many a paire
To sing on bowes blossomed faire.

Id. *The Remount of the Rose*, fol. 117.

The fruites were faire, the which did grow
Within thy garden planted,
The leaves were greener of every bough,
And maysture nothing wanted;
Yet ere the blossoms gan to fall,
The caterpillars wasted all.
Vicerain Ancestors. *The Lover accusing his Love*, &c.

In my dreame me thought there stode a vnye before me, & in
the vnye were three branches, and it was as though it ludded,
and her blossoms shoute forth: & the grapes thereof waxed ripe.
Rabelais. *1551. Gensies*, ch. xl.

That a red cut from the tree, should blossom, it was strange;
but that in one night it should bear buds, blossoms, fruit, and
that both ripe and hard, it is highly miraculous.
Hall. *Cont. of Aaron's Crime and Red*, l. fol. 889.

You naked trees, whose shade leaves are lost,
Wherein the birds were wont to build their bowre,
And now are cloth'd with moss and hoarid frost,
Instead of blossoms, wherewith your buds did flower.
I see your leaves.

Spenser. *The Shepherd's Calendar. January*, fol. 5.

So that the blossom of May is generally better than the
blossom of March; and yet the best blossom of March is better
than the best blossom of May.

Lord Bacon. *Colours of Good and Evil*.

The blossoms will fall of themselves, when the root that
nourishes them is destroyed.

Spectator, No. xvi.

Bedeas you struggling fence that skirts the way,
With blossoms'd furze unprofitably gay,
There, in his noisy mansion, skill'd to rule,
The village master taught his little school.

Goldsmith. *The Deserted Village*.

On him fair Science down'd in happier hour,
Awakening into bloom young Fancy's flower:
But soon adversity with freezing blight
The blossom wither'd, and the bower o'ercast.

Falconer. *The Shipwreck*, can. 1.

In such a palace poetry might place
The armory of winter; where his troops,
The gloomy clouds, find wrapone; arrowy elect,
Skin-piercing valley, blossom-bruising hail,
And snow that often blinds the traveller's course,
And wraps him in an unexpected tomb.

Cooper. *The Task*, book v.

BLOT, v. } Be-blot, be-blot, is the regular past
BLot, n. } tense and past participle of be-blot,
BLotTING. } to cover; which has become our
English blot. A blot upon any thing extends just so far
as that thing is covered and no further. See **TOOKE**.

To blot out any thing written, is to cover it, and so
make it illegible.

To blot (met.) is to cover (ac.) with disgrace; to fix
some mark or stain of disgrace, of infamy.

Vp'd this armour and sword was sought for this mayday, the
which, as saith my sayd autowr, was foddie mysconculmy;
wherof the proccesse to me appereth as dark and fantastical, y
therwith my lyst not to blot my bowr, but suffre it to passe by.

Falgoner. *Anno*, 1422.

The briefe was writte and blotted all with gore,
And thus it sayde: Behold how steadfast love,
Hath made me hardy (thanks have be therefore)
To write these wordes thy doubtles for to remane
With mine owne blood.

Guinevere. *Don Bartholomew*.

Fie faythlesse woman le,
with thoue roudenne kinde
Bicame of just report of yll,
and blot of waunting minde.

Twelfth. *To his Friend*.

The which defacing & blotting of the brutes of that country,
sometime called the queene of y^e earth and flour of the worlde,
chamced out of her wne self or her wne cause or desert, but
the traitnes her wne sucking children opened the gyfte sod
made the waye of her destruction. Hall. *Sing Henry VIII*.

But soon forgetting what she went about,
Four quene, she fell to scribbling to her lover.
Here she put in, and there she blotted out,
Her passion did so violently move her.

Dryden. *The Rans of Wars*, book iv. fol. 76.

Thus having by the worthy manner of his death (being much
more honourable by it, then blameable for any other of his
actions) fully blotted out, whatever stain, his fault might seem to
bring upon him.

St Francis Drake. *The World Encompassed*, p. 33.

The moon, in all her brother's beams array'd
Was blotted by the earth's approaching shade.
Rowe. *Lucas's Phœnix*, book 1.

BLOSSOM.
—
BLOT.

BLOT.

BLOW.

—Sunken in the quenching gloom,

Magnificent and vast, are heaven and earth.

Order confounded lies; all beauty void;

Distinction lost; and gay variety

Ours universal blot.

Thomson. Winter.

Nor shall the muse (should fate ordain her rhymes,

Fond, pleasing thought! to live in after-times)

With such a trifler's name her pages blot.

Churchill. The Rival.

For should I be reduced to use the coarse and spongy sort,
 (of parchment) I must either not write at all, or whatever I
 compose, whether good or bad, must necessarily undergo one
 general blot!

Milton. Pity, Letter xv. book viii.

BLOTCH, v. "Blatchy," Mr. Grose says, "is in
 Booren, n. } Glaze, black or dirty." Skinner writes
 it *blotch*, and suggests that it may be from the
 A. S. *blodig*, bloody, q. d. a bloody tainture; or from
blaze, a *blaze*, which it resembles in its fiery heat and
 redness.

For costly garments fashion'd with device

To form each choice part curious eyes to please,

The sick man's gown is only now in price,

To give their blood'd and blister'd bodies ease.

Dryden. *Mosses his Birth and Miracles*, book ii.

If they [the Egyptians] looks upon themselves, they see
 themselves loathsome with lice, painful and deformed with scabs,
 blurs and blotches.

Hall. Cont. The Plagues of Egypt, l. fol. 834.

The one might be employ'd in healing those blotches and
 tumours which break out in the body, while the other is
 sweetening the blood and rectifying the constitution.

Spectator, No. xvi.

This o'er the threshold of their cottage hung,

No thieves break in; or, if they dare to steal,

Their feet in blotches, which admit no cure,

Burst loathsome out.

Granger. The Sugar Case, book iv.

BLOW, v. } A. S. *blæwan*, *blæ*; Ger. *blæsen*. To
 Blow, *v.* } blow is to puff forth or emit wind, air,
 Blow, *v.* } breath; to send or swell out with wind;
 to inflate.

To blow always implies an excess, beyond the
 natural action of the lungs; beyond the breath or effect
 of that action.

He smote his horse with spurs, & forth fro' his mane,

And commended his tempest, to blow into battle.

R. Broune, p. 117.

He smiles, as men smile, some were black & blo

Some were red & green, he wynde about Jan blow.

Id. p. 174.

What should I tell of the realtie

Of this marriage, or which course path beforen,

Who bloweth in a trump or in an horn?

Chaucer. The Nun of Lawes Tale, v. 5123.

And reyn cam down, and flodis came, and wyndis blowen;
 and the landis were agre that howe and it felde down, and the
 falling down ther was greet.

Wiclif. Matthew, ch. vi.

And abundance of rain descended, and the floods came,
 and the wyndes blow and bet upon the house, and it fell, and
 great was the fall of it.

Bible, 1551. Matthew, ch. vi.

Doth not this prety pagament of purgatory signife and prog-
 nosticate what tragedie they will pay hereafter, when the word
 of God shall blow and scatter from the face of the earth the
 darke clouds and miste of mens inventions.

Pritch. Against Rastell, the Prologue.

But Sen, ghit a blowe of mannis and of helingis agens the
 discipulis of the Lord, com to the prince of prestis and axide of
 hym lettris unto Damasko to the synagoga.

Wiclif. *Books of Apoclie*, ch. ix.

The pope which in slaying agens God and to quench the
 track of his holy spiritis, is cur chief captaine and trompet
 blowe, to set other a worke, and acheth only his own freedom,
 libertie, pruilidge, wealth, prosperitie, pleasure, pastime,
 honour, and glory.

Tyndal. Prologue on the Prophet Jonas.

And whanne the schip was ransched and myghte out asorse
 agens the wynd, whanne the schip was phoson to the blowyng
 of the wynd we weren borow with cours into an yle that is clepid
 Clouds.

Wiclif. *Books of Apoclie*, ch. xviii.

Som sayd it was long on the fire-making;

Som sayd nay, it was long on the blowing.

Chaucer. The Clerkens Tennesse Tale, v. 16390.

The fourth sevendie after this

Arcennium by name is hote,

With blowyng and with feres hot.

Gower. Conf. Am. book iv.

By means where of when men make any shouting or hallow-
 loge, or when any trompet is blowen, the sound breatheth
 and reboundeth in such wise upon the stones from one to another,
 that the echo is heard double and treble, and the sayde resonance
 farre louder and greater then it went forth.

Arthur Golding. Justice, fol. 110.

And every nyght the Scottis made great fyres, and great brutes
 with shourtyng and blowyng of hornes.

Froissart. Craycote, v. l. c. 18.

Boy, blow the pipe on till the bubble rise,

Then cast it off to float upon the skies!

Still swell its sides with breath—O beauteous frame!

It grows, it shines: be now the world thy name!

Parnell. The Gift of Poetry.

If I had found, on blowing up my fire this morning, that the
 flame was cold, and covered water into ice, I should have been
 much more astonished, than if I had detected a man reputed
 honest in the commission of an act of theft.

Beattie. Emory, part ii. ch. ii.

BLOW, v. } "A. S. *blæwan*, to blow, to blossom,
 Blow, *v.* } blossom, or bear flowers: to bud,
 Blow, *v.* } burgeon, to spring, to flourish." Som-
 Blow, *v.* } mer. In Dutch, *bløgen*; Ger. *bløsen*.

And hyggyn to blowe, & suffice to bere frut.

R. Gineceter, p. 352.

This is a propre plante quon leh and pyrrhele hit blowe
 And brynge forth fayre frut

Pieris Plowman, p. 309.

The first age was by ancient historians called golden; ambi-
 tion and covetousness being as then hot green, and newly grown
 up, the seeds and effects whereof were as yet but potential, and
 in the blow and bud.

Ainslie. History of the World, book i. ch. ix. sec. 3.

This princess having beheld the child's form and beauty,
 though but yet to the blow, so pierced her compassion, as she
 did not only preserve it, and cause it to be fostered; but com-
 manded that it should be esteemed as her own.

Id. book ii. ch. iii. sec. 3.

Although I have mention'd this mixture as the best for these
 flowers, yet you must not expect to blow your flowers every year
 equally large, in the same composition.

Miller. Gardener's Dictionary. Ceryophylla.

Tulips are generally divided into three classes, according to
 their seasons of flowering. But there is no occasion for making
 any more distinctions than two, viz. early and late blowers.
 The early blowing tulips are not near so fair, nor rise half so
 high as the late ones.

Id. 2h.

See, Syrkin, see, this new blowen rose,

The image of the blush,

Mark how it smiles upon the bush,

And triumphs as it grows! Parnell. The Rose.

The gentleman of the house told me, if I delighted in flowers,
 it would be worth my while, for that he believed he could show
 me such a blow of tulips as was not to be match'd in the whole
 country.

Tailor, No. 218.

BLOW.

BLOW-
PIPE.

the finest shaving that can be cut from a piece of platinum foil. No earthy substance was found to resist the power of the instrument in Dr. Clarke's hands, and no metallic one entirely, although grains of Iridium required a peculiar degree of care in the preparation and admixture of the gases, or fusion did not take place. Plumbago and charcoal from their nature can scarcely be considered as proper objects of experiment, unless combustion could be guarded against; and in both of these only a slight and partial vitrification was produced. In the hands of the mineralogist, the gas Blowpipe is evidently at present of little service, as all native substances yield to its power, and the slight shades of distinction arising from their different habits before its flame, do not compensate for the loss of those characteristics arising out of different degrees of fusibility. To the chemist, however, it frequently supplies a convenient mode of reducing the oxides of the most refractory metals, which from their rarity can only be obtained in minute quantities.

General manipulations.—Having thus described the most approved forms of this instrument, it remains only that some general directions be given respecting the manipulations which are common to all. The glass blower's or enameller's lamp has already been described; but the question as to what may be the most convenient and efficient fire for the common Blowpipe is by no means decided. Bergman employed a single candle; and Gahn, to obviate the inconvenience of one large taper melting on one side more than the other, bound three or four small ones together. Berzelius, a name of great authority, recommends a lamp with a thick wick, fed by olive oil. An oil lamp however, without very great care, is a troublesome travelling companion, and as there is perhaps no difference in the effect with an expert manipulator, a thick candle has our preference, and of these wax is much the best. In the case of the gas Blowpipe no flame is required, as the stream of issuing gas when once lighted, continues to burn with a light almost invisible, until some solid body be subjected to its action, when a minute star of intense light becomes instantaneously apparent. To the chemist and mineralogist, the following observations of Berzelius on the flame from a burning wick are peculiarly important. "If we consider attentively the flame of a candle, we there remark several unequal divisions among which four are distinct. Pl. XIV. fig. 12, represents the flame of a candle left to itself. At the base we perceive a small part of a dark blue *a c*, which diminishes from the wick and disappears at that point where the exterior surface of the flame begins to rise vertically. In the middle of the flame is a dark space *a d*, which is seen through the bright surrounding flame. This space contains the gaseous product from the wick, which not being as yet in contact with the air, does not undergo combustion. Around this is the bright part of the flame, or the flame properly so called. Lastly, attentive observation will shew a further envelope *e e*, only slightly luminous, having its greatest thickness at the summit of the bright flame. It is in this exterior part that the combustion of the gas takes place, and the greatest heat is produced. Hence if we introduce a fine iron or platinum wire into the flame, we may observe that the point in the wire at which ignition is most intense, is situated on the confines of the bright flame and within the exterior envelope. If the wire is very fine, its real diameter appears ungu-

larly magnified, and this apparent expansion which is an effect of irradiation, (of the same sort as the fixed stars present to us when we attribute to them any appreciable diameter,) augments in proportion as we approach the superior limit of the blue flame, so that the zone of transition, wherein the air still charged with all its oxygen first comes in contact with the flame, is the point of maximum heat.

"If now with the jet of the Blowpipe we direct a current of air into the middle of the flame, pl. XIV. fig. 13, we may perceive a long narrow blue flame *a c*, which is the same as *a c*, fig. 12; but its relative position is changed; instead of surrounding the flame, it is now concentrated in its interior. Towards the anterior extremity of this blue flame, is the point of maximum heat, the same as in the flame not acted upon by the Blowpipe. But as in that case, it was a zone, or the circumference of a circle, it is now reduced to a point of incomparably greater heat, and is capable of fusing or volatilizing substances on which the flame left to itself produced only an imperceptible effect. This enormous increase of temperature depends upon the Blowpipe disposing over a small space situate in the midst of the flame, a condensed mass of the same air which before only touched its surface and was extended over all its parts. The change here produced is in a manner such as if the flame had been turned inside out. And in addition, the remaining portion of the bright flame, which here surrounds the blue flame, prevents the dispersion of the heat produced. It requires long practice to know with certainty the maximum of heat, considering that different bodies have different modes of ignition, and that we are easily deceived by the light which they emit. To attain this maximum, we must neither blow too strongly nor too softly; in the former case the heat is carried off as fast as it is produced, by the impetuosity of the current of air, and part of the air escapes without contributing to combustion; in the other case a sufficient quantity of air is not supplied in a given time. A very high temperature is required either when we wish to ascertain the fusibility of bodies, or when we have certain metallic oxides to reduce, which with difficulty part with their oxygen, such as the oxides of iron and tin. But pyrognostic operations are not limited to obtaining the highest possible temperature; we have to produce other phenomena requiring a less intense degree of heat. These phenomena are oxidation and reduction, which are both easily effected, though diametrically opposite.

"Oxidation takes place when we bend the subject of our experiment before the extreme point of a flame, where all the combustible particles are speedily saturated with oxygen. The farther we remove from the flame, the better does oxidation take place, provided that we can sustain a sufficient degree of heat; a heat too great frequently produces the contrary effect, especially when the subject of experiment reposes upon charcoal. Oxidation takes place most rapidly on an incipient red heat. For this experiment the jet of the Blowpipe should have a larger aperture than is used for other purposes.

"For reduction, we employ a fine jet, which must not be introduced too far within the flame of the lamp; by this means we produce a more brilliant flame, resulting from an imperfect combustion, of which some particles not having yet undergone com-

BLOW-
PIPE.

BLOW-
PIPE.
—
BLOWZE.

bustion carry off the oxygen from the subject of experiment, which we may consider as submitted to heat in a sort of inflammable gas. If in this operation the body acted upon becomes covered with soot, it proves that the flame is too smoky, which considerably diminishes the effect of the blast. The blue flame was formerly considered the proper flame for the reduction of the oxides, but that opinion was erroneous: it is in truth the bright part of the flame which produces deoxidation: this must be directed upon the body so as to surround it equally on all sides, and to defend it from the contact of the air.

"I repeat, that it is the combustible atmosphere in which the subject of experiment is immersed, which most powerfully contributes to its reduction, for that which is produced by the charcoal when it is in contact with the oxide, takes place as well in the exterior as in the interior flame.

"The most important point in pyrognostic experiments is the power of producing at will either oxidation or reduction, and this faculty is easily acquired. Oxidation is so easy, that to effect it the method alone need be pointed out; but reduction requires more practice and a certain knowledge of the different modes of combustion. A very advantageous method for practice in making a good reducing flame, is to fuse a small grain of tin, and to raise it to a reddish white heat on charcoal, so that its surface may preserve metallic lustre; tin has such a tendency to combine with oxygen, that as soon as the flame becomes an oxidizing one, oxide of tin is formed which covers the metal with an infusible crust. We must begin by operating upon a small particle of tin, and gradually pass to larger grains. The more tin any one can keep in the metallic state at a high temperature, the more expert he is in his art." Berzelius de l'Emploi du Chalumeau, p. 33.

Supports.—As the only object of the enameller and working jeweller is to obtain a powerful heat in a small compass, a pair of forceps or a piece of fine wire will be sufficient to support his work in the flame. The chemist or mineralogist must however employ different supports, according to the nature of his experiment. Well-burnt charcoal is of most general application. It should be compact, and without knots and cracks, and that which is formed from the

hard woods is not to be preferred, as from its greater density it becomes a good conductor of heat. Berzelius recommends the wood of the pine or willow. The position most favourable for placing the subject of an experiment, is in a small cavity made with the point of a knife in a plane perpendicular to the direction of the fibres, or in other words, across the grain of the wood.

Wherever the reducing effect of charcoal would be injurious, a slip of platinum foil will form a convenient support, especially if any alkaline flux is to be made use of. The platinum is so bad a conductor of heat, that it may be conveniently held in the fingers. It must not, however, be employed for the easily reducible metals, as these will in many cases corrode it by forming an alloy.

A platinum wire of the form in fig. 14, was introduced by Gahn, and is an excellent support wherever a flux is to be employed, and the colour of the glass to be examined by transmitted light. The end of the wire is moistened so as to take up some of the flux, which is then fused, and being again moistened when cold, the body to be examined will adhere sufficiently to be again brought into the flame.

Fibres of cyanite were employed by Saussure, but are now fallen into disuse. Plates of mica may sometimes serve when both charcoal and platinum are excluded.

Glass tubes open and closed, forceps of various kinds for submitting the objects of experiment to the action of the flame, and fluxes of different kinds, form part of the apparatus of the mineralogist's Blowpipe; but as these belong to the peculiar manipulations of that branch of science, they cannot with propriety form any part of this article.

For further information the reader may consult Bergmanni Opuscula, vol. li. p. 455; Neri Art de la Ferrerie; Nicholson's Journal, 8vo. vol. iv. p. 106; Philosophical Magazine, vol. viii. p. 325; Saussure's Verbesserungen, &c.; Crell's Annalen, 1795; Annales de Philosophie, New Series, vol. i. p. 428; Essai d'un art de fusion à l'aide de l'air du feu, &c. &c. par M. Ehrman, suivi des Mémoires de M. Lavoisier, Strasbourg, 1787; Clarke, On the Gas Blowpipe, London, 1819; Berzelius de l'Emploi du Chalumeau, Paris, 1822.

BLOW-
PIPE.
—
BLUB.

BLOUGHTY, perhaps from bloated: his swelled; his puffy volume.

One dash of a penne might then justly answer the most part of his bloatish volume.

Hall. Honour of the Married Clergy, book I. sec. 2.

BLOWZE. } (Not in Skinner or Junius.) Ford
Blo'w'zen. } and Burton write blowze. Hall blowesse.
It seems applied

To one who has been well blowen upon, who has been exposed to blowing winds; who has a coarse, ruddy bloom.

I had rather marry a fair one, and put it to the hazard, than be troubled with a blowze; but do thou as thou wilt, I speak only of my self.

Burton. Ant. of Mel. p. 628.

GUL. Weech said ye t' most mechanically t' laugh!

Weech is your truth, your blowze, your dewdie.

Ford. The Lady's Trial, act iii. sc. 1.

Sweet blowze, you are a beautiful blossom more.

Shakspeare. Flies Andronicus, fol. 45.

Nor list I smelt of my mistress' face,
To paint some blowze with a borrowed grace.

Hall. Scivir I. book I.

I protest I don't like to see my daughters trudging up to their pew all blowzed and red with walking, and looking for all that world as if they had been winners at a snook race.

Goldsmith. Vicar of Wakefield, ch. x.

BLUB. See BLEB and BLUBBER. Ger. blaen, tumescere, turgescere, to swell.

This vice and moe my life and me deflate,
My face was blowze and bla'd with droopie wan,
And legs more like a monster than a man.

Murrow for Magistrate, p. 112.

BLOW-
PIPE.

fitted together, for use. Such are the principal forms of the common mouth Blowpipe; it should be of such a length *no* to allow the operator to have the most distinct view of the effects produced in the cone of flame. Blowpipes are made of glass, brass, and silver; and as different purposes require apertures of different sizes, it is advisable to have two or three jets to each instrument. These should be made of platinum, for the aperture through which the air passes being very small, it is frequently blocked up by soot from the flame: in this case a platinum jet may be delicately and effectually cleared by subjecting it to a full red heat on a piece of charcoal. There is some difficulty at first in maintaining a constant blast from the mouth, and certain rules of instruction have been laid down; we are however inclined to think that a little patient trial will enable any one to overcome the difficulty quite as well without rules as with them; premising only, that the pressure necessary to expel the air is produced by the muscles of the cheeks, and not by any action of the lungs.

Hooke's Alcohol Blowpipe.—Two or three very efficient Blowpipes have been devised, wherein the flame is urged by a current of vaporised alcohol issuing from a proper reservoir. Of these we shall describe Hooke's as the most convenient. In pl. XIV. fig. 6, A is a spherical boiler containing alcohol, which is introduced at the aperture E, which is then closed by a screw. B is a recurved tube, to the end of which the jets are attached; this tube is continued upwards to a considerable height in the globe, in order that the boiling alcohol may not be forced out by the pressure. C is an oil lamp, and on the flame from its wick, the jet of the Blowpipe is made to act, while at the same time a sufficient portion of heat ascends to the upper boiler for the vaporization of the alcohol. The lamp C slides up and down between the vertical pillars, being kept in its place by springs which press against them. F, the upper part of the lamp bearing the wick, is a circle freely moving round, and having the socket for the wick not exactly in the centre; by this contrivance the wick has motion round a small circle. The tube B having a small lateral motion, by combining these two the wick may be placed in any required position in regard to the jet. At D is a safety valve to allow the escape of the vapour, in case the pressure should be such as to endanger the bursting of the vessel.

There is one disadvantage attendant upon this and every other Blowpipe with an alcohol flame: that wherever metallic oxides are concerned, they are liable to a partial reduction, from the hydrogen of the spirit attracting their oxygen at so elevated a temperature. In glass work this inconvenience is peculiarly evident, by the decoloration of the lead giving to the glass a purple hue, and removing its transparency.

Enameller's Lamp.—The glassblower's or enameller's lamp is extremely simple in its construction. Fig. 7, pl. XIV. represents a small tube, having beneath it a pair of double bellows A, worked by a treadle B. A tube of about half an inch diameter conveys the current of air upon the flame of a large oil lamp C. This Blowpipe is much used by the thermometer makers. It is employed also in the laboratory for bending glass tubes, blowing small retorts, and similar purposes. With the common Blowpipe, a still, well-defined flame is preferred, but the glassworker will sometimes choose what he calls a roaring flame.

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Hydropneumatic Blowpipe.—Another very convenient form of a self-acting Blowpipe is described in Thomson's *Annals* for June, 1821. A D, plate XIV. fig. 8, represents a section of the instrument, which may be constructed of tin, but sheet copper is to be preferred. E and F are separate chambers communicating by a circular tunnel G, three inches in diameter. H and I are tubes terminating in the chamber E; the former having a stopcock to which a condensing syringe and bladder may be fitted, for introducing oxygen or any other air; the latter having also a stopcock, to which various jets may be affixed. K is a sort of well into which a lamp or candle may be inserted, and elevated or depressed by a screw and rack. Suppose either of the stopcocks open, and let water be poured into the aperture A, until it shall have expelled the air from the chamber E, and stands at the level of the dotted line above B. Close the stopcock I, and attach to H the condensing syringe; if then any species of air be impelled into the chamber E, it will drive the water up through the pipe G into the chamber F; the stopcock H may then be closed and the syringe removed; the gas in the reservoir E is in a state of slight compression, and will on turning the stopcock I, be delivered on the flame of the candle K. In this instrument, as made by Mr. Newman, BC is 24 inches, A 24 inches, of which LC = 10½, CM = 1½. The circular tunnel G reaches to within half an inch of the bottom; the breadth of the instrument is five inches.

The advantages of this Blowpipe consist in the ease with which any gaseous fluid may be made the propelling current, and thus experiments may be made in the fusing powers of the different gases with perfect convenience. The power of entire exhaustion from previously filling the reservoir with water, insures the operator from any admixture of common air, whatever gas be employed. With an instrument of the dimensions described, a regular and steady flame of two hours continuance may be maintained. This Blowpipe may remain charged for any length of time, being always ready for instantaneous use, and requiring no other preparation beyond that of lighting the wax taper employed to supply the flame. When the instrument is charged with oxygen gas the effects produced are very splendid, and with common air alone platinum foil readily undergoes fusion. A current of oxygen acting upon the flame of a spirit lamp, produces a most intense heat, inferior only to that of the gas Blowpipe, and the principle is the same, as hydrogen is supplied from the alcohol.

Gas Blowpipe.—The gas Blowpipe is a recent invention, and as yet its prodigious power in producing intense heat does not appear to have received that practical application with which we conceive it will at no distant period be enriched. The history of its introduction is simply this: Mr. Brooke had directed an instrument-maker to apply the principle of the syringe condenser to the formation of a Blowpipe, from which the tube was to deliver air instead of water. This instrument having been seen by Professor E. D. Clarke of Cambridge, he consulted Dr. Wollaston and Sir H. Davy on the practicability of passing from its jet a mixture of oxygen and hydrogen issuing in an ignited state. The intense heat produced by the combustion of these gases, when merely uniting at the orifices whence they issued from separate gasometers, had been known ever since the time of Lavoisier; and

BLOW-
PIPE.

BLUNT. FRANK.

Won by degrees, not blantly as our masters
Or unwearied friends are.

Ford. The Witch of Edmonton, act i. sc. 1.

BLURT.

His [Noy] apprehension (as 'tis said) was quick and clear, his judgment methodical and solid, his memory strong, his curiosity deep and searching, his temper patient and cautious, all tempered with no honest Measurings, far from court insinuation.

Wood. Athenæ Oxon. ii. fol. 525.

Surv. Blunt-witted lord, ignoble in demeanor.

Shakespeare. Henry VI. Second Part, fol. 135.

Now push we on, dislaid we now to fear,
A thousand wounds let every boom bear,
Till the keen sword be blurt, be broke the pointed spear.

Rosc. Lucius's Pharmacop. book v.

Soon as the father saw the rosy morn,
And the moon shining with a blazer's horn,
He hid the amble Hours, without delay,
Bring forth the needs.

Aldous. Ovid's Metam. The Story of Phædon, book ii.

For what the bark is to the growing tree,
To human mind, that, patience seems to be;
They hold the principles of growth together,
And blurt the force of accident, and weather.

Byron. An Epistle to his Sister.

— The shrewd
Contriver who first swatted at the forge,
And forc'd the blurt and yet unblurred steel
To a keen edge, and made it bright for war.

Courper. The Task, book v.

Why really, Academical, the main
Of all that Roscius, or blantly plain,
Has here been saying, that it seems so hard,
Hence truth enough to put you on your guard.

Byron. A Dialogue.

Good Jarvis, make no apologies for this honest bluntness.
Fidelity, like yours, is the best excuse for every freedom.

Goldsmith. The Good-Natur'd Men.

BLUR, v. } Blare, blow, and blurr have pro-
BLUR, n. } bably the same origin. See BLARE,
and BLOW. Blurr, may perhaps derive its usage,
from the Dutch, blare, (see BLADDER) a pustule or
blain, or spot;

To spot, to smear, to blot; to mark with any spot,
smear or stain; to disfigure, to deface.

He that doeth wickedly, although he profess God in his
words, yet he doeth not (for all that) see God truly: for he is
one with many purely scoured eyes of faith, which are blurted
with the darkness of vices.

Udall. Third Epistle of John.

I will help to rid her, from the oppression of her adroverie,
For any good mynde that I have her, but loose she will els at
length come againe, and being so many times shaken of, will
with her rallying sette a greates blurre on myne honeste and good
name.

Id. Luke, ch. xviii.

Wonder they moreover at Sergius, who, by report, was three
and twentie times wounded in sundry foughten fields, whose
noble and glorious praises Catiline, the last of that race,
marked with the blots of everlasting dishonour.

Holland. Annals, fol. 285.

This rash from some unthought of lust or color, which
either leaves a deep blur upon their evidences for heaven, or else
mischance a thick mist before their eyes that they cannot read them.

Hopkins. Sermon, fol. 756.

We have not been drawn and tressed, in order that we may be
filled, like stuffed birds in a museum, with chaff and rags and
pallid blurted sheets of paper about the rights of man.

Burke. On the Revolution in France.

BLURT, formed perhaps upon the past participle
of blurr: blurr'd, blurt'd, blurt. To throw out a blurr;
to throw out rudely, hastily, inconsiderately; without
consideration or reflection.

That name to which every knee bows, both of things in
heaven, and things on earth, and things under the earth, whether
they be angels or devils, requires from me most respect and
honour than to be idly blurted out with every rash and foolish
expression.

Hopkins. Exposition upon Third Commandment, fol. 118.

And yet the truth may lose its grace,
If blurted in a person's face;
Especially if what you speak
Shoud' crimson o'er the glowing cheek.

Lloyd. A Fable, The Nightingale, &c.

BLUSH, v. } Dutch, bloezen, bloese, perhaps from
BLUSEN, n. } bloesen, flare, spirare; and so con-
BLU'NET, } nected with blossom, bloom; ap-
BLU'NET, } plied consequently to the colours of
BLU'RING, } flowers blossoming or blooming.
BLU'NLESS, } To reddish, to be or cause to be
BLU'ENY, } red, or rosy; blooming with redness
or rosiness; to shame or ashamed.

Amphyon blurted as red
as any glowing flame;
And Orpheus durst not show his face
but hide his head for shame.

Turberville. The Lover that compared his Mistress, &c.

Hearing their indolence red how trustfully he had spoken
against the kingly Majesty his crown and dignity, they neither
blurred nor blushed.

Hall. K. Henry VIII.

This beast had it, horns like the lamb at a blurt, but all
counterfeit & false in very deed, for he spoke as did the dragon,
the horns of Christ, are his high kingdom in the world.

Bell's Image, p. 71.

Here's a light crimson, there a deeper one,
A madras blurt, here purple, there a white,
Then all cunningling for our more delight.

Henry Peacham. in Ellis, v. ii. p. 726.

If yet thine eyes (Great Henry) may endure
These tainted lines, drawn with a hand impure,
(Which fain would blurt, but fear keeps blurted back,
And therefore noted in despairing black)

Let me for love's sake their acceptance crave.

Drayton. Eng. Heroical Epit. Dedicated to K. Henry II.

Hercules the brigantine oppressed with famine, came to an
anker at the mouth of the river of May, when at the first blurt
we thought they had borne ships come from France; which
gave us occasion of great joy.

Hobbs. Voy. &c. M. Rose Lautmaniere, v. iii. fol. 336.

In anger, the eyes wax red; and in blushing, not the eyes, but
the ears, and the parts behind them.

Bacon. Sylva Sylvarum, l. 872.

Chaste Lida, the favourer was no great
On me by your confeder'd, that to content
The least addition to them, in true sense
May argue use of bluntness impudence.

Mansinger. Duke of Florence, act iv. sc. 1.

Go to, little blurt, for this, anna,

Yen's stole forth a laugh in the shade of your fan.

Ben Jonson. Entertainment, fol. 106.

We find also, that blossoms of trees that are white, are com-
monly inordinate; as cherries, pears, plums; whereas those
of apples, crabs, almonds, and peaches, are blunty, and smell
sweet.

Bacon. Sylva Sylvarum, l. 507.

He that walketh uprightly is secure as to his honour and credit
He doth not blurt at what he is doing, nor duth reproach
himself for what he hath done.

Burrow. Sermon v.

Her name was Womanhood. On one side of her sat Shame-
facedness, with blushes rising in her cheeks, and her eyes fixed
upon the ground.

Tatler, No. 154.

BLURT.

BLUSH.

BLUSH.
—
BLUSTER.

While from his ardent look, the turning spring
Averts her blushful face; and earth and skies,
All swelling, to his hot dominion leave.

— Thomson. *Summer*.

The pride of every grove I chose,
The violet sweet, and the lily fair,
The dappled pink, and blushing rose,
To deck my charming Chloë's hair.

— Prior. *The Garland*.

I envy not Arabia's odours, whilst that of this fresh blusher
charms my sense; and I find that of this fresh blusher
entertained here, that the bee extracts less sweetness out of
flowers.

— Boyle. *Occasional Reflections*, sec. v. rel. iv.

— He would stroke
The head of modest and ingenuous worth,
That blush'd at its own praise; and press the youth
Close to his side that pleas'd him.

— Cooper. *The Task*, book ii.

When now the setting sun more fiercely burn'd,
Blue vapours rose along the many hills,
And light's last streaks ting'd the distant hills.

— Lyttleton. *Uncertain*, ecl. i.

— By you gracious moon,
That rising now the dead, and instant laid
Her blushing face in twilight's dusky veil,
The flight was parried.

— Mason. *Caractacus*.

Vice now, secure, her blushing front shall raise,
And all her triumph be thou Britain's horse;
Whose worthless sons from guilt shall purchase praise,
Nor dread his hand that join'd them to scorn.

— Dodsley. *On the death of Mr. Pope*.

BLUSTER, v. } A. S. *blæstan*; to blow, to puff,
BLUSTERS, n. } to inflate; to be roaring, noisy,
BLUSTERS, n. } boisterous; as a loud, hard blow-
BLUSTERS, n. } ing wind;—to be boisterous or
BLUSTERS, n. } turbulent; to talk loudly, to
threaten loudly,

As yet we were none wjs. but ye wjd rider coult
Bote blustre forth as beson. over baries and halles.

— Penn. *Pleasures*, p. 119.

He bloweth and blustereth out at last his abominable blas-
phemy again: the blessed sacraments of Christ.

— Sir Thomas More. *Works*, fol. 374.

And I suddenly mistook, there entered into the place there I
was lodged, a ladie smellich and moste goodly to my sight,
that ever to fume appeared to any creature, and truly in the
blistering of her lookes, shee yawned and comforte, sodainly
to all my wittes, and right so shee doeth to every sight, that
cometh in her presence.

— Chaucer. *The Testament of Love*, fol. 287.

He is lyke to a proud and circumspect buildyde, that
buildeth his house not for a vaine bragge or shewe onlye, nor
to scurvy lym for a short whyle and no longer: but for a firmnesse
and steadfastnesse to stande and endure without persuayn
anye blustrous storme or tempeste to come.

— Hall. *Lake*, ch. vi.

Indeed it is the speech of the devil, but it is likewise in the
hearts of men, when they storm and bluster at the difficulties of
salvation and seriousness of the way, and straits of the gate.

— Hopkins. *Sermons*, fol. 739.

Home remember he with open cry, that he cannot have justice in
England, and you straight believe; and thereupon cometh those
often blusters.

— Burnet. *History of Reformation*, v. ii. part ii.

Pilots and masters of ships have many devices and means to
escape a blustrous and violent wind when it is aloft, but when
the same is allured and down, there is no man able to rise and
set it up againe.

— Halliwell. *Pistarch*, fol. 376.

When I am angry, he cries, prithen my dear be calm; when I
chide one of my servants, prithen child, do not bluster.

— Spectator, No. ccc.

Your drums are the blusters in conversation, that with a
loud laugh, unseasonal mirth, and a torrent of noise, domineer
in public assemblies.

— Taiter, No. 153.

As our heroes are generally lovers, their swelling and blustering
upon the stage very much recommends them to the fair part of
their audience.

— Spectator, No. xi.

Your ministerial directors blustered like tragical tyrants here.

— Burke. *On American Taxation*.

Well—now all ended—and my comrades gone,

Pray what becomes of mother's only son?

A hopeful blade!—in town I'll fix my station,

And try to make a bluster in the nation.

— She Stoops to Conquer. Epilogue by J. Cradock.

BOA, from *boi*, an *Or*, Lin. Latr. Daud. Cuv. In
Zoology, a genus of animals belonging to the family
Serpentes, order Ophidia, class Reptilia. Generic character.
Under part of the body and tail covered with
rows of transverse scales or scuta, containing not
more than one in each row; head covered with large
flat scales; no poison fangs; tail cylindrical and not
provided with a rattle.

The name given to this genus is derived either in
consequence of their great size or from a fable of
Piloxy, who says "that they attach themselves to the
teats of cows, for the purpose of sucking their milk;"
this latter notion however is so ridiculous as to
require no further comment. The genus formerly
included all serpents venomous or not, the under part
of whose body and tail were furnished with single
transverse scales, and not possessed of anal claws, or
rattles on the tip of the tail; but they are now
much reduced in number by the venomous serpents
being excluded. It seems doubtful whether this
genus was known to the ancients. They are found
principally in the Indies, living in marshy places.
They watch for their prey by the banks of rivers,
and seizing it with their mouth, throw around it several
coils of their body and squeeze it to death. When
the animal is quite dead the Boa unwrathes itself and
prepares to gorge it, by first smearing it over with
saliva, and then insinuating its jaws over it, till by
degrees it is entirely swallowed.

Curier has divided the genus into three subgenera,
the Boas properly so called, the *Eryx* and the
Eryxetia.

a The Boa, properly so called.

Has a claw on both sides of the anus; the body
compressed, and largest in the middle; the tail pre-
hensile; small scales at least on the back of the
head.

B. Constrictor, Lio.; Le Devin, Lacépède; Con-
strictor Boa, Shaw. This is one of the largest
animals of the genus, being occasionally found of
twenty-five or thirty feet in length; it is recognized
by a long chain of large black spots, irregularly
hexagonal, upon a yellowish grey or grey ground,
extending along the back, and having on either side
numerous triangular spots with their points down-
wards; the head marked above with a large longi-
tudinal band, and a smaller lateral one crossing the
eyes towards the ocell. It inhabits India, Africa, and
South America.

B. Constrictor, Lio.; Porte Anceux, Daud.; Ringed Boa,
Shaw. Of a yellow colour with a row of large brown
rings extending along the back, and blackish spots
with white centres on the sides of the body. Daudin
forms two species of this animal, the B. *Aboma* and
the B. *Annulifer* or *Porte Anceux*, of which he says,

BLUS-
TER.
—
BOA.

BLUBBER
BLUE

BLUBBER, v. *Blub, Mob, blub, blubber, and blab-*
BLUBBER, n. *her have, no doubt, the same origin;*
BLUBBER, n. *and blab, Skinner says is from the*
Ger. bluen, to swell, to puff up. A blubber is used by
Chaucer as we now use a blab.
To swell out, to distend, to puff out, to inflate, &c.
with weeping or tears.

Shaking his brand, before Cupid he came,
With reed visage, and grisly glowing eien
And at his mouth a blubber stonde of fume
Like to a boar, whetting his tuskes bene.
Chaucer. The Testament of Cressida, fol. 195.

Nor must we be so gosse to imagine, that Homer made Achil-
les or Diomed blubber, or sob, &c. but in the very point and
sting of their unweated anger, shed a few violent and swelling-over
tears.
Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book i. fol. 16.

So when her tears were stopt from eyther eye
Her singula, kicking, seem'd to make them flye
Out at her oyster-mouth and nose-thrills wide.
Brown. Britannia's Pastorals, vol. II. Song 1.

Straight again when he went from her [Cleopatra] she fell a
weeping and blubbering, looking rudely on the matter, and still
found the means that Antonius should oftentimes find her weeping.
North. Plutarch, fol. 773.

He hath created variety of these ceterous fishes, which con-
verge chiefly in the Northern seas, whose whole body being saccu-
pated round with a copious fat blubber, (which, by reflecting
and redoubling the internal heat, and keeping off the external
cold, does the same thing to them that clothes do to us) is enabled
to abide the greatest cold of the sea water.

Reg. On the Creation.

Dear Cloe, how blubber'd is that pretty face!
Thy cheek all on fire, and thy hair all warr'd!
Pr'ythee quit this caprice; and (as old Falstaff says)
Let us ev'n talk a little like folks of this world.
Prior. Answer to Chloe Jealous.

The mauling hero, like a pulling boy
Rob'd of his play-thing, on the plains of Troy,
Had never blubber'd at Patroclus' tomb.

Churchill. The Times.

BLUE, Dutch, *blauw*; (*Maupen, to*
blow) Ger. *blau*; Fr. *bleu*; Sp.
blau; Sw. *blau*; A. S. *blæu, blæw,*
blæwan, flære. Skinner sug-
gests, *flæw, (i. e. yellow,* others
the Gr. *βλεῖν, niger, subniger.* May
not the *blæu*, formerly *blæu* skye,
be the *blæu-en*, or blown skye;
the skye from which the clouds are
blown, dispersed. Vossius derives *caruleus* from *caelum*.
The word *blue* is of northern origin, and in these
cloudy regions may have been applied to that (colour)
which was produced or exposed to view by the blowing
away, clearing away, dispersing of the clouds. *Blæu*
in A. S. *blæu*, in English, was also applied to the com-
plexion, to the air of the countenance. A *blue* nose,
blue cheeks; i. e. having a colour produced by the
blowing wind. In the same manner other colours,
brown, yellow, &c. take their name from that by
which they are produced.

Among þe lētrede borðes, þe lētra ys to meo
þat for þat felle and for þerme, 3 to blæu subes
The houses and þe homes, of þen þat taken gyltes.

Piers Plowman, p. 44.

(O! the Cresside!) wol ye done a thing
And ye therewith shal stinte all his disease
Have here and bere him this blæu ring
For there is nothing might him better please
None I myselfe. *Chaucer. Troilus, book III. fol. 171.*

And for they wolde have the cyteryns knowne from other stran-
gers, therefore they ordeyned them hody partyl of rede and blæw.
Polyas. King John, Anno. 8.

Some sparkling fire on beaus' bright visage shone,
His azure robe the orient blæwens knit,
When she (whose wit and reason both were gone,)
Call'd for a squire she lov'd and trusted most.
Faefax. Gossamer of Boulogne, fol. 111.

Her stowish necke with blæw'd vaines
Stood bolt upright upon
Her portly shoulders.
Warner. Albion's England, book iv.

A tell-tale in theyre company
They never could endure,
And whose no kept not secretly
Theyre mirth was punisht sure;
It was a just and Christian deed,
To pinch such black and blæw.
Carlet. The Forge's Furnell.

First, a faire table she appoyed, of which, the feet were grac'd
With blæw'd mettall, mist with blacke; and on the same she put
A brace fruit dish.
Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book xi. fol. 153.

Men and women are there starved as blæw, that if they once
grow old, you would verily believe you saw winter walking up to
the neck in a barrel of indigo; and therefore they rail at England
for speeding so more blæw.

Fitham. Character of the Low Countries, fol. 54.

Why else this double object in our sight
Of flight pursu'd in th' air and ore the ground
One way the self same bone! why in the east
Darkness ere dayes and dawn, and morning light
More orient in yon western cloud that draws
O'er the blæw firmament a radiant white,
And slow descends, with something harm'ly fraught.
Milton. Paradise Lost, book xi.

— This tale,
The greatest and the best of all the main,
He quarters to his blæu-hair'd delfins.
Id. Comus, v. 29.

These blæu-ey'd violets whereon we lean,
Never can blab, nor know they what we mean.
Shakespeare. Venus and Adonis.

[The] colour, though it did not quite lose its wonted blæuiness,
seem'd yet to have received a great and somewhat odd walking-up
to the eye. *Experiments touching relation betwixt Flame and Air, 2.*

— Their colour' changeable variety,
First clear and white, then yellow, after red,
Then blæu pale.

Mure. Infinity of Worlds, stan. 94.

Remoter views incessantly decay,
And lights, and shadows sweetly drop away.
In blæu white the farthest mounts arise,
Stal from the eye, and melt into the skies.

Harris. An Essay on Painting.

O! have they deign'd to play,
Where Canons winds along his brother's vale,
Feeding each blæu-bell pale, and daisie pied,
That fling their fragrance round his rusky side?
Mason. Measure.

Then he perhaps, with moist and watery hand,
Shall fondly seek to press her shuddering cheek
And with blæu-moils face before her stand,
And, silencing cold, these pious accents speak.
Collins. An Ode on the Popish Superstitions of the Highlands.

BLUE-BOTTLE, or BLUE-BONNETS, (Scott's) names
given to the Centaurea Cyanus.

BLUE RIDGE, the eastern ridge of the Alleghany
mountains, running through the states of Pennsylv-
ania and Virginia, and situated about 130 miles from
the shores of the Atlantic. Mr. Jefferson states the

BLUE.
—
BLUE
RIDGE.

BOA.

"The former attains sometimes to the length of forty feet, whilst the latter is not above two and a half, and has the spots or rings on the back of a deep brown colour, whilst those of the Aboma are yellowish with brown edges;" but Cuvier considers them as a single species. It inhabits South America.

B. Ascaudae, Cuv.; *B. Scytale et Murina*, Lin.; *Spotted Boa*, Shaw. About the size of the Constrictor Boa, of a bright brown colour, with a double row of deep brown rounded spots extending along the back, and smaller ones on the sides with white centres. Native of South America.

B. Hortulana, Lin.; *Garden Boa*, Shaw. This animal has derived its name from the disposition of the colours on the head, presenting the appearance of a parterre in an old fashioned garden; these are of a dark brown colour upon a yellowish ground; the spots on the body are some of them angular, whilst others are round; the abdomen is yellow and speckled with dusky patches. It is not of large size, but is a very elegant serpent. Native of South America.

The *B. Elegant* of Daudin is considered, by Cuvier, to be the same animal.

B. Phrygia, Shaw; *Gerende* of the Natives; *Emboitered Boa*, Shaw. About four feet in length; the body is generally white, and varied on the back with black; there are three narrow black streaks on the head which run backwards to join the black patches on the back; the under surface of the animal is entirely white. It is a very elegant species and native of the East Indies.

B. Canina, Lin.; *Bojoki* of the Natives; *Canine Boa*, Shaw. About the same size as the preceding; the head is large and said to resemble that of a dog, whence it has taken its name: the colour of the upper part of the body is a beautiful green, barred transversely with white; the upper part of the body white. Native of South America. Cuvier considers the *B. Hignale* of Lacépède to be a young animal of this species.

B. Merremi, Schneid.; *Corallus Obluatostris*, Daud.; *Blunt-headed Boa*. The head larger than the neck, and of a pentagonal form; the body slender towards the head and anus; it is of an ashy blue colour, with double zig-zag streaks of brown arranged in transverse rows; the under part of the body yellowish. This species was separated to form a new genus by Daudin, under the title *Corallus*, in consequence of the two first plates under the neck being double, this however is believed to have been an accidental variety, and it has therefore been restored to the genus *Boa* by Cuvier. It is not known from whence this animal is procured.

B. Vipérina, Shaw; *Padain Cootoo* of the Natives; *Vipérine Boa*. About eighteen inches long, of a brown colour, with a black line edged with yellowish white extending along the whole length of the back, and a row of black spots on the sides. It is a native of India.

B. Carinata, Schneid.; *Carinated Boa*. Of a greyish white with dark rings surrounding the body and tail, and having oval white spots upon the belly; the scales of the body are rhomboidal and carinated, which distinguish it from all the other species. Country unknown.

β The Ergs.

Has the tail very short and obtuse; ventral scuta small.

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B. Turcica, Olivier; *Ergs Turcicus*, Daud.; *Turkish Boa*. About thirteen inches long; body round and thick; of a yellowish grey colour, spotted regularly with dusky patches. This species, with several others, have been formed into a new genus by Daudin.

BOA.

BOAR.

γ The Erpeton.

Has two remarkable scutes at the tip of the muzzle covered with scales; head covered with large scales; those of the belly but small, and those on the tail carinated.

B. Tentaculatus, *Erpeton Tentaculatus*, Lacépède; *Tentaculated Boa*. About two feet long, of a yellowish white colour slightly tinged with red, and banded longitudinally underneath with white stripes.

See Linnæi *Systema Naturæ*; Schneider, *Historia Amphibiorum*; Daudin, *Histoire Naturelle des Reptiles*; Cuvier, *Règne Animal*; Shaw's *General Zoology*.

BOANEPGES, a Hebrew name given by our Saviour to St. James and St. John, the sons of Zebedee, and explained by the context, Mark, iii. 17, to signify *Sons of Thunder*, *בְּנֵי רָעַם* *Benei Ra'am*. It seems, says Parkhurst, *ad verbum*, to be the Galilean pronunciation of the Hebrew רָעַם רָעַם: *ra'am* properly signifies a violent trembling, a commotion, and may therefore be well rendered by *Benei Ra'am*, thunder, which is a violent commotion in the air. When our Saviour thus named the sons of Zebedee he seems plainly to have had an eye to that prophecy of Haggai, xi. 6. "Yet once and I will shake (רָעַם) the heavens and the earth," which is applied by the Apostle to the Hebrews, xii. 26, to the great alteration made in the economy of religion by the publication of the gospel. The name imports therefore that James and John should be eminent instruments in accomplishing the great change, and should, like thunder or an earthquake, mightily bear down all opposition by their inspired preaching.—Parkhurst compares with this title the image used by Virgil, who calls the Scipios *Æn.* vi. 649, *divofulmina belli*.

BOAR. } A. S. *bor*; Ger. *eber*; Dutch, *beer*.
BOARISH. } Because, *beer* a barren (to bear) *die* *ait*,
quod plurimum faties gignit. Wachter and Skinner agree that it may be from the Lat. *aper*.
The English name of the *Sus Scropha*.

He vende, (I. e. fownd) and grunte, and stound agen, as yt were a strong boe. *R. Gloucester*, p. 208.

And go home hardilike, to hares and to foxes
To hares and to beches, but breketh alowne meane begges.
Piers Plowman, p. 129

The bores bede that we bryng here,
Brickmote a price with owre pryce,
Ys boreth this day to bye yd dore.

A booz ys a sovereyne beste
And accepteth [it] is in very feite
So make theys lord be to muste & leste.

This bores bede we leryng w' song
In worship of hym that thus sprang
Of a virgine to relieve all wrong.

A Christmas Carol. *Ellen as Martin*.

Only let no man think it a light sin to keep open the passage,
whereby the wild boar (of barbarism) enters the Lord's vineyard,
and whereby God is deprived of the honour due to his name.
Spenser. *An Epilogue*, fol. 18.

Found found out the boar-speare and chasing staffe.
Holland. *Plinie*, v. l. fol. 129.

BOARD.
—
BOARD.

Ren. Wherefore to Domes?

Glou. Because I would not see thy cruel nails
Pluck out his poor old eye: nor thy fierce sister,
In his annihilated flesh, sticks board'd phangs.
Shakespeare. Lear, fol. 300.

Open our ears and ports have confest,
That music's force can tame the furious beast:
Can make the wolf, or foaming bear restrain
His rage; the lion drop his crested mane,
Attentive to the song.

Frederic. Solomon, Pleasure, book ii.

Certainly you will laugh (and laugh you may) when I tell
you, that your old acquaintance is turned sportsman, and has
captured three noble boars. What! (you will say, with
astonishment) Play! *Even so.*

Melmoth. Play, book i. let. vi.

BOARD, v. { A. S. *brædan*, *bræde*; Goth. *brædan*.
BOARD, n. { " Board, by metathesis of the letter r,
RO'ARDS, { is from *brædan*." Junius; and in this
RO'ARDING. { Tooke agrees.

To board is to cover with boards, as a floor, a roof,
&c. to go or get on board a ship, and consequently to
force a way on board; also to be or come to be at the
same board or table, and consequently to take meals
at the same board; to receive at the board, to supply
the board with provisions.

Board the noun is the common word for table in
our old writers. *Bordles*, i. e. *boardless*, is used by P.
Pleshman; without a board or table.

Boarding-house; a house where a board or table is
kept.

Board-wages; wages to supply the board or table.
Board is also applied to those who sit at the board
or table: as the Board of Control, &c.

And bad ships hym a ship of shiden and of bordes.

Piers Planchman, p. 177.

And þe he sey þat þis Lof, þis traȝtor set here,
He hupre hym up fram þe boord, in þat way þe y non,
And hente þis Lof by þe top, fram þe boord hym drou,
And defouled hym under hym myȝ hende and myȝ fote.
R. Gloucester, p. 277.

I praye God if it were so I strangle of þis hrede,
& putte a morselle in his mouth with þat ilk worde,
Bifor þe kyng & þam alle þe strangled at þe boorde.

R. Brune, p. 55.

Now stond the lordes squier atte boorde,
That carf his mete, and herde, word by word
Of all this thing, of all which I huse you sayd.
Chaucer. The Sompnours Tale, v. 7824.

—And of this couche
Within his chawber if I shall touch,
Of Hebeun that spake trece
The bordes all shoute here.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 80.

To this thei saiden all yea
Ane as thei weren at the sea,
And all as who saith, at one worde
Thei gane within ships boorde.

Id. R. fol. 105.

And sche seide, this lord, for whelpis cū of the crummes
that fallen down fro the boord of her levell.

Wickl. Matthew, ch. xv.

But as the mouse, once caught in crafty trap,
May bounce and baste against the boardens wall,
Till shee hose brought hir head in such mishap,
That doone to death her fainting lymbes must fall.
Gaucique. Adventures of Serenimi.

Whilom ther was dwelling in Osenferde,
A rich goot, that prestes held to boorde,
And of his craft he was a carpenter.

Chaucer. The Millers Tale, v. 3189.

And the sayde Barlo set me to boorde in a skymers house
that dwellid besyde the house of the Englyshe nation.

Henk. King Henry VII.

As a beggers bordies by myself upon the grounde.
Piers Planchman, p. 237.

In March it was, that cannot I forget,
In this last March upon the sixteenth day,
When from Grauesend in boate I gat to ychte
To boorde our shippe in Quinborough that lay.
Gaucique. Voyages into Holland, Ann. 1572.

Sir Thomas Knact whiche was ready to have boorded the greete
ship of Depe, saw that the soveraigne had misaid the curic.

Henk. King Henry VIII.

Which the Turkes perceiuing, made the more haste to come
aboard the shippe: which ere they could doe, many a Turke
bought it deere with the losse of their lurs, yet was all in
vaine, and boorded they were, where they found so hote a
skirmish, that it had bene better they had not medled with
the feast. *Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. John Fier, v. li. fol. 131.*

But (we) received very heauie newes of the death of John
Drake, our captain's brother, and another young man called
Richard Allen, which were both slaine at one time, as they
attempted the boording of a frigate within two dayes after our
departing from them. *Sir Francis Drake Revised, fol. 45.*

He answered, that when he beheld the boardie whereupon
Darius was wont to eate employed to so base an use, he could
not beholde it without great griefe.

Brande. Quintus Curtius, fol. 109.

Where I, both weeds and wealthy courtiers keepe,
For all my guests, I now shall faine eate say,
The deare sonne of the man Vlyses, lay
All night a ship boord here.

Chapman. Homer's Odysseus, book lii. fol. 41.

The English man detested himself with incredible bravery,
and best of the French, after having been boarded three or four
times.

Spectator, No. ccc.

The two captives, with some others, took their boat and
row'd to land, and by their courteous carriage, won preuail'd
on the native to return with them on board, where they clothed
him, and gave him victuals, wine, and several little toys or
trinkets, which won the simple creature's heart.

Udys. Life of Raleigh, xiv.

May every god his friendly aid afford,
Pan guard thy back, and Ceres bless thy board.

Prior. To Mrs. E. Singer.

The wickedest of all men living, the rascall'd Decius, had
opportunities of frequently seeing and entertaining me at a house
where mix'd company board'd, and where he placed himself for
the best intention which he has since brought to pass.

Fatler, No. 45.

When war was declared against the Dutch, he [Sheffield] went,
at seventeen, on board the ship in which prince Rupert and the
duke of Albemarle sailed, with the command of the fleet.

Johnson. Life of Sheffield.

They do not appear (if we may judge from their letters to the
board) to have possessed that peculiar sort of talents and qual-
ifications, that facility and address in conveying religious truths,
that unconquerable activity, patience, and perseverance, which
the instruction of dull and unenlightened minds require.

Porteus. On the Civilization of Negro Slaves.

Nor does the boarded horse better guard
The well-stuck'd pile of dross legs and roots
From his pernicious force.

Cowper. The Task, book iv.

The ancients talk so frequently of a fard, stated portion of
provisions assigned to each slave, that we are naturally led to
conclude, that slaves lived almost all single, and received that
portion as a kind of board-wages. *Hume. Essay ii. part ii.*

BOARD, in Carpentry, technically means timber
sawed to a less thickness than nine inches, all above
this thickness are called planks.

BOARD. See **ABOARD.** To come or go on board ; and thus,

BOAST. To approach ; to accost or accost ; to address.

With sugred words also wood and spears no speech,
But boarded him with many a pleasant tale.
Turberville. The Lower world, &c.

At length her self berdeh Aeneas thus :
Unfaithfull wight, to cover such a fault
Coldest thou hope ? *Surrey. Arcadia, book iv.*

She smote her breast, and rushed through the roset ;
And her dreg she cleaves thus by her name :
Slater, for this with craft didst me board. *Id. A.*

BOAST, v. The origin of this very common word was unknown to our Etymologists. Perhaps from the Fr. *boise* ; which Cotgrave explains swolled, risen, puffed up. Eng. *boss* ; (q. v.) and Dutch, *boze*, *winlo*, *tumulus* ; as the boss of a shield. And Skinner observes that *umbo* and *tumulus* are merely things, (quasi *exsuscitantes ei inflat*) ; as it were swelling or tumid, and puffed out.

To *boast* then will mean ; to puff out, to swell, to raise or exalt, to enlarge or magnify, to exaggerate, to display ostentatiously.

For as battell at Elendone his myte myd her ost,
Ye kyng Bernulf was jure kyrcpe & bysome al ys lost
And ys fole much salawe, & he fleu wyf muhe wo.
R. Gloucester, p. 258.

Boote & delonpore pride & arilevment
Mishapone offendit, & dos may be schent.
R. Browne, p. 289.

Boasting and bragging. wyt menij holds ojes
Araving up on myr vine glorie.
Pierre Pluchman, p. 88.

And burlesque and *boast*, are ever more at wratthe
And ajther hatej ojes, and mooren nat dwell to gedere.
Id. p. 263.

Where se ye one, that he hath lafte his lef
Or bene rikind, or done her some misbef
Or pillid her, or boated of his dede
Ye may as well it seen, as ye may rede.
Cheever. Of Dido Queen of Carthage, fol. 203.

He might for byrth have boasted noble race
Yet were his manners *rotte* and always milde,
Who gave a goose by gazing on his face,
And dandled thereby, might quickly be beguile.
Gauevine. Epitaph upon Captaine Boucher.

Though Jerome was a great prater & boaster of virginity, yet was he no virgin, but may be suspected of yf rule as yoke would, for his to morbe familiarit wth the as speareth by his epistols.
Bale. Aology, Preface, p. 13.

The Franche men be curious.
When they sit at a tavern
There they be stout and stern
Boasting words for to crack.
Edile. Rem. Richard Cœur de Lion.

For yf ye ought to saye : if the Lord wyl, and if we lyue, let us do this or that. But now ye reioyce in your bayages, all such reioycing is vail.
Bible. 1551. St. Jude.

For there are perillous times at hande (saith he) by reason of some, that vnder pretence of godlynes, turne true godlynes up side downe and so prate *boastfully* of themselves as though the Christian religion consisted in words, and not rather in piousness of herte.

Udell. Argument on the Sixth Chapter of Timothy.

His ancestors renowned in war and in peace, and (Cicero) himself boasted to be descended of enemies to the people of Rome, rather than friends.
Servit. Tacitus, fol. 166.

The prince (the Black Prince) inclined himself to the yertie, honouring the kyng his father : this night they thanked God for their good aduocator, and made no *boast* thereof, for the kynges wolle that no maner shoulde be proude, or make *boast*, but every man humbly to thank God.

Piersci. Crayke, v. l. C. 131.

SAM. Can't thou for this, vain *boaster*, to survey me,
To discent on my strength, and give thy verdict ?
Come scarer, part not hence so slight inform'd.

Milton. Samson Agonistes, v. 1227.

Is it not then high time that the laws should provide by the most prudent and effectual means to curb these bold and insolent delers of heaven, who take a pride in being no more, and *boast* themselves in the follies and deformities of humane nature ?
Tillotson. Sermon iii.

But did this *boaster* threaten, did he pray,
Or by his own example urge their stay I
None, none of those, but ran himselfe away.
Dryden. Ovid's Metamorphoses, book xiii.

— The scanty stream
Slow loitering in its channel, seems to say
With Vaga's depth ; but should the eddy power,
Vain-glorious, empty his penurious bow,
O'er the rough rock, how must his fellow stream,
Deride the tinklings of the *boaster* still !
Shenstone. Economy.

But to the generous still-improving mind,
That gives the hospitable heart to sing for joy,
Diffusing kind beneficence around,
Boastful, as now becomes the silent dew.
Thomson. Summer.

Who trust alone in beauty's feeble ray,
Boast but the worth Bassora's pearls display ;
Drawn from the deep we own their surface bright,
But dark within, they drink no lustrous light :
Such are the maid, and such the charms they *boast*,
By scarce unaided or to virtue lost.
Collins. Selim, ecl. l.

Reason and morals ? and where live they most ?
In Christian comfort, or in stoic *boast* ?
Rymer. Enthusiasm.

Honest, though poor, (and who shall dare
To disappoint my *boasting* there !)
Hurdy and resolute, though weak,
The dictates of my heart to speak,
Willing I bend at satire's throne.
Chamblitt. The Ghost, book iii.

What art thou, grandeur ! with thy flatt'ring train
(Of pompous lies, and *boastful* promises ?
Where are they now, and what's their mighty sum ?
All, all are vanish !
Jago. Edge-hill, book ii.

But the right honourable gentleman has chosen to come forward with an uncalled-for declaration ; he *boastfully* tells you, that he has seen, read, digested, compared every thing ; and that if he has sinned, he has sinned with his eyes broad open.
Burke. On the Nature of his debts.

BOAT, } A. S. *bate*, *bat* ; Dutch, *boot* ; Ger. *Boatman*, } *bot* ; Swe. *baut* ; Fr. *bateau* ; It. *batello*. Wachtler says—from Ger. *batten*, }
Boatwalk, } (to beat) *truder*, *impeller*, to thrust,
Boatlike, }
Boatwike, } to dash or drive along. Bat *dicatur* de }
Cymba, quia Cymba est alieus *transitus*, qui remis *impel-* }
litur. }
Boatwain ; A. S. *bat-wain* ; Gr. *baterain* ; from *bat* or *boat*, and *wain*, a servant ; formerly applied to the rower or manager of the oars.

Notes he take & barges, he siden togidere knytte,
Ouer þe wate þat large (large) is fro bank to bank runst litte.
R. Browne, p. 241.

— So fareth hit by þe ryghful
þeah he falle he fallþ nat. *boate* na to falle is a *boate*
þat aþ is saf and sounde. þat *saþe* with yme þe *boarde*.
Pierre Pluchman, fol. 168.

BOAT. Therefore whanne thi badden cooid as fyve and twenty furlongis, or thertie, thei sawe *Boates* walkinge on the see, and to be sygh
BOATION. the boat: and thei dreeden. *Wiclif. Jen. ch. vi.*

The wisest way, thy *boate* is wane and wind to gise,
Is neither still the trade of middle streame to try,
Ne (warily shunning wrecke by wether) aye to ale,
To pressen upon perillous shore.
Uncertain Authors. Of the Golden Meane.

And as they can approach toward the fide,
This churchie *boaten* on Styx qbare he stude,
Als with as he persueit theme cum ans,
Throw the dancie wood, and draw oer the bra;
First with six custons wouldis he thim grot.
Douglas. Escudois, book vi. fol. 177.

Whom as the *boat-men* first, with eyes yprast, in comming
spied
To walke in silent woods, and how to shore their feete they
plied;
He thus began to chafe, and towards them fall lowd he cried.
Pharr.

Now nearer to the Stygian lake they drew:
Whom from the shore, the *early boatman* saw:
Ghaud'd their passage through the shady wood;
And mark'd their near approach to the flood
Then thus he call'd aloud, infam'd with wrath.
Dryden.

Such triumphe chance where such lieutenants rule,
Where will commandes when skill is out of towne,
Where buldest blondes are forced to recule,
By Simoes the *botenycow* when he list to frowne,
Where captaynes crouch, and fishers weare the crowne.
Gauvignat. The fruites of Warre.

But you may intermeddle in the offices of sailors, baylines,
justices of peace, & infinite have an eare in every mans *boat*,
and yet nothing hinder your pastoral office.
Wiclif. Defence, fol. 760.

The swan by his great Master taught this good,
Taveld the fury of the falling flood,
His *boat-like* breast, his wings rais'd for his sail,
And ear-like feet, him nothing to avail
Against the main. *Dryden. Naah's Flood.*

But th' heedful *boatman* strongly forth did stretch
His browne armes, and all his body straine,
That th' utmost sandy beach he shortly fetcht,
Whiles the dnd danger dose behind remaine.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book ii. can. 12.

You shall for the companies profite, and for the good hood-band-
ing of the virtuous aboard, call upon the *boatman* and other of
the company to use such hookes and other engines as they have
aboard to take fish with.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Parer's Instruction, v. i. fol. 273.
How would the wits of King Charles's time have laughed to
sawe seuen Nicolai exposed to a tempest in robes of ermin, and
bareing in an open *boat* upon a sea of paste-board?
Spectator, No. 5.

Full bowls of milk are hung around,
From vessels *boat-wise* for'd, they pour a flood
Of milk yet smolking, mix'd with saile blood.
Levi. The land of Sittim, book th.

You may frequently see one of the large islands sailing along
with a lower joined to it, like a ship with its long *boat*; or, per-
haps, seeming to strive which shall out-swim the other.
Melmoth. Pilgr. Letter 20. book viii.

Amid this fearful trance, a thund'ring sound
He hears, and thrice the hollow decks rebound;
Upstarting from his couch on deck he springs,
Thrice with shrill note the *boatman's* whistle rung:
All hands unmoor!
Falconer. The Shipwreck, can. 1.

BOATION. Lat. *boare, boatum*; from *boare*, the
ancient Latins formed *boare*; whence *boare*. *Boatus* at
Boa *va boau*; the roar or bellow of an ox, any roaring
or bellowing.

For who but an intelligent being, what less than an omnipo-
tent, and infinitely wise God could contrive, and make such
fine body, such a medium, so susceptible of every impression,
that the sense of hearing hath occasion for, to empower all ani-
mals to express their sense and meaning to others; to make
known their fears, their wants, their pains and sorrows in me-
lancholic tones, their joys and pleasures in more harmonious
notes; to send their mind at great distances, in a short time, in
loud *boations*; or to express their thoughts at hand with a
gentle voice, or in secret whispers!

Dorham. Physico-Theology, book iv. ch. iii.

BOB, v. "That I *bob'd* from him; that I
Bob, n. fool'd him out of. A *bob* formerly
Bo'schesay, signified a mock, a jeer. Cole renders
Bo'stail, it in his Dictionary, 1679, by *saxno*,
Bo'swig. and *bob'd* by *ulama*. To *bob* for fish
is likewise a technical term among those who delight
in angling." So far Mr. Steevens. The Etymologists
afford no insight into the origin of this word. It seems
to be usually applied

To some short, jerking action: as to *bob* in the face,
to *bob* a curtesy; to play at *bob-erry*; to *bob* for grig,
when some part of the tackle *boots* into the water.

To something short, cropt, docked; as a *bob-tail*,
a *bob-wig*, ear-*bobs*.

Whether to *bob*, to cheat, is so applied from some
short, sharp, sudden act or trick, like those of a juggler,
admits only of conjecture.

At length to marriage flat he fell,
when wedding day was done
To play her pranks, and *bob* the fools
the shrewdly wife began.

Tuckwell. A Prolie Epigram.

For Lucius thinking to become a fowle,
Became a fool, yet more than that, an ass,
A *bobbing* blocke, a bobbing stocke, so early
Well wounded at in place where he did passe.
Gauvignat. David to Bernabe.

A pot full of water cleas
Thou scoldedst upon the ples swee.
With haeyn being, and kandel light,
Thou *bobbed* the pie by night.
Weber. Romance of The Swyn Sages, v. 2242.

He maketh no collobes,
But with his dialogues
To prove our pretakes gods
And laymes very bobbs
Boating them with bobbes.
Shelton. The image of Theophrastus, in Ellis.

When fences feet are like to spes rewards
A peace of breade, and therewithal a *bobbe*.
Gauvignat. The stiel Glas.

Now night that acts on stage of ball,
In skilless bark does lie at Hell,
Which he for penance too does rig,
All day on Thames to *bob* for grig.
Junonist. The long vacation in London.

If any manne beaped by longe sitting to slepe, or by any other
countenance, to shewe him-selfe to be wery, he was woderly
bobbed on the face by the servants of Nero for that purpose
attendinge.
Sir Thomas Egist. The Governour, p. 25.

So long as they are secure of any feare and danger, they go
directly straight, letting down their horns at length along their
sides, which naturely by themselves have a round point or *bob* at
the end.
Holind. Pilgr. v. i. fol. 552.

August you
Curres, be thy mouth or blacke or white:
He *bobbed* tickle, or troublee tickle,
Tom will make him weep and waile.
Shakespeare. Lear, fol. 399.

BOB.
BOCCALE

His angle-rod made of a sturdy oak,
His line a cable, which in storms ne'er broke,
His hook he baited with a dragon's tail,
And sat upon a rock, and bob'd for whale.
King. Upon a Giant's angling.

We shall only instance one of the most useful and instructive,
bob-cherry, which teaches at once two noble virtues, patience and
constancy, the first in attending to the pursuit of one end, the latter
in bearing a disappointment. *Pope. Mortuus Scribitur.*

Upon our way from hence we saw a young fellow riding towards
us full gallop, with a bob-wig and a black silken bag tied to it.
Spectator, No. 129.

When Tom to Cambridge first was sent,
A plain brown bob he wore;
Rode much, and look'd so though he meant
To be a top no more.
Shenstone. The Extent of Cookery.

BOBANCE, Fr. bobancer, to boast.

Of my purpance
I spake to him, and said him how that he,
If I were widower, should wedden me.
For certainly, I say for no bobancer,
Yet was I never without purpance
Of marriage.
Chaucer. The Wife of Bathes Tale, Prologue, v. 26149.

Now let us be the we're of France,
And the Soudan with his bobance,
And turne eyes to fayre Florence,
How that she kam
For to dwell, throughs Goddess grace and chance,
In Jerusalem.
Wiler. Romance of Octavianus Imperator, v. 1550.

Yelle on for aye, for al haere bobance,
Ne for je snowrie of je kyng of France,
Tuenti score and fyve haire je mischaunce
By day and eke by nyht.
Rilans. Ancient Songs, p. 29.

BOBBIN, Fr. bobine, a quill for spinning wheel;
also a skane of gold or silver thread." Cotgrave.

And some of them turned in manner of spindles or bobins, as
folk spin or twist therewith, yet drawing a troubled and unequal
course, and not able to direct and compose the motion straight.
Holland. Platerch, fol. 594.

I'm sure I always lov'd coulin Con's hazle eyes, and her pretty
long fingers, that she twists this way and that, over the haspicolls,
like a parcel of bobins.
Goldsmith. She Stoops to Conquer.

BOBBING, an obscure village in the County of
Kent, remarkable only because its vicarage was once
held by the infamous Titus Oates. It stands a mile
and a half west from Milton. The population, in 1821,
was 325.

BOBBIO, a small town of Upper Italy, on the borders
of Parma, but within the dominions of the King
of Sardinia. It is situated in a hollow of the Apennines,
on the left bank of the Trebbia, and near its conflux
with the Bobbio. This town, which is almost buried
amidst hills, is surrounded by walls, and owes its origi-
nity to a celebrated convent built by St. Columbanus in
612. It had formerly the title of a County, and was
considered as the capital of the Bobbiese, which was
ceded to the King of Sardinia by the Empress Maria
Theresa, in 1743. It is the see of a Bishop, contains
about 3500 inhabitants, and is about twenty-five miles
from Pavia, and thirty north-east of Genoa. Lat. 44°
45' N. long. 9° 12' E.

BOCCALE, a modern Roman liquid measure, equal
to about two English quarts; seven boccali and a half
make one rubbia.

BOCCHETTA, LA, a narrow pass across a ridge of
the Apennines, which separates the territories of
Genoa from those of Lombardy. The ridge is also
frequently called by the same name. This defile is very
narrow, and of difficult passage; and though the dis-
tance from Novi to Genoa is not more than thirty
miles, it often requires fourteen hours to travel from
the one place to the other. This pass was considered
as the key to the Genoese territory, and was defended
by redoubts; but the Imperialists forced their way
through it in 1746, and the French effected the same
object in 1796. The ridge of Bocchetta is noted for
yielding a beautiful stone, which is a variegated ser-
pentine veined with marble.

BOCCONIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class
Dodecandria, order Monogynia. Generic character:
calyx of two leaves; corolla none; style bifid; cap-
sule of two valves, one-seeded.

A genus of the *Papaveracea*; two species are de-
scribed, one a native of Mexico and Jamaica, the other
of China.

BOCHNIA, a town in Austrian Galicia, which for-
merly belonged to Poland, noted for its salt mines.
These have been worked ever since 1261, and still
appear to be inexhaustible. They employ a great
number of workmen, and yield about 900,000 quintals
of salt annually. The town, which is situated on the
road from Lemberg to Cracow, and twenty miles east
of the latter city, contains about 3200 inhabitants,
who are chiefly employed in the mines, or in trading
in their produce. Alabaster is also obtained there.

BOCKHOLT, or BOCKHOLT, a Baillage and town of
the Prussian States, is the grand Duchy of the Lower
Rhine and Principality of Münster. The town contains
a population of between two and three thousand in-
habitants, and has some valuable iron mines in its neigh-
bourhood. Both it and the Baillage were granted as an
indemnity to the Prince of Solms in 1804. It afterwards
formed a part of the French Empire, and, with the
rest of the Principality, was assigned to Prussia in
1815.

BOCONNOC, a small village in the County of Corn-
wall, the population of which, in 1821, was 253. Ad-
joining it is a seat of Lord Camelford, which during
the wars of Charles I. was surprised by the King's
party, and made the unhappy monarch's head quarters
for a few days in August and September 1644. The
stump of an oak tree is still shown, on which tradition
says the Royal standard was fixed. While resident in
this house, an attempt was made to assassinate the
King, who was taking exercise in the hall. A fisherman
who was looking on at the time, was killed by the
bullet. In the tree just mentioned, a hole used to be
shewn as made by the ball; and to increase the won-
derment, the leaves were said to have changed colour
after the sacrilegious act. The oak in fact has varie-
gated leaves. An account of the King's residence here
will be found in Clarendon, vol. ii. p. 2. 518, &c.

BODE, v. Tooke considers the primitive word
BODEN, v. to be the A. S. *bodu*, the first outward
BODEN, s. extremity or border of any thing.
BODEN, s. A. S. *bodan*; Ger. *bieten*, to make
BODEN, known, to manifest, to announce.
BODINO. The bode came to the King (in R.
Brunne,) is the news came; it was made known.

To *bode*, to bode, and to *forbode*, are used in the
same manner; viz.

BOC-
CHETTA,
LA.
—
BODE.

BODE. To see or discern, to shew or exhibit some external, superficial appearance, sign or token; from which we infer good or ill.

BODGE.

*He bode com to be kyng, yt sofornt her in,
yt be kyng Sonne he toon wil he wyn.*

R. Brunne, p. 42.

On ye Wylonday at Barch in Lyndesoe
Com bode to be kyng, & yue gan yet aye,
yt be duke to wende had taken in his hall
Machog, pe fusttes kyng.

Id. p. 41.

Julke sterre ys seide ys eyc, bote yt boddys be.

R. Gloucester, p. 416.

In ye ger, yt he was ynone, men jsey jwys
he laytde stirre, yt get boddys ys.

Id. p. 428.

— When bodeard com jam till
To London for to com, when parliament shuld be,
Als custom was wonne, & tak for his lussre.

R. Brunne, p. 146.

His spere was of tyn cypres,

That dede werre, and nothing peas

The had ful sharpe ygreved.

Chaucer, The House of Sir Thopas, v. 13819

Alexander, who being desirous to vnder the fatal knote at Gordium a towne in Parygia, hearing that the emperour of the world was boded by an idle prophete to him that coude vnknotte it, not flinching out the ends of the strings, nor perceiving by what manner he coude doo it, drew forth his sword, and hewed it in pieces, supplying want of skill, with wilful violence.

Hardinge, in Jewel, fol. 81.

One word presenteth unto them selfe, victorie, life and liberte: the other, I dread to bode, that it may import.

Holland, Lott, fol. 278.

TRIV. This foolish, dreaming, superstitious girls,
Makes all these bodes.

Shakespeare, Troilus and Cressida, fol. 103

The strange overflowing of vice and wickedness in our land, and the prodigious increase and impudence of infidelity and impiety, both of late years boded very ill to us, and brought terrible judgments upon this city and nation.

Tillotson, Sermon 29.

The maid from that ill omen turn'd her eyes,

And with loud shrieks and clamours rent the skies,

Nor knew what signifi'd the boding sign,

But found the powers displeas'd, and fear'd the wrath divine.

Dryden, Fables and Aesop, book iii.

JARVIS. One who's voice is a passing bell.

HONEYWOOD. Well, well, go, do.

JARVIS. A favee that bodes nothing but mischief.

Goldsmith, The Good Natur'd Man.

So sad Apollo with a boding sigh,

Told his fond child the danger of the sky.

Careful the parent, such advice to give;

Could fate be chang'd, or headstrong youth believe!

Harte, Theodot of Statius, book vi.

BODGE, v. "I find," says Mr. Malone, "bodge-bodge, n. } ery used by Noah in his Apologie of Pierce Penniless, 1593, from botchery." And Mr. Steevens thinks that "we bodge'd," only means "we boggled, made bad or bungling work of our attempt to rally. A low unskilful tailor is often called a botcher."

To bodge and to botch seem nearly the same word differently written and pronounced.

Mr. Nares revives the conjecture of Johnson that we should read "budge," but the context is decidedly against it.

With this we cheery'd again: but out alas,

We bodge'd again, so I have seen a swan

With bootless labour swimme against the tyde,

And spend her strength with oar-matching waves.

Shakespeare, King Henry VI, fol. 151.

Because it followeth, in the same place, our will is to be a bodge in this, I cannot omit the consequence of this disconcerting leveler.

Whitlock, Manners of the English, 437.

BODGE.
—
BODIANUS.

BODIANUS, from the Portuguese *bodiano*, (a sea fish like the Tench.) Bloch, Lacép., Cuv., Schneider, *Bodian*, in *Zoology*, a genus of animals belonging to the family *Percoides*, order *Acanthopterygia*, class *Pisces*. Generic character: preopercule neither spined nor serrated; opercule having one or more spines.

This genus was first formed by Bloch, who took for the generic term, the vulgar name by which one of the species is known amongst the Portuguese. It has since been adopted by other naturalists, but has been confined by Schneider and Cuvier to those fishes which possess spines only on the opercule, without the preopercule or anterior piece of the opercule being either spined or serrated, by which it is distinguished from the *Cirrhitæ* and *Luganæ*, which have the preopercule serrated, and from the *Serranæ*, which have both the preopercule serrated and the opercule spined.

Lacépède has subdivided the genus into two, 1st. such as have the tail forked or divided, and 2d. such as have it round and single. Cuvier has, however, preferred the number of the spines to form the subdivision. — These spines are always placed at the posterior margin of the opercule which is loose; and Cuvier does not consider that any possess more than three spines.

a With three spines.

B. Guttatus, Bloch; *B. Jacob* Evertsen, Lacép.; *Ican-ocara* of the Japanese; *Ganinim* of the Malaya; *Jew Fish*, Brown. The general size of this fish is from twelve to eighteen inches, but Bloch believes that the *Jew Fish* described by Brown in his *History of Jamaica*, and which measured six feet in length, belongs to this species. The *B. Gutt.* has the dorsal, caudal, and anal fins partly covered with small scales, of a yellow colour, and edged with violet; the pectoral and thoracic fins yellowish; the head and body speckled with black, presenting some resemblance to the face of a person marked with the small pox; and from this circumstance the name of *Jacob Evertsen* was given to it by the Dutch seamen, who had a comrade of that name amongst them disguised by the small pox, when they first caught this fish. They ascend the rivers during spawning time, and are found in abundance near St. Helena, and in the seas of India and Japan. They are very voracious, are easily caught, and considered a great dainty. Though Schneider has described another genus of this family under the name of *Cephalopholis*, he seems inclined to believe that it is the same animal as this *B. Gutt.*, and Cuvier agrees with him on that point.

B. Bonak, Bloch, Lacép.; *B. Zebra*, Shaw; *Striped Bodian*. General colour a deep red with seven or eight brown stripes running along the head and body, and extending into the dorsal and pectoral fins; fins yellow with a brownish tinge; tail round with a transverse curved black line running along its base; native of Japan, where it is called *Bonak*.

B. Louti, Lacép.; *Perca Louti*, Lin.; *Louti* of the Arabs. About two feet long; general colour of a deep red spotted with violet; the fins edged with yellow; it lives amongst the corals in the Red Sea.

B. Miniatus, Schneider; *Perca Miniata*, Fork.; *Zarbus* of the Arabs. Of a cochineal red colour spotted with blue; native of the Red Sea. Schneider mentions

BODIANUS. two varieties of this species known to the inhabitants by the names of *Balah* and *Nadid*.

BODICE. The *B. Summense*, and *B. Radula* of Schneider, have also three spines to the opercle; as also *B. Stiellifer* of Bloch.

Cuvier has thought proper to place the *Labre Leopard* and *Labre Mouchetii* of Lacépède, together with *Perca Maculata* of Bloch in this genus, under the preceding subdivision; but there does not seem to be any reason for this change, as they are not possessed of spines according to the account of Bloch and Lacépède.

β With two spines.

B. Argentus, Bloch; *Lacép.*, *Silver Bodian*. Body oblong, and covered with small silvery scales; the fins are yellow, and the tail edged with blue. It has been taken in the Mediterranean Sea.

B. Seba, Schneid.; *Perca Oblonga*, Seba; *Seba's Bodian*. Body round; head marked with eight or nine brownish zones.

γ With one spine.

B. Aya, Bloch, *Lacép.*; *B. Ruber*, Schneid; *Acura Aya* of the Brasilians; *Red Bodian*. General colour of the animal red, the back of a deep crimson, the belly silvery; each opercle terminated by a long flat spine; is about a foot long; has the mouth very large, and the tail crescent-shaped. They are caught in great abundance in the lakes of Brazil, where they are dried and salted for food.

B. Marginatus, Bloch; *B. Apus*, *Lacép.*; *Parati Apus* of the Brasilians; *Margined Bodian*. Body red, with patches of black above the lateral line, and smaller black spots below it; the extremities of the fins and tail edged with black, and tipped with white. Found on the Brazilian coast where it is eaten, and much esteemed.

B. Striatus, Schneid.; *Striated Bodian*. The body striped perpendicularly with alternate brown and white striz; a brown stripe extending from the middle of the side of the upper lip across the eye to the posterior part of the opercle; the tips of the dorsal, anal, and caudal fins edged with blue. Native of the East Indies.

B. Macrocephalus, *Lacép.*; *Great-headed Bodian*. Is described by Lacépède from one of Commerson's drawings.

Cuvier also considers the *Anthias Striatus* of Seba and Bloch to be a *Bodian*, but it does not appear to possess any spine.

For further account of this genus see *Essay on Comparative Anatomy and Zoology*.

Linnaei, *Systema Nature*; Bloch, *Systema Ichthyologie*; & Schneider; Lacépède, *Histoire des Poissons*; Cuvier, *Règne Animal*; Shaw's *General Zoology*.

BODICE, something worn round the body.

And first she wet her comely cheeks,
And then her bodice green,
Her silken cordons of turtle twist,
Well plait with silver shoon.

Hardyknute, in Percy.

But I who live, and have liv'd twentie years
Where I may handle silke, as free, and neere,
As any merrow; or the whale-bone man
That quilts those bodies I have leave to weare.

B. Jonson. An Elegie.

Her bodice half way she unlaic'd;
About his arms she silty cast
The silken bond, and held him fast.

Prior, Love Disarmed.

When he [Pope] rose, he was invested in bodice made of stiff canvas, being scarcely able to hold himself erect, till they were laced.

Johnson. Life of Pope.

BODKIN. Skinner suggests that it may be a bodikin, a diminutive of body; on account of its thinness, its slenderness.

But on a time Brutus and Cassius,
That ever had of his high estate sov'reign,
Full privily had made conspuric
Against this Julius in scilicet was:
And eunt the place, in which he should die
With bedcham, an I shal you derice.

Chaucer. The Monkes Telle, v. 14623.

At last with bodkins dubel and dount to death;
And all his [Cesar's] glorie banisht with his breath.
Gautegaigne. The Fruits of Warre.

In the beginning of his empire his manner was to retire himself daily into a secret place for one hour, and there do nothing else but catch flies, and with the sharp point of a bodkin or writing stile strike the through: in so much, as whil one required, whether any bodie were with Cesar within? Vitellius Crispus made answer not impudently, no, not so much as a flye.

Holland. Suetonius, fol. 261.

He slizeth in indolent almost every day. They sue no speech, but give up their supplications written in the leaves of a tree with an yron bigger then a bodkin.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Ralph Fitch, v. li. fol. 209.

If I had stuck him with my bodkin, and belaved myself like a man, since he wou'd treat me like a woman, I had, I think, served him right.

Spectator, No. 506.

BODMIN, a Borough town in the County of Cornwall, on the borders of Devonshire, 234 miles west from London. It was formerly distinguished for its numerous religious foundations, having possessed a priory, a cathedral, and thirteen other churches. At present it consists of little more than a single street nearly a mile in length, containing one large parish church of irregular architecture. A prison on the plan of Howard was built here in 1779. The wool trade exists in this town, and its chief manufacture is serge. Bodmin was chartered in Edward I. reign. It sends two members to Parliament, and is remarkable as being the only open Borough in Cornwall. The summer assizes are held in this town. Population in 1821, 2802.

BODROG, the name of a river and County of Hungary. The river rises in the Carpathian mountains, on the borders of Poland, and falls into the Theys at Zokay. The County is situated at the south-west extremity of the kingdom, and has been united to that of Batsch ever since 1749. It is chiefly peopled by Rascians, mostly professing the Roman Catholic and Greek religions. There is also a noted castle called Bodrog on the bank of the Danube, and it is uncertain whether the County derived its name from the castle or the river.

BODY, *v.*

BODY, *n.*

Bo'DIEN,

Bo'SILAS,

Bo'SILY, *adj.*

Bo'SILY, *adv.*

Bo'SY-GUARD,

quicquid notus pedibus nostris calcasium subiect.

It is applied to the body—of a man or other animal, as distinguished from the members; of a tree, as distinguished from the branches; of an army, as distinguished from van-guard, rear-guard, &c.; to material

BODICE.

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BODY. things, as distinguished from immaterial; to the main bulk, the greater proportion, the united or collected mass.

To body, or to embody, is to put into bodily, corporeal, material or substantial shape or form.

To be eldest he seide first, "doxter ich bilde ye
Sey me al eldres þis herre, how muche þow lowest me,
Mie heye Gode," quoth þis mayde, "to witnessen I take echon
þy loue moue in myn herre þi leue bodye com
þan myn soule and my lyf, þat in my body ys."
R. Gloucester, p. 29.

He for despit, and for his tyrannie,
To don the ded bodies a rhabie,
Of alle our lordes, which that ben ysaue,
Hath alle the bodies in a hepy drawe,
And will not suffere hem by any meene,
Neither to ben yberied, ne yberit
But maketh honours etc hem in displite.

Chaucer. *The Knights Tale*, v. 544.

Therefore I say to you that ye be not busy to yonne lyf, what ye
schul ete, neither to your body, with what ye schul be clothid,
whether lyf is not more than mete and the body more than the
cloth?
Wiclif. *Matthew*, ch. vi.

Therefore I say unto you: be not careful for your lyfe, what ye
shall ete or what ye shall drinke, nor yet for your body, what ye
shall put on. Is not the life more worthe than mete, and the
body more of value than raiment?
Bible, 1531.

Bodily manslaughter is whan thou sleest him with thy tounge
in othere maner, as whan thou commandest to sle a man, or elles
yerst counsell to sle a man.

Chaucer. *The Friars Tale*, v. ii. p. 336.

Like to the aged boytousen bodied oke,
The which among the Alpes the northerne wyndes
Blowynge now from this quarter, now from that,
Betwixt them strite to ouerwhelme with blastes;
The whistlyng ayre among the branches rores.

Surrey. *Æneis*, book iv.

Forste for thy bodyliche kynde,
And for thy weofol soul also,
Thou shalt be hole of both two.

Gower. *Conf. Am.* book ii. fol. 46.

The signification of baptism is described of Paul in the 6th of
1st Corinthians, that as we are plunged bodily into the water. Even so
we are dead & buried with Christ from sinne.

Frith. *Works*, fol. 93.

On Wednesday the Indians of the towne having hunted a doe,
shee tookes ayle & came neere our ship, and putting off with our
boat we took her, being like unto our deere in England, not
altogether so fat, but very good flesh and good bodied.

Hakluyt. *Voyage*, &c. *Thomas Munster*, v. ii. fol. 695.

For of all forms, she holds the first degree,
That are to gross material bodies kait;
Yet she herself is bodiless and free;
And, though countlesse, is almost infinite.

Devi. *The Immortality of the Soul*, sec. iv.

Then the senate granted out a decree, that the count before
he departed from the citie, should put up a bill or application
unto the body of the people, that it would please them to elect a
dictator.

Holland. *Lives*, fol. 629.

Idea is a bodiless substance, which of itself hath no substance,
but giveth figure and forme unto shapeless matters, and
becometh the very cause that bringeth them into shew and
evidence.

Id. *Platarch*, fol. 666.

I shall render my brother into your hands, to do your pleasure
with hym, without he will obey as I will have him; so that ye
promyse me by the faith of your body, that ye shall do his person
no bodily hurt.

Frederick. *Chronicle*, v. i. C. lxxv.

Now I give up my shop, and dispose of all my poetical goods
at once; I must therefore desire, that the public would please to
take them in the press; and that every body would turn over
what is, does not like.

Prior. *Postscript in his Works*.

The ancient sage, who did so long maintain
That bodies die, but souls return again,
With all the births and deaths he had in store,
Went out Pythagoras, and came no more.

Prior. *To the Memory of Hon. Colonel G. Pitters*.

I am mightily surpris'd to see you so good a judge of our nature
and circumstances, since you are a mere spirit, and have no
knowledge of the bodily part of us.

Tulter, No. 15.

But how a body so fantastic, trim,
And quaint, in its department and attire,
Can lodge an heavenly mind—demands a doubt.

Coopers. *The Task*, book ii.

As men grew more and more acquainted with the motions and
appearances of the heavenly bodies, they became more and more
sensible, that the sun, earth, and planets, bear some very peculiar
relation to one another.

De Witt. *De Witt*, part ii. ch. 1.

But in reality it arose from very different causes: sometimes
from bodily pain, which he often felt when he did not own it.

Parker. *Life of Archbishop Secker*.

It is in the body-politic, as in the natural, those disorders are
most dangerous that flow from the head.

Melmoth. *Pliny*, Letter 22. book iv.

REGULAR BODIES, in Geometry, sometimes also called
PLATONIC BODIES, are those contained under any
number of regular, equal, and similar polygonal
planes. Notwithstanding the general nature of this
definition, yet there are only five solids of this kind,
viz.

The *Tetrahedron*, or triangular pyramid, which has
four triangular faces.

The *Hexahedron*, or cube, has six square faces.

The *Octahedron*, has eight triangular faces.

The *Dodecahedron*, has twelve pentagonal faces.

The *Icosahedron*, has twenty triangular faces.

These Bodies may be formed mechanically in paste-
board as follows. Having described the several
regular and equal polygons as indicated above, and
as shewn in figs. 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5, plate XVI. let them
be cut about half through in those lines which con-
nect the plane sides with each other; and then fold
them into their solid forms shown in figs. 6, 7, 8, 9, 10,
cementing, or uniting the edges, with glue, or other-
wise.

These five Bodies form the basis of the present
interesting science of Crystallography. Our object,
however, in this place is to examine their mathema-
tical properties: the forms arising out of the different
combinations of these solids being considered in our
treatise ON CRYSTALLOGRAPHY. It is obvious that the
surface of any of these Bodies will be found by multi-
plying the area of each face by the number of faces;
and the area of each face is found by multiplying the
square of its side by the proper tabular number given
for it in books of mensuration; that is by the area
of a like polygon whose side is unity.

Now the area of a
Triangle whose side is 1 is = $\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{3}$
Square = 1
Pentagon = $\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(1 + \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{5})}$
If therefore we denote the linear edge of each of
these solids by S, we shall have for the respective
superficies,

Tetrahedron = $4 S^2 \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{3} = S^2 \sqrt{3}$
Hexahedron = $6 S^2 = S^2 6$
Octahedron = $8 S^2 \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{3} = 2 S^2 \sqrt{3}$
Dodecahedron = $12 S^2 \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(1 + \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{5})} =$
 $9 S^2 \sqrt{(1 + \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{5})}$
Icosahedron = $30 S^2 \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{3} = 5 S^2 \sqrt{3}$

BODY.

BODY. And the solidity of the same Bodies will be ex-

BOG. pressed by

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Tetrahedron} &= \frac{1}{3} S^3 \sqrt{2} \\ \text{Hexahedron} &= S^3 \\ \text{Octahedron} &= \frac{1}{3} S^3 \sqrt{2} \\ \text{Dodecahedron} &= 5 S^3 \sqrt{\frac{47 + 21 \sqrt{5}}{40}} \\ \text{Icosahedron} &= \frac{1}{3} S^3 \sqrt{\frac{7 + 3 \sqrt{5}}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

Or by reducing these radical expressions to their proper numerical values, we shall have the following tabulated numerical results, from which the surface may be formed by squaring the linear edge, and multiplying by the proper number in the third column; and by cubing the linear edge, and multiplying by the corresponding number in the fourth column, we shall have the solidity.

Table of the surfaces and solidities of the five Regular Bodies, the linear edge being unity.

No. of Sides.	Names.	Surfaces.	Solidities.
4	Tetrahedron	1.7320508	0.1178513
6	Hexahedron	6.0000000	1.0000000
8	Octahedron	3.4641016	0.4714045
12	Dodecahedron	20.6457788	7.0631189
20	Icosahedron	8.6602540	2.1816950

See Hutton's *Treatise on Mensuration*.

BOEDROMIA, solemn festivals held at Athens, in memory of Iao the son of Xuthus, who came to the assistance of the Athenians in the reign of Erechthius, when they were invaded by Eumolpus the son of Neptune. Futareh refers the name to the victory won by Theseus over the Amazons. In either case it was derived ἀπὸ τῆς βοῆς βοῶντες—i.e. from coming to help, and gave its title to the third month of the Athenian year, which contained thirty days, and answered to the latter part of our August and the beginning of September.

BOERIMERIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Monocotyledon*, order *Tetrandria*. Generic character: male; calyx four-partite; corolla none; nectary none; female; calyx none; corolla none; style one; seed one.

A genus allied to *Urtica*. Willdenow describes twelve species, inhabiting different parts of the globe.

BOERHAAVIA, in *Botany*, (Angl. *Hogweed*) a genus of plants, class *Monandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: margin of the calyx quite entire; corolla of one petal, campanulate, plicate; seed one, naked, inferior.

This genus is allied to *Mirabilis*, *Marcel of Peru*, or *Belle de Nuit*. Twelve species are described by Willdenow.

BOG, *v.* } From the Dutch, *boogen*, *flectere*,
BOG, *n.* } *quis, sc. prementis credit*; because it
BOGOT, } gives way to pressure. *Vir Rev.*
BOGLAND, } Skinner. In A. S. *bug-an*, to bow, to
BOGTROTTER, } bend.

No part or corner man can look upon,
But there are objects, bid him to be gone
As far as he can flee, or follow day,
Rather than here so *bugg'd* in vices stay.
Johnson. Underwood. An Epistle to a Friend, fol. 184.

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Therefore of purpose he sometime brought them one way, other while another way, and at last brought them into a great *bug* or morish, full of deep holes and ditches, and where they must needs make many turns, and returns before they could get out again, and yet very hardly.

North. Plutarch, fol. 469.

This pronoun of Anapais is a very low and a marshy ground near the river; and by reason of the red water which issueth out in small branches thorough the *feny* and *buggy* ground, there breed diuers poisonfull wormes and serpents.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Sir Walter Raleigh, v. iii. fol. 639.

Go, conquerors of your male and female foes;

Men without hearts, and women without home.

Each bring his love a *legion* captive home!

Such proper pages will long trains become.

Dryden. Prologue to the Prophets.

For he that is deeply engaged in vice is like a man laid fast in a *bug*, who by a false and lazy struggling to get out, does but spend his strength to no purpose, and sinks himself the deeper into it.

Tillotson. Sermons 28.

While, at each step, his trembling rider quakes,

Appall'd with thoughts of *bug*, or cavern'd pit.

Or track'd your curst, subsiding where they tread,

Tremendous passage to the realms of death!

Jago. Edge-hill, book iii.

For if I have been led into *bugs* and quagmires, by following an icalis fateum, what can I do better, than to warn others to beware of it?

Reid's Enquiry, ch. i. sec. 8.

It's a damn'd long, dark, *buggy*, dirty, dangerous way.

Gallatin. She Stoops to Conquer.

BOGGLE, *v.* } The diminutive of *bug*; *q. d.* to
BOGGLE, *n.* } stick in the mud, labouring in vain
BOGGLE, } to disembarass yourself. *Skinner*.
BOGGLE, } To stick or stay, as if sunk in a
bug; unable, afraid, unwilling to proceed or advance, and thus—to hesitate.

He [Edw. Bagshaw, jun.] fell to the old trade of conventicling and railing addition, for which being ever and anon troubled, (he) had at length the oaths of allegiance and supremacy tendered to him, but he *bugg'd* at them at first, and afterwards denying to take them, was comprised prisoner to Newgate.

Wood. Athens Oxon, ii. 492.

BOG. My lord, I do confess the ring was hers.

KIN. You *buggie* shrewdly, your father starts you.

Is this the man you speak of?

Shakespeare. All's Well that Ends Well, fol. 253.

CLEO. Good my lord.

ANT. You have been a *bugger* ever,

But when we in our viciousness grow hard,

(Oh misery on!) the wise Gods seal us eyes.

Id. Antony and Cleopatra, fol. 357.

What wise man or woman doth not know, that nothing is more dry, touchy, and *buggish*, nothing more violent, rash, and various, than that opinion, prejudice, passion, and superstition, of the many or common people?

Sp. Taylor. Art's Handman, p. 172.

'Tis true indeed when a sinner is first tempted to the commission of a more gross and notorious sin, his conscience is apt to *buggie* and start at it, he doth it with great difficulty and regret.

Tillotson. Sermons 10.

BOGMARUS, from the Icelandic *vogmæ* or *vogmæ*, the Virgin of the Gulf, Schneid, *Vogmæ*. In Zoology, a genus of animals belonging to the family *Tonioides*, order *Acanthopterygii*, class *Pisces*. Generic character: dorsal fin extending along the whole of the back; small pectoral fins; tail consisting of ten radii; no anal or ventral fins.

This genus has been described from a dried specimen by Brunnich under the name of *Gymnogaster Arcticus*; but Schneider has preferred latinising the vulgar name, by which it is known amongst the Icelanders.

B. Islandicus, Schneid. *Cuv.*; *Icelandic Vogmæ*. It

4 a

BOG-
MARUS.
BOHEMIA

is about four feet long, with the body long and compressed, covered with deciduous silvery scales; the vertex parallel with the back, broad above the nostrils, and keel-shaped near the spine: from the middle the body begins to diminish in size, and terminates in a sharp tail: the lateral line running along the belly, furnished with oblong scales, radiated and furnished with a curved hook, which rises from the centre of the scale; the belly rough with a double row of little prominences; the general colour silvery, with black marks between the eyes on the neck and back, and above the vent. This fish is taken occasionally on the coast of Iceland, being left in the creeks by the ebbing of the tide; the natives believe it to be poisonous and therefore do not eat it.

B. lanceolatus, Cav.; *Regalee lanceolé*, Lacép.; *Lance-tailed Vogmere*. This fish is described by Lacépède in his genus *Regaleus*, but it cannot belong to that as it does not possess any ventral fins which the *Regaleus* has; Cuvier and Schneider seem inclined to place it here:—It is of a golden colour shaded with brown, and has the tail shaped like a lance; it is described from some Chinese drawings.

See Bloch *Systema Ichthyologie* à Schneider; Lacépède, *Histoire des Poissons*; Cuvier *Règne Animal*.
BOGNOR, a hamlet of the parish of South Berstead, in the county of Sussex. Sir Richard Hotham, ori-

ginally a London hatter, who acquired large property in East India shipping, built the greater part of the village, which in 1784 consisted only of a few fishermen's huts. It is now a fashionable resort for sea bathing. Distant 64 miles from Chichester, 69½ from London.

BOGOTA, RIO DE, or FUXUA, a river of South America, in the kingdom of New Granada, which rises near the city of Santa Fe, and after watering the elevated plain on which the city stands, forms the cataract of Tequendama, where it escapes from the south-west part of that plain. A little above the fall, the river is about 140 feet wide, but it contracts to 40 feet before it reaches the crevice, which appears like a rent in the mountains produced by an earthquake. This contraction increases the velocity of the water, which by a double bound is suddenly precipitated through a space of nearly 600 feet in perpendicular height, forming an assemblage of all that is grand and sublime in these phenomena. A column of vapour rises like a thick cloud from the yawning gulf, and may be seen at Santa Fe, a distance of fifteen miles, reflecting all the colours of the rainbow.

BOGOTA is also the name of a river in the kingdom of Quito, which unites itself with the Santiago and San Miguel, before they mingle their confluent waters with the Pacific Ocean.

BOHEMIA.

Name. BOHEMIA, a kingdom of Europe, situated towards the centre of Germany, and forming a part of the Austrian Empire. Its name is derived from the German word *Borheim* or *Roheim*, implying the residence or country of the Bœi, a branch of the Celts, who are supposed to have passed from Gaul into Germany about 600 years before the Christian era. Those tribes having proceeded as far as the frontiers of Quadi and Sarmatia, settled in that part of the ancient Hercynian forest, which then spread itself over the present Bohemia. In the reign of Augustus, they were conquered by the Marcomanni, who kept possession of the country till the sixth century, when they were displaced by the Slavonians, under a leader named Czechow, who governed with such wisdom and clemency, that the Bohemians still call themselves *Czechowians*, and their country *Czechy*. Bohemia is situated between latitude 48° 30' and 51° 5', and is bounded by Saxony and Silesia on the north, Bavaria and Austria Proper on the west and south, and Moravia on the east. It forms an oval figure, comprising about 90,245 square English miles, and a population, according to the latest enumeration, of 3,303,300 individuals, which is about 158 persons to each square mile. In addition to its present territories, the kingdom of Bohemia once comprised Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia.

Division. Since the year 1751, Bohemia has been divided into sixteen circles, (exclusive of the metropolis, which ranks as a separate district,) each of which derives its name from its chief town. These circles, with their extent and population, in 1811, are the following; viz.

Circles.	Square miles.	Population.
Prague, district of ..	55	51,966
1. Heraus	1406	131,770
2. Biczow	1053	195,117
3. Budweis	1670	169,095
4. Buntzlau	1617	313,592
5. Chrudim	1362	241,786
6. Czeaslau	1298	178,259
7. Elzbogen	1000	188,472
8. Kaurzim	1037	142,805
9. Klattau	879	139,265
10. Königgrätz	1287	202,602
11. Leutmeritz	1349	291,138
12. Pilsen	1596	168,943
13. Prachin	1830	209,416
14. Rakonitz	1064	133,015
15. Sautz	919	113,086
16. Tabor	1277	159,639

Few countries have their outlines more distinctly marked by nature than Bohemia. It resembles a vast basin, the bottom of which forms a plain considerably elevated above the sea, and nearly encompassed by lofty mountains. The Suedetic chain and the Riesengebirge bend round its north-east frontier; the mountains of Moravia encompass it on the south and south-east; the Bohmerwald, (a part of the ancient *Sylva Hercynia*) rises on the west, and the Erzgebirge on the north. Much of these mountains are composed of granite, upon which gneiss, mica, slate, porphyries, and other primitive rocks repose, and are covered with flints, limestone, and other species of more recent formation. A great part of the western chain, as its name implies,

BOGNOR
BOHEMIA

Outline
and present
surface.

Mountain
and present
surface.

BOHEMIA (Bohmerwald—Bohemica Forest) is covered with thick forests, and even its highest summits are generally clothed with brushwood; but on the east and north-east, the upper parts of the ridges are bare. The Suedetic chain resembles an immense rampart, surrounded by a succession of other ramparts, placed transversely upon the first; while the most elevated and naked of these surrounding heights is the Riesengebirge, signifying in the German dialect, the Mountains of the Giants. On the side of Saxony, the highest of the summits attain an elevation of 3600 or 3700 feet. On the east they are higher, but we are not acquainted with any correct determination of their real height. From these ridges the surface generally slopes towards the centre. The form and appearance of Bohemia induced Werner, the celebrated German mineralogist, to think that it had once been a great inland sea or lake, which had ultimately forced a passage through its surrounding barrier at Winterberg, by opening the narrow and rocky ravine through which the Elbe now passes from Bohemia into Saxony.

Bohemia is nearly divided into two parts by the river Moldau, which flows from south to north, passes the capital, and falls into the Elbe. This last is the principal river of the kingdom, and is the recipient of the other streams that rise towards its confines, and flow to the interior, till they are lost in the Elbe, which there pours their accumulated waters through the narrow passage in the mountains above mentioned. The principal of these tributary streams are the Moldau, (the second in the kingdom) the Aupa, the Crelitz, the Orlitz, the Dobruha, the Iser, and the Eger. Such, however, is the general and continued declivity of the surface of Bohemia, that no lakes or stagnant marshes are found, by which the salubrity of the climate might be deteriorated. This, indeed, the nature of the country and the surrounding mountain barrier, render one of the most agreeable on the globe under the same degree of latitude. Italy scarcely presents a more delightful spring, while the intensity of summer and the rigour of winter are so mitigated by local circumstances, as only to introduce an agreeable variety of seasons. Towards the elevated borders of the country, however, the air is often sharp, and the influence of winter prevails to a greater extent. Snow lies all or most of the year in some of the secluded spots or cavities near the summits of these ridges. In most of the lower parts, the soil consists of a rich mould capable of yielding all the vegetable products with proper culture, for which the climate is adapted. The art of cultivation, however, has made but slow progress in Bohemia; yet so liberally is the labour of the husbandman rewarded, that this kingdom exports a variety of vegetable products to surrounding states. Grain, pulse, hops, flax, and hemp are grown in considerable quantities. All kinds of fruit are abundant and some of them of superior quality. Wine is made of an excellent flavour, but the vineyards do not receive that attention which the nature of the soil and the climate demand. Saffron and some other medicinal articles are cultivated, but the great crop in most parts is hops, which are perhaps not excelled in quality by those grown in any other country. A great portion of Bohemia is necessarily covered with mountains and forests; and according to the estimate of M. Blumenbach, in 1816, the average produce of its arable lands since 1786, has been of

	Metzen.
Wheat.....	1,874,241
Rye.....	10,067,145
Barley.....	4,149,429
Oats.....	8,978,546

Total 24,369,361

The arable land in this country is estimated by the same writer at 2,828,437 joch, from which taking away one-third for fallow, there remains 1,885,618 joch; whence the average produce of each joch was about 13 metzen. As the joch is very nearly an English acre and a half, and a metzen $1\frac{1}{2}$ Winchester bushels, by dividing 22 $\frac{1}{2}$ by $1\frac{1}{2}$, we shall have 15 $\frac{1}{2}$ bushels as the average produce of each English acre; a sufficient proof of the state of agriculture upon a rich soil. The extent of the Bohemian vineyards is also stated by this writer at about 4408 joch, and the produce at rather less than six eimers per joch, which gives 26,448 eimers for the whole produce. Now as the eimer is equal to 15 English wine gallons, this is only about 60 gallons, or less than a hoghead for each English acre.

The cattle of Bohemia are of an excellent breed; Animals, the horses are also of great value, and the sheep have lately been much improved. The whole number of these in Bohemia, in 1815, according to an official statement, was,

Cattle	875,255
Horses	119,192
Sheep	1,000,341

Numerous herds of swine are reared in the Bohemian forests, as well as other parts of the country. Domestic fowls are also objects of great attention. The pheasants of this kingdom are among the most beautiful in the world. Wild fowl and game of various kinds abound as well as wild boars, horses, wolves, bears, foxes, and several smaller kinds. The rivers and ponds likewise produce a great variety of excellent fish.

Gold has been discovered in various parts of Bohemia, but the quantity has not been considered sufficient to cause the mines to be worked by a government, which possesses the precious metal in such abundance in another portion of the empire. Silver is more plentiful, and its mines have been worked with much success. The richest of these mines were those of Kuttenberg, but these were some time since inundated. Others yielding much valuable ore, are worked at Joachimsthal. Besides which, the same metal is also found in the circles of Pilsen and Prachin, as well as in the district of Elnbogen. The whole annual produce, however, is not very great; but this rather arises from the abundance in other places of the empire, than from any deficiency in this. It has been stated at 2400 marks of eight ounces each. Iron is very generally diffused through the mountains of this country, and the various mines yield nearly 200,000 quintals a year. Copper is found in the district of Elnbogen, and both that and the lead are often mixed with silver. Besides these metals, which are common to various other countries of the European continent, Bohemia produces the most valuable tin that has yet been discovered except that of England. These mines, too, are the more remarkable, as beyond them that metal is not found in Europe towards the east. Nor is it again discovered till we reach Sumatra, Banca, and Japan. This metal

Climate and season.

Soil and culture.

Vegetable produce.

BOHEMIA

Copper.

Tin.

BOHEMIA abounds particularly in what is called *zinkfeld* (tin forest) towards the western confines of the country; and there are not less than ten mines in the circle of Saatz, and two in that of Leutmeritz, which produce a sufficient quantity for the whole consumption of the Austrian Empire. The net annual produce of all these mines, with the exception of iron, has been stated at a million of Vienna florins, or about £100,000. Cobalt, zinc, arsenic, antimony, manganese, and other minerals are also met with in several districts. Sulphur, vitriol, and coal are likewise found, as well as fine marble, jasper, alabaster, serpentine, and other substances of that class. Various gems have also been found in Bohemia, among which are included the sapphire, topaz, garnet, hyacinth and pyrope. Of these the garnet and pyrope are highly valued, the others are but little esteemed. Bohemia is also noted for its mineral waters, which not only attract numerous visitors, but are sent to most parts of Germany. Two of the most celebrated of these places are Teopltitz and Carlsbad.

Prague is the Capital of the kingdom, and may with propriety be considered as the second city in the Austrian dominions, at least on the north of the Alps. It stands on the river Moldau, towards the centre of the country, and from its covering several hills, and containing many palaces and churches, its exterior appearance is imposing. Many of the streets are spacious. Most of the houses are built of stone, and interspersed with fine gardens. The fortifications, however, are of little importance, since Prague has been repeatedly besieged and taken. The ancient palace, the cathedral, and numerous churches are among the principal public buildings, as well as a magnificent college formerly belonging to the Jesuits, but its great ornament is the University. The population of Prague, though much reduced, is about 80,000, and it is the only city in the country whose commercial transactions are of a general or extensive nature. Nearly one-sixth of its inhabitants are Jews, who have several handsome synagogues. A recent traveller observes, "the name of Prague seems to have been recorded in characters of blood: the battles and sieges of which it has been so often the theatre, makes it in a degree more familiar to one's imagination than most of the other German towns. Its aspect is forlorn and dreary; wide deserted streets, dirty Jews and begging monks, ruinous palaces and mauldering Gothic churches are the first objects to greet a traveller's eye on his entrance. Prague derives its name from the bridge which crosses the Moldau, and which is 1800 feet long and 35 broad, and consists of twenty-four arches. On the battlements are arranged thirty-two statues of saints, and on each end is a high Gothic tower of handsome architecture. The cathedral is a fine old Gothic building, beautifully placed on the steep side of the western hill, overlooking the river and bridge, and the greatest part of the city. It suffered severely from the bombardment of the Swedish army during the thirty years war, and the mischief then done still remains unrepaired. The University of Prague was founded by Charles IV. in 1347. It was the first in Germany, and was attended at one time by 40,000 students, who rushed in such crowds from the lecture rooms, that a bell used to be sounded a quarter of an hour before the classes were dismissed, to give notice to the inhabitants to leave the streets clear. But this University can now scarcely boast the

attendance of 400 ragged boys; and desolation fills up the vacancies of a metropolis, which once gave the laws in morals, science, and politics to the rest of the German Empire. The arts still linger, but it is only to trace the relics of past magnificence, or to bewail the loss of those treasures of which their city was despoiled by the barbarous Swedes. It is impossible to mention the name of this fallen city and not call to mind those of John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, the successors of Wickliffe, the precursors of Luther, and the champion martyrs of truth; or to be insensible to the "glorious feelings with which the blind Ziaca was inspired; who rising like a phoenix from the ashes of Huss and Jerome, spread the vengeance of heaven over the kingdoms of those princes, who, by suffering their safe conduct to be violated by the Council of Constance, had become the cowardly accomplices of these legalized murders." The celebrated astronomer Tycho Brahe died at Prague in 1601.

Teopltitz, which is situated near the north-west borders of Bohemia, is the next town of general interest, and has long been celebrated both in that and the adjacent countries for its springs. It is thus described by a traveller who visited it a few years ago: "Teopltitz is like Bath in our own island, the summer resort of the fashionable valetudinarians of Saxony and Bohemia, who flock thither in multitudes to lounge, bathe, and gamble. Its waters are said to have been in good repute for the cure of gouty, rheumatic, and paralytic complaints, for upwards of ten centuries, having been discovered some time about the year 762. The springs are seventy-seven in number. The only peculiarity of these springs is the large portion of muriate of lime which they hold in solution. The heat varies from about 98° to 110° of Fahrenheit. The environs of Teopltitz are magnificent. The valley in which it stands is about six miles in extent, surrounded on all sides by screes of lofty mountains, of the most sublime character of beauty, in some parts covered with fine forests, in others dotted with corn fields, or richly coloured with purple heaths, from which the naked pinnacles of rock rise towards the sky. Scattered in the hollows around are some beautiful villages. Hanging over the town is a rocky mount crowned by a ruined castle, which was one of those strong-holds of that mysterious and unfortunate order, the Knights Templars."

Prior to the middle of the last century, the manufactures of Bohemia were of little consequence; but since the peace of Hoberberg, they have experienced so rapid an improvement as now to surpass most other continental countries of equal extent. By their cheapness and superior quality, almost every foreign article has been expelled from the Bohemian market. They embrace silks, linens, woollens, cottons, cambrics, laces, thread, hats, paper, ribbands, stockings, hardware, porcelain, mirrors, fire-arms, and works in tin, with several other metallic productions. They occupy a great proportion of the inhabitants; but we are not acquainted with any official statement having been published, either of the value of the several articles, or of the total amount of the whole; and to state those of former periods, or to give partial estimates, would rather lead to error than afford correct information. A variety of restrictive circumstances fetter the commerce of Bohemia, but still there are few countries where the balance of trade is more uniformly in its

Principal towns.
Prague.

Teopltitz.

Manufactures.

Commerce.

BOHEMIA favour. Nearly the whole of this trade consists in exporting the manufactures and products of the country; for the import of most foreign articles is either prohibited, or so restricted by heavy duties, as to amount nearly to a prohibition. The countries with which the trade of Bohemia is the most extensive, are Austria, Italy, Spain, Portugal, and Turkey; but most of the commercial transactions are in the hands of Jews, Greeks, and Armenians, to the great injury of the natives. The elegance which the Bohemians have attained in cutting and polishing glass, has occasioned a great demand for their glass vessels both in Europe and America. Most of the manufactures of Bohemia are carried on for the great land-owners; and as few of these reside in the country, the balance of trade which is so much in its favour, is of little use to the generality of the inhabitants, as the profits are usually spent in the Austrian metropolis instead of adding to the general capital of the country. The want of communication with the sea, except by a single river, and that passing through foreign states, is also a great impediment to the Bohemian commerce, which is at present chiefly carried on through the medium of Vienna, Trieste, Leipzig, and Hamburg.

The Emperor of Austria is also King of Bohemia, and the general government is intrusted to six courts. 1. The Council of Regency or great Royal Council, which consists of the supreme Judge, or Burgrave of Bohemia, with eighteen Lieutenants of the king, and other assessors. 2. The Superior Chamber of Justice in which the Grand Master of the kingdom presides. 3. The Chamber of fiefs. 4. The new Tribunal, for judging the appeals of the German vassals, having a President, Vice-president, and other officers. 5. The Royal Chamber of finances, under the superintendence of a President and Vice-president; and the Chancery, which always follows the Court, and is consequently established at Vienna. The States or apparent Legislative body, consists of the nobles, clergy, and deputies from several towns, which meet annually at Prague, but rather to receive the orders of the Court than to enact measures of their own. There are also Courts of Justice established in each of the circles, with the privilege of appeal to the High supreme Court at Prague. The peace establishment of the Bohemian army consists of between 50,000 and 60,000 men; and all matters relative to this branch of the government, are under the management of a military tribunal instituted at Prague. The annual revenue is about £2,000,000. sterling.

Christianity is supposed to have been introduced into Bohemia as early as the sixth century. The inhabitants, however, seem to have been but imperfectly acquainted with its principles and doctrines before the Greek forms were adopted, nearly 300 years afterwards. The Roman forms and rites were subsequently reestablished by Basilais II. and have constituted the national religion ever since. Bohemia has also been conspicuously engaged in the religious discussions and struggles of Germany, and is noted for

the part it took in those conflicts, when John Huss and Jerome of Prague stood courageously forward as the champions of the primitive faith, till the Council of Constance consigned them to the stake in 1415. The wars that followed have already been alluded to, and after the banishment of the Hussites and Protestants in the 15th and 17th centuries, Roman Catholics and a few Jews alone remained; but since Joseph II. passed the edict of general toleration in 1781, the number of those who differ from the Romish church has increased, and they are now estimated at 100,000, nearly half of whom are Jews, and the rest Lutherans and Calvinists, with a few members of the Greek church. The Archbishop of Prague presides over the Bohemian church, assisted by the three suffragan Bishops of Leitmeritz, Konigsgratz, and Budweis. Before the reduction of monastic institutions in the Austrian Empire was effected by Joseph II. Bohemia contained no less than 165 of these establishments, not more than half of which now remain. Education and literature have been encouraged and improved during the last half century. In 1785, an Academy of Sciences was established at Prague, with several other academies, and a great number of schools for the instruction of youth, in other parts of the kingdom; yet learning is almost totally neglected, and literature is at a low ebb. The low state of both literature and science, however, is attributed to the circumstances of the country rather than to any want of genius or ability in the inhabitants. The fine arts have also been encouraged, and Societies established for their promotion, particularly music, in which the Bohemians have long been noted for their taste and attainments; and the orchestras of Prague are said to excel those of Paris in correctness of harmony, and brilliancy of execution.

As the Bohemians derived their origin from the Sclavonians, so both their appearance and language still bear a strong analogy to those of the Sclavonic states. The inhabitants of Bohemia have therefore a great resemblance to the Poles, but their language has now acquired a mixture of German words. They are indisputably the best troops in the Austrian service. There is no middle state of society in the country, each man is a petty king or a slave. The state of vassalage and poverty in which the peasants are obliged to subsist, at once insures them the most perfect obedience, and trains them to bear hardship and hunger with a kind of stoical apathy, and thus fit them for the fatigues of war, and especially the want of food, which to a German is worse than death. The peasantry on the Imperial demesnes have now been released from the bonds of feudal slavery; and it is to be hoped that this laudable example of the Sovereign will ultimately be followed by the Bohemian nobility. See *Tableau Statistique de la Monarchie Autrichienne*, par MM. Raymond et Roth. 1809; *Peuchet's Dictionnaire de la Geographie Commerciale*; *Riesbeck's Travels*, vol. II.; *M. Hassel's Staats und Address-Handbuch der Teutschen Bundes-Staaten*, 1816.

BOHEMIA
BOHUS.

Education,
literature,
arts and
sciences.

Government.

Army and
navy.

Religion.

BOHEMERWALD, or **BOHEMIAN FOREST**, one of the great ridges of mountains in Germany, on the west of Bohemia, and extending through part of Bavaria and Passau. It is almost entirely covered with wood, and

contains numerous glass-houses, iron-works, and other metallurgical establishments.

BOHUS, a government of Sweden, in West Gothland, forming the greater part of the province of

BOHUS. Gotheborg. It has the title of Duchy, and extends about 11½ miles in length, and twelve or fifteen in medial breadth; and is bounded by Elsborg on the east, and the Scagger-Rach on the west. This district originally belonged to Sweden, but was afterwards annexed to Norway, and finally assigned to the former country by the peace of Roskilde, in 1658. Much of it is a level fertile country; but contains several forests and lakes, and is watered by numerous rivers, the largest of which is Gotha-Elf, terminating in the North Sea, near Kongelf. The inhabitants of this province are principally employed in agriculture and the fisheries, particularly that for herrings, which supplies a considerable article of their comforts. They also trade in wood, cattle, hides, tallow, pitch, and lime.

BOIL, v. } Fr. *bouillir*; Lat. *bullire*; perhaps
BOIL, n. } from the Gr. *βούλλω*, I throw, to
BOILANO, } throw forth; sc. from the surface.
BOILERS. } The noun, when applied to an ebulli-
tion or ejection from the surface of the skin, is written
bile by Wielif and Tindall; and the opinion of Ety-
mologists, who consider it to be correctly so written
are given under *Bila*.

To *boil* is to throw up, sc. boils or hubbles; some portions of a solid mass above the rest; and thus to fluctuate; to effervesce; to agitate or cause to be agitated; to be heated, as water by fire to *boiling* heat.

Met. to be warm, animated, ardent, eager.

—*Raymond scabbies*
Bules and blotches, and brennyng agnus
Frenesye and snale ureles. *Piers Plowman*, p. 396.

For certes when the pot *boileth* strongly, the best remedy is to withdraw the fire.

Chaucer. The Parson's Tale, v. li. p. 374.

The stomake koke is for the hall,
And *boyleth* meate for them all
To make hem mightie for to serve
The herbe, that he shall not stirre.

Gower. Conf. Am. book vi. fol. 144.

Then *boyl'd* my breast with flame and burning wrath,
To revenge my town unto sack ruin brought:
With worthy pain on her to work my will.

Surrey. Arcadia, book ii.

In this year (1542) the 14th daie of Marche, there was a moule *boiled* in Southwiche for poisoning divers honest persons that she had dwelled with in the citie of London.

Folger. King Henry VIII. Anno. 1542.

And when the place was marked in Normandy, and diligently sought out, the warblers behelde a fearful batteryng and terrible *boyleng* in a serue water, an horrible stynking smoke arysynge thereof.

Bale. Veneries, part ii. p. 42.

How happy were those, in very helth
Of this great battle that had bravely dy'd!
When so their loving husbands, in the fight,
Fell out the sharp steel through their side.

Drayton. The Battle of Agincourt.

The spyr estrued downe into the dykes, where ther was no water, nor none coude abyde ther, for it was all a quicke *boyleng* made.

Proinsius. Grangely, v. i. c. 321.

And so the black-guard are pleased with any lease of life (for some 999) especially those o'the *boyleng* *Amur*; they are to have *Medas* kettle hang up, that they may come into it when they will, and come out *reviv'd* like so many strip'd snakes at their pleasure.

Ben Jonson. Marston. Mercurius Flaccidus.

He can give you favour, when he pleaseth, in the sight of the worst enemies in the world, so as to make them your best friends: and how long soever he may suffer their choler to *boil* in their breasts, he can keep it from breaking forth either at their hands or tongues.

Beveridge. Sermon cxxiii.

The kettle *boil'd*, and all prepar'd

To give the morning treat

When Dick, the country luss, appear'd,

And, bowing, took his seat.

Cunningham. The Broken China.

O mope my senses in oblivion's balm,
And sooth my throbbing pulse with balient hand;
This trumpet of my boiling blood becometh
Despair grows mild at thy supreme command.

Warren. Ode to Sleep.

[God] hides a plague

Kindle a fiery soil upon the skin,

And purify the breath of blooming health.

Cowper. The Task, book ii.

BOJANOWA, a town of Prussia, in the Grand Duchy of Posen, near the borders of Silesia. It contains nearly 3000 people, many of whom are employed in the manufacture of cloth. Most of them are Germans, of the Lutheran profession; besides these there are many Jews, by whom nearly all the trade of the place is carried on. The town house and church are good buildings, but the town itself suffered greatly by fire in 1791, 1792, and 1794; though in each instance it was soon afterwards rebuilt.

BOINITZ, a circle and town of Hungary. The town stands on the river Neitra, about twelve miles nearly north-west of Kremnitz. It has a castle in the vicinity, and contains a good church; but is most noted for a warm bath in its neighbourhood. The circle of Boinitz contains five market towns, and is principally inhabited by Bohemians of Slavonic origin.

BOIS-LE-DUC, *SILVA DEES*, or the Duke's Wood, sometime also called *Hertagenloech*, which implies the same thing, is the Capital of Dutch Brabant. It stands in a low, sandy, but cultivated tract, at the confluence of the Doumel and the As, which was anciently envered with a wood, where the Dukes of Brabant used to pursue the pleasures of the chase. The town was originally built by Duke Godfrey III. towards the close of the twelfth century, though it was afterwards considerably enlarged. It is of a triangular form, and about three miles in circumference, nearly encompassed with a morass, and can be completely surrounded with water at pleasure. It is defended by walls and bastions, and is entered by four gates, terminating causeways, and approached at three openings by water. The cathedral, which was built in 1566, by the Bishop of Liege, is one of the finest structures of the kind in the Netherlands. It had originally a wooden tower supported by free stone pillars, and of such a height that it could be seen from Antwerp, but this was destroyed by lightning in 1564. There were formerly four other churches, but three of them are now used as warehouses. When the town belonged to the Catholics, it contained a number of monasteries, and that which belonged to the Jesuits is now the Governor's palace.

The town is intersected by numerous canals, which are crossed by more than fifty bridges, and sometimes in winter it can only be approached in boats. The population has lately been stated at 14,500, many of whom are employed in trade and manufactures. The former is facilitated by the canals, and the latter consists chiefly of linen, needles, knives, and some other metallic articles. Bois-le-Duc suffered greatly in the religious wars of the sixteenth century, and did not finally belong to the Dutch till 1689. An engagement between the French and English took place near it in

BOIL

BOIS-LE-DUC

BOIS-LE-DUC. 1794, in which the former had the advantage, and in October of the same year it was taken by General Pichegru. It also surrendered to the Prussian army under General Boute, in January 1814.

BOIST. Fr. *boiste*, a box. See Box.

I pray to God to save thy grateful corps

And every last fal of thy liturary.

Chaucer. The Pardoner's Tale, v. 12239.

And there is a vessel of gold, full of manna, and elanthes and ornaments and the tabernacle of Aar, and the tabernacle square of gold, with 12 precious stones, and a bag of Jasper green.

Mausole. Vna. and Tru. p. 103.

BOISTOUS, } Dutch, *büten*; Ger. *beizen*,
Bo'ISTOU'LY, } *morder*. *Beissend* is a keen
Bo'ISTOU'NESS, } biting wind; as the north wind.
The Dutch *büster* is furious, raging, turbulent. And from these *boistous* and *boisterous* may have been formed, and applied to any thing.

Turbulent, tempestuous, stormy, violent; to any thing coarse, rude, noisy.

I am a *boistous* man, right thus say I.

Chaucer. The Merchant's Tale, v. 17160.

He on a day in open audience

Fal *boistously* hath said his sentence.

Id. The Clerk's Tale, v. 8666.

Wherefore here of your gentleness

I you require my *boistousness*

Ye let passe, as thing rude

And search what I wold conclude

And of the ending taketh no heed

Ne of the termes, so God you speed.

Id. Dream, fol. 354.

And no man pettish a clout of *boistous* cloth into an old clothing, for it doth avey the fulness of the cloth and a worse belyng is made.

Ricli. Matthew, ch. ix.

One is soft, meek, & gentle, as was Daniel, John, & Peter, an other is *boistous*, hardy, and vehement, as was Helian, Esay, & Paul.

Id. Image, part ii. p. 16.

Time makes the tender twig

To *boistous* tree to grow:

It makes the oaks to overthrow

The slender shrubs below.

Turbulent. Time Compared with all things.

A cruel sort of false disciples and wicked heretics arose up fro among them, all earthly minded to countenance, puffed up with pride and ambition, inflamed also with anger, spite, & vengeance, they *boistously* entered among the people, so mutable and fickle as the sea, which changeth with every wind.

Id. Image, p. 111.

But when he cast his eyes a little from Jesus, and began to looke about him, and to consider the *boistousness* of the winds, the hurling of the waves and his own febleness, he was affrayed again, and began to sinke downe & he is danger of drowning.

Id. Matthew, ch. xiv.

BOISTEROUS, }
Bo'ISTOU'LY, } See Boistous above.
Bo'ISTOU'NESS, }

The *boistous* winds off their high bowen do blast,

Here stiches in me continually be shed,

Wild beasts to them, fierce love in me is fed:

Unmannerly am I and they *boistous*.

Wyet. The Lovers Life Compared to the Alps.

When dreadful swelling sea, through *boistous* windy blasts,
So tosses the ships that all for nought serves ancor, saile, and masts:

Who takes not pleasure then safely on shore to rest,

And see with dread and deep dismay, how shipmen are distress'd?

Psalmist. Psalms. The felicity of a Minute, &c.

—To the house top I climb

And hark'ng stood I: like as when the flame

Lightens in the eurn, by drift of *boistous* winds:

The silly herdmen all unwaried stand.

From the kye rock, while he doth here the sound.

Surrey. Ariosto, book ii.

—Vp the tower I climb by stairs on his,
And layde mine eare, and at it I stood none me round to spy.
And even as fire in *boistous* wind some country ripe of corne
Doth burne,
The plowman wringing from the rock beholds and heares the sound.

Phaer. Ariosto.

These lust thou exhorted as a father, & proved them: but vato the other y' harkt bene a *boistous* synge, laid harde to their charge, & condoned them. *Id. 1353. R. of Wisdom, ch. xi.*

She holds no longer hande;

But (tygerlike) she take

The little boy fall *boistously*

Who now for terror quakes.

Georgic. The Complaint of Phlegonius.

Or when with *boistous* rage the swelling male,

Push up by mighty winds, does hoarsely roar;

And beating with his waves the trembling shore,

His sandy girdle scorns, and breaks earth's rampart door.

F. Fletcher. The Purple Island, con. 12.

For he [David] before had not been as'd to these,

Nor him at all the *boistousness* can please;

His purget gall'd his neck, his chin beneath,

And most extremely hinder'd him to breathe.

Drayton. David and Goliath.

Spread then towards Vales's shores thy speedy wing,

Where round his anils ceaseless hammers ring.

Did him no more his *boistous* bellows ply,

Till heaven-built Argo sail securely by.

Fletcher. Apollonius Rhodius, book iv.

On the contrary he took the fact for granted, and so joined in with the cry, and halloo'd it as *boistously* as the rest.

Shakspeare. Twelfth Night, ch. xx.

Lord Coningsby, Mr. Stanhope, and Mr. Lechmere were the principal interrogators; who, in this examination [of Prior] of which there is printed on account not ascertaining, behaved with the *boistousness* of men elated by recent authority.

Johnson. Life of Prior.

BOLA-BOLA, or BORA-BORA one of the Society Islands in the southern Pacific Ocean, discovered by Captain Cook in 1769, in lat. 16° 32' N. and long. 151° 55' W. Its rugged precipitous shores are surrounded by coral reefs, full of islets, as productive and populous as the parent island itself. It is in fact nothing more than a lofty mountain, perhaps originally a volcano, rising from the bosom of the sea and covered with a luxuriant vegetation except on the eastern side. All the tropical fruits and vegetables common in these islands abound in the lower lands near the sea. The natives, said to have been the posterity of malefactors banished from other islands, are famous for their intrepidity and conquests. Cook's *Fogages*; and *Missionary Voyage* by Captain Wilson.

BOLCA, the name of a village and a mountain of Italy; the former is not of sufficient importance to merit description, but the latter is one of the most singular spots on the globe. *Mount Bolca* is distant about twenty miles nearly north-east from Verona, and the surrounding territory bears strong marks of former volcanic action, as well as of having once been covered with the sea, though now wholly destitute of those active energies of nature, and at least fifty miles from the nearest shore. Petrifications of plants, shells, land, and maritime animals, leaves, birds, and insects are found deposited in almost every direction; sometimes in separate beds, and at others variously combined with scorica, lava, burnt earth, and other volcanic productions. What is still more extraordinary, most of the rivers, seas, and climates of the globe appear to have been rendered tributary to the stores of Mount Bolca, where the petrified fishes of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America form one combined mass. Large masses

BOISTE
RUS.
—
BOLCA.

BOLCA. of stone, distinct from the ordinary substance of the mountain, are found embedded in the side of the hill, more than 1000 feet above the present level of the sea; and it is chiefly in those that the fossil fishes are found. The stone is of a calcareous nature, and capable of being split into laminae of various thicknesses, and is of the kind sometimes denominated by Mineralogists a marly schist. Its colour is of different shades from whitish to black, and it emits a peculiar fetid odour when struck or rubbed, which has been supposed to arise from animal petrification. When the stones are split the remains of the fishes appear of a dark brown colour, and are consequently very conspicuous on the lighter ground of the stone. Their natural shape and dimensions are frequently but little distorted, the whole form is usually distinct, and the harder parts, as the head, fins, spine, and other bones are well defined. The substance of that which appears to have been the fish is hard, brittle, and rather glossy, except the joints of the vertebrae, and some of the other larger bones, which, notwithstanding they present the same external appearance, contain cavities filled with beautiful crystals. In accounting for the different colour of the stones in which these fossil substances are found, naturalists have ascribed it to the chemical effects of their bodies on the stone, which cannot have been in an indurated state when they were originally embedded. Similar specimens have been found in different parts of the globe, and at various elevations above the sea; but in these nothing more than the simple impression of the fish is usually seen, but here the size and shape of the animal is not only well preserved, but the residue of the animal matter seems still to remain. The parts, at all events, which represent the fishes are of a different substance from the rest of the stone in which they are enclosed, and bear a considerable resemblance to the flesh of mummies, which induced M. Volta to denominate the state of these fishes *natural embalming*.

Of the many hundreds of these fishy specimens that have been dug from the quarries of Bolca, the greater part are of the species still found in the European seas, but others are such as have only been discovered in the rivers of India and America, and many of them are of the kinds that still inhabit the fresh water streams both of our own and of neighbouring countries. Among these petrifications various specimens of the genus *Chetodon*, which appear to be natives of the African and Indian seas, have been described. The *Chetodon Menoleucus*, lately taken near the shores of Japan, and still existing in the African sea, has also been found in a perfect state in the rocks of Bolca; as well as the *Chetodon Argus*, bearing a perfect resemblance to those caught in the rivers and stagnant lakes of India. The *Chetodon Arcuatus* is described among the specimens of Bolca, though we are not aware that this has ever been discovered in the European seas. But a still more singular species is the *Chetodon Ferseltii*, the seat of the old ichthyologists, which seems solely to belong to the sea in the vicinity of Japan. An excellent specimen of this singular fish has been discovered, ten inches in length from head to tail, and about nineteen and a half in extreme breadth. The petrified fishes of Mount Bolca are, however, by no means restricted to the genera which are known to

exist at present, as several have been found which are now unknown. Many singular insects have also been found embedded in this general sepulchre, among which has been enumerated the American *Cicuer*.

Various theories have been offered to account for these and other circumstances relative to the present state of the constituent parts of Mount Bolca; but as they rather display ingenuity than produce conviction, and as the subject is still deeply involved in obscurity, we shall not enter into the discussion of them. Some facts, however, have been ascertained which indicate a very rapid transition from the animal to the fossil state; among which the following are too striking to be passed over without notice. A young shark which was discovered there, and is still preserved, though only twenty-five inches long, was found to have some sea crabs in his stomach in a half-digested state. When the voracity of this animal is considered, it is evident that death must have ensued very soon after these had been swallowed. In other instances an incipient putrefaction seems to have commenced, which has been suddenly arrested in its progress by the petrifying process. But the most singular proof of the rapidity of this transition, consists in the skeletons of two fishes imprinted on the same stone; the one of which had seized the head of the other, and seems in the act of swallowing it at the very moment in which the change took place. These facts obviously point to volcanic action as the grand agent in this transformation, a supposition which has been confirmed by the more recent discoveries of ejected fishes in other parts of the globe, and particularly by the stupendous phenomena that have occurred in the Andes. The ashes discharged by submarine volcanoes, which have formed new islands, have also been thought sufficient to account for most of the phenomena observable at Bolca, though there are others which it is not easy to reconcile with this theory. On this subject Domenico Testa, who has investigated and described these appearances, observes: "Volcanic showers have fallen on Bolca, and destroyed together the fishes of the sea, the birds of the air, with the trees and plants of the earth. Thus did an eruption form that celebrated cemetery of fishes, which has, for two centuries, been equally the admiration of the learned, and the wonder of the ignorant. It might be the work of a few hours, or at most of a few days; a truth which should so much the more impress the minds of those naturalists who from the phenomena exhibited by the fossils of Verona, derive self-convincing arguments for the great antiquity of the world." That the sea once covered the present site of Mount Bolca appears to be generally admitted; and those who have adopted the volcanic theory of its foundation conceive that a vast quantity of calcareous and calcined matter was suddenly discharged into the ocean; that fish within its influence were at once destroyed, the matter became pulverized, and after subsiding, enclosed them in the deposit. The effect of such an infusion of calcareous matter is thus described: "The stone (in which the fishes are enclosed) is wholly calcareous, of a light colour, of a dull though fine grain, and entirely destitute of any crystalline or sparry appearance. Now, it is well known that limestone, whatever may have been its original colour, becomes either white or whitish by being calcined, or more or less converted into lime; that after this calcination it immediately

BOLCA falls into powder on being immersed in water; and by agitation is easily diffused through this element, from which, if left in tranquillity, it soon subsides in a pulverulent state. The diffusion of lime in water quickly deprives those fish within its reach of life; and there is every reason to believe that the deposition of this mixture possesses in a high degree even in water, the property of quickly absorbing the oily and other soft parts of animal matter, without destroying the harder and firmer part of the animals. This theory has been supposed sufficient to account for the formation of the laminous stones which compose a great part of Mount Bolo, and for the manner in which the numerous specimens of fishes have been so completely preserved in the process of that formation. But for further particulars we must refer to the various Italian works that have been written upon the subject; among the authors of which we shall merely enumerate the names of Bozza, Spada, Testa, Fortis, and Maffei. See also *Societas Phycorum Veronensis, Ittiologia Veronensis del Museo Bozziano*, 1796.

BOLCH, an elevated mountain of France, in Alsace. It forms part of the chain of the Vosges, and is situated in the department of the Upper Rhine. It consists properly of two distinct parts; the one is near Gebweiler, in the arrondissement of Colmar, and is about 3800 feet in height, being considered as the highest point in the range; the other part lies near Giromagny, in the arrondissement of Belfort, and contains silver and lead ore, granite, porphyry, and alabaster. The road from Sundgau to Lorraine crosses the part of the ridge.

BOLD, *v.* A. S. *byldan*, to build, to confirm, to establish, to make firm, and sure and fast, to consolidate, to strengthen. **BOLDEN**, *adj.* And thus (adds Tooke) a *man of bold face*, confirmed courage; i. e. a confirmed heart, is properly said to be a *bolded*, *built*, or *bold man*, who, in the A. S. is termed a *byld*, *bylded*, *ge-byld*, *ge-bylded*, as well as *bold*. The A. S. words *bold* and *bold*; i. e. *built*, *built*, are both likewise used indifferently for what we now call a building, (i. e. *builden*) or strong edifice. Tooke, ii. 129.

To *bold* or *bolden*; is to confirm the courage, to give additional courage; or (as we now say) to encourage or embolden. **Bold**, the *adj.*, is also applied to the extreme of courage, to that which is a daring, audacious, impudent; as well as to that which is Fearless, intrepid, dauntless, courageous. To that which is Well, firmly, built; strongly constructed, either in nature or art, as a *bold* count; or, in painting or statuary, a *bold* figure.

Many & mylk þu wanne. many folk & bold.

Jin þu se stal of Yrland, so icht habbe y told.

R. Glouceter, p. 43.

Jie hjaþes oen dred, & alle þe world þam knewe,

For alle þe grute boldede, þe dede git don þam threwe.

R. Brunne, p. 340.

Boldly þie camen, & sehered þu to his face

Fall it to gode or grace, þie did þam in his grace.

Id. p. 327.

Now has Ellred orde of help & socoure,

For boldnes he wold him bynd to sem berde in boare.

Id. p. 40.

YOL. XVII.

Be ge seure þe bolders to breke þe ten bestes.

Piers Ploukman, p. 164.

Angerist thus soþe laddie hundredes at his haunc

And pryde bar yf better boldische thoughte.

Id. p. 396.

Alexandre wel joly byldidh;

His Greceya (i. e. Greece) ful false he boldeth,

With Antioche, and Mark of Rome,

That the kin to socoure coma.

Wcher. Kyng Alexander, v. 2457.

One beam of rath is in her cloudy look,

Which comfortes the mind, that erst for faw shooke;

That bolded straight the way; then seke I hear

To viter forth the smart I byde widow;

But such it is, I not how to begin.

Wych. The Mourning Lover.

Swiche thinges maken children for to be

To some ripe and bold, as men may see,

Which is ful perillous, and hath ben yore;

For al to some may she learn love

Of boldnesse, whan she woxen is a wif.

Chaucer. The Doctores Tale, v. 1201.

For I preie thou that Iest I present be not bold bi the trist in which I am geoid to be bold into summe that demen us as if we waarden after the Boich.

Wych. 2 Corinthians, ch. x.

I beseech you that I ned not to be bold when I am present (with that same cōfidence, wherewith I am supposed to be bold) against some whiche repete vs as though we walked carnally.

Bible, 1551.

The disciples being boldened with these sayings beganne somewhat to stande in their own conceits, and as though they had of their own strength been able to abide and beare their lordes death that was at hande, they answered on this wyse.

Wych. John, ch. xvi.

And he spoke boldlier: no, if I should dye with the, I wold not deny the.

Bible, 1551. March, ch. xiv.

And this dare I boldly aduise, that they, which feare not God but for purgatorys sake, shall neuer come in it no nor yet in heuen.

Prick. Works, fol. 25.

Hee was a bold farwel that set the first foot into the channell of the sea: and every step that they set in that moyn way, was a new exercise of their faith.

Bible. Cont. of the Plagues of Egypt, l. fol. 838.

A christian so long as he preserves his integrity to God and to religion, is bold in all accidents, he dares die, and he dares be poor.

Taylor. Sermon x. v. l. fol. 98.

But after, bolden'd with my first success,

I dar'd essay the new-found polle, that led

To slavish Musco's dullard obsequies.

P. Fletcher. The Argument, Eclogue 1.

Sick-thoughted Venus makes amain unto him,

And like a bold-fur'd suitor 'gins to woo him.

Shakespeare. Venus and Adonis.

They all approved well of this speech of his, and willed him to speak boldly without heedful modestie in that case, what he thought in equitie & reason the most & people of Rome was to yield unto him by way of just recompense.

Holland. Livor, fol. 973.

He (Romulus) had no sooner ended his prayer, but diuers of his men that first began to be suborned to fly before their kingly, and a sudden boldness came upon them, and their fear there-withall vanished away.

North. Plutarch, fol. 24.

Bold is the critic who dares prove

These heroes were no friends to love;

And bolder he, who dares aver

That they were enemies to war.

Prior. Anna, ch. 1.

In every state and condition of life, we may with an humble boldness address ourselves to him as to our Father which is in heaven, and so always rest secure under his paternal care and conduct.

Beccridge. Sermon, 66. v. 1.

BOLD.
—**BOLKEN-
HAYN.**

Among them there was one laden with wisdom, who being demanded, what he intended to have done with them? *boldly* answered, to have hung up the English chair.

Odys. Life of Raleigh, xv.

It is a bold philosophy that rejects, without ceremony, principles which irrevocably govern the belief and the conduct of all mankind in the common concerns of life; and to which the philosopher himself must yield, after he imagines he hath confuted them.

Acid's Philosophy, ch. i. sec. v.

Ask an Englishman, however, whether he is afraid of death, and he *boldly* answers in the negative; but observe his behaviour in circumstances of approaching sickness, and you will find his actions give his assertions the lie.

Goldsmith. Citizen of the World, let. xii.

He will know the savage and warring temper of that sanguinary tyrant; he knew that this boldness of expostulation would sooner or later bring down upon him the whole weight of his resentments.

Purton, l. lect. iii.

BOLD, from built, builds, or as we now say building. See **BOLD** above.

From London to Wyndeshore he wende to se here
Ye fayre halles, & ojer bold, but hys ladye let here.
R. Gloucester, p. 363.

But Ich per eygge move a stiker bold a rere.

Id. p. 116.

BOLÉ, in *Mineralogy*, appears to be a fine clay, coloured by oxide of iron. There are several varieties of this substance, which are now used as pigments; one of these, the Lemoian earth, or *Terra sigillata*, has here also used as a medicine by the eastern nations, from very remote antiquity.

It was in ancient times collected, or dug up, in the Island of Lemnos, by the priests, and by them only, and was held so sacred, that severe punishments were inflicted on all others who interfered with this prerogative. Whence collected it was formed into small circular pieces, impressed with the seal of Diana, whence its name of *Terra sigillata*, and sold as a remedy for poison, for the plague and other diseases.

It is now dug up but once a year, in the presence of the clergy and magistrates of the island; it is cut into cylindrical pieces of about an ounce in weight, and stamped with a seal, having on it the Turkish name of the mineral.

The *Terra siena*, so frequently used in painting, belongs to this species of mineral.

BOLETUS, in *Botany*, a genus of the tribe *Fungi*.

BOLINGBROKE, a small market town in the county of Lincoln, distinguished only as the birth place of Henry IV., who, so that account, was named Henry of Bolingbroke. A few vestiges of the castle in which he was born still remain. The family of St. John derives its title of Viscount from this place, which manufactures earthenware in considerable quantities. Population in 1691, 753.

BOLKENHAYN, the name of a circle and tow in Silesia. The circle borders on Bohemia, and is a fertile and populous district, containing about 350 square miles, and nearly 60,000 inhabitants. It produces abundance of wood and coal, and is well stocked with cattle. It contains six small towns, with a great number of villages. The capital of the district has the same name, and is situated about 40 miles south-west of Breslau, and has a castle on an adjacent hill. It contains a Lutheran and a Catholic church, with about 1300 or 1400 inhabitants; who, as well as many of the others in the circle, are employed in the manufacture of linen.

BOLL, v. } Ger. *bol*; any thing which has a
BOLL, n. } round, globular, or spherical form or
Be'longing shape, from *bolten*, *verleere*, *colours*,
restore. Wachter. See **BALL** and **BOWL**.

To **boll**, is to round by circumscription, by rotation, and then, generally, to round, to rise out in a round form or shape, to swell out.

Wicliif renders *inflammas*, *bolnings*.

But this well that I here reverse
So bolshene was, that the world awarage
Bolles hartes, and venen puerce
Of painedith, with all the cruel rage.

Chaucer. The Black Knight, fol. 271.

If I were a fleashy felowe, & a preacher of lyes, and told them that they might yett babbyng and bollyng & be drunken: O that were a prophete for this people.

Shakspeare. All's well, ch. ii.

And by the theate-balls he caught Alein
And he him hent dampnously again,
And on the nose he smote him with his fist.

Chaucer. The Reeve Tale, v. 4278.

He thought it the acte of a wyse man in to get him to a resting place, and to leave y^e following of such a doubtful captayne, which with a leaden sword woulde cut his own throate bolle.

Shakspeare. King Henry IV.

The flaxe & the barley were smytten for the barley was shot y^e and the flaxe was leavelle, but the wheate and the rye were not smytten, for they were late sown.

Bible, 1551. Exodus, ch. ix.

Ghe ben bolene with pride. Wicliif. I Gorynth. ch. v.

Lost p^{er}suasione stryngyng, ewyes, stantenesia, dimensious, and detractionis, priy spectis of discord, bolynge bi pride, debais ben among gloos.

Id. Galatians, ch. xii.

Drawn at a cart as he of late had be,
Distained with bloody dust, whose fete were bewine
With the straight cordes wherewith they haled him.

Jursey. Sonnet, book ii.

A little sell or cup, to sacrifice & offer unto the gods withall.

Holland. Lovers, fol. 611.

But after that his bodye began to bolne w^t stryppes, and that he coulde not abide the scourges which p^{er}ceded rayn y^e bare bones.

Bruden. Quixote Curtius, fol. 168.

All fell upon the high-hair'd oaks and doune their curled browes
Fell boaling to the earth; and up went all the doles and bowes.

Clayton. Homer's Iliad, fol. 311.

The *magnus carmen* is nothing else but a weak, an incoherent kind of loudstone, veined here and there with a few magnetical and ferreous lines; but chiefly consisting of a stery and clammy substance; whereby it adheres like *Arcturion*, or *terra leuista*, unto the lips.

Bruden. Vulgar Errors, p. 73.

The goodly hole, being got
To certain cubit height, from every side
The boughs decline, which taking route afresh,
Spring up new holes, and those spring new, and acrer,
Till the whole tree become a particu,
Or arched arbour, able to receive
A numerous troupe.

Ben Jonson. Masques, fol. 109.

Yet Phœbus loves her still, and, cutting round
Her hole, his arms, some little warlike be found.

Dryden. Ovid's Metamorphoses.

I hopp'd the branchy head; shelt in twain
Sever'd the hole, and smooth'd the shining grain;
Then posts, capacious of the frame I raise,
And bore it, regular, from space to space.

Pope. Odyssey, book xxiii. 260.

And severing near the root its solid base,
I smooth'd the rugged stump, till it became
A potentail, and, equalling it by line,
Fam'd next the shapely pillar.

Cropper. Odyssey.

BOLL-
—BO-
LOGNA.

The pipe (for 'twas a pipe of soul)
Raising himself upon his heels,
In smoke, like smoke of old,
Did thus his sentiments unfold.

Swart. *Poëte xvi.*

BO-
LOGNA.

BOLOGNA, the ancient *BONONIA* and *FELSINA*, a city of Italy, the former capital of the Duchy of that name, and the second city in the Papal dominions. The Duchy bordered on Tuscany and Modena on the south and west, and contained about 300,000 inhabitants. Bologna stands in a rich valley at the foot of the Apennines, between the rivers Savona and Reno; the former of which washes its walls, while the latter, in several streams, passes through the city, and afterwards joins the Po by means of a canal. The appellation of *Felsina* has, by some writers, been derived from a word in the language of the ancient Gauls, signifying a hill, and is supposed to have been applied to this city, from its situation in reference to the Apennines (*Tableau Historique, &c. de la Haute Italie*); others derive it from *Felsinus*, a Tuscan King, by whom the city is supposed to have been originally built, about 95 years before the foundation of Rome. The name of *Bononia* is also traced by some to *Bonus*, a successor of *Felsinus*, while others deduce it from the *Boti*. Bologna is a spacious city, of an oblong form, and encompassed with a wall between five and six Italian miles in circuit. Many of the streets are narrow and gloomy, from the houses being chiefly built upon arcades, and the carriage ways are, like those of Chester, considerably below the porticoes used as paths for foot passengers. The houses are flat roofed, and little regularity is observable in the arcades, some of them being high and others low, some supported by round and others by square pillars. The noble appearance of the town is, however, greatly enhanced by the numerous churches, convents, and other public buildings which it contains. Bologna has been compared to the figure of a ship, having the high tower of *Asinelli*, near the centre, which resembles the main-mast, with others of an inferior height towards the extremities. This central tower was built by *Gerardo Asinelli* in 1109, and is the highest in Italy except the *Capota* of Saint Peter's at Rome. Its altitude is 371 feet. It is a square tower, ascended by 464 wooden steps, and leans between three and four feet from the perpendicular. Near it also stands the leaning tower of *Garisenda*, which inclines about eight feet from the vertical line. It was in the church of Saint Petronius that the coronation of Charles V. by Pope Clement VII., took place, in 1530. This was the last ceremony of that kind with which the German Emperors were honoured by the Holy see. This church is a noble structure, 300 feet long and 154 broad, with three handsome chapels on each side. It contains several valuable paintings; but the principal curiosity is the Meridian line, drawn in 1653 and renewed in 1695. It is half the length of the church, and consists of pieces of red and white marble laid, about three or four inches broad. These being out of repair in 1776, were renewed under the direction of M. Zanotti. The gnomon is 83 feet high, and a circular image of the sun, seven or eight inches in diameter, is admitted through an aperture in the roof. Many of the other churches are of costly architecture, and are adorned with valuable paintings. One of the finest of the other public buildings of Bologna, is the

Palazzo Publico, the residence of the Pope's legate, the President of the council, and some other persons of distinction. It stands in the great market place, and is a building of vast magnitude, containing the courts of justice and the arsenal. It is adorned with numerous statues and paintings. Before it is a large area, in the centre of which is a noble marble fountain, surmounted by a statue of Neptune, eleven feet high. The whole is said to have cost 70,000 golden crowns. Bologna contains a great number of palaces, belonging to some of the principal families in Italy. Among these is that of *Lambertini*, from which descended the celebrated Pope Benedict XIV., who made several presents of books and philosophical instruments to his native town. It is also distinguished as the school of the *Caracci*.

The University is supposed by some to have been founded in the year 433, by the Emperor Theodosius; by others it is ascribed to Charlemagne. Whether this latter opinion be well founded or not, it appears to have been greatly indebted to his generosity, as well as to that of the Emperor Lothario. This University is said to have been, at one time, attended by 10,000 students; and to have had the honour of first drawing the attention of Europe to the Roman law. The Academy of Sciences owes its foundation in 1719, to the learned Count Marsigli, one of the Generals of Pope Clement XI., who being dismissed from the service, went to Bologna to spend his fortune in the patronage of the sciences. Bologna is also a place of much greater industry than most of the other Italian towns, and has manufactures of silks, satins, damasks, velvets, crapes, gauzes, taffetas, and some other articles, with a considerable trade in a variety of commodities maintained principally with Venice, Genoa, and Leghorna. This trade is much facilitated by the canal, which joins that branch of the Reno, which passes through the city, with the lake of the *Valle di Marano*, whence the merchandise is sent to Ferrara, and other places situated on the Po. The surrounding country resembles an immense garden, and is so fertile that it has obtained the appellation of *La Grassa*. The vineyards are separated by rows of elms and mulberry trees. The melons, olives, and tobacco are particularly luxuriant, and the hemp grows to such a height (twelve or thirteen feet) that travellers have sometimes mistaken it for plantations of young ash trees.

In the time of the Roman Republic, Bologna was a small city. It acquired considerable celebrity from the interview between Antony, Octavius, and Lepidus, which took place in an island formed by the Reno, and also from several events in the civil wars of the Triumvirs. It was not, however, till the 12th and 13th centuries that it rose to the dignity of a great and learned city. In the middle ages, it, as well as many other Italian cities, was swayed by a Republican form of government; but after various convulsions, it was annexed to the Papal dominions by Pope Julian II. in 1506, with the reservation however of several of its ancient privileges. Among these, the Bolognese were to have a Nuncia at the Court of Rome, and an auditor in the rota of that city. The ecclesiastical affairs of the city were left under the control of the Archbishop, whose suffragans were the Bishops of Modena, Reggio, Imola, and Carpi; and the civil

BOL-LOGNA. concerns were directed by a Cardinal legate, or his deputy, from Rome; the Police and Revenue were managed by a Council or Senate of 50 Bolognese, in which each Senator, by turns, took the office of President for two months; during which period he was called *Confaloniere*, from carrying the *gonfalone*, or standard of the Republic.

Bologna has experienced several vicissitudes since the commencement of the French Revolution. On the 19th of June, 1796, the French army entered the city, and made the Papal garrison prisoners. By an armistice concluded between the Pope and Buonaparte, on the 23d of that month, Bologna remained in the occupation of the French, and by the subsequent treaty of Tolentino, it was in conjunction with Ferrara and Romagna ceded to France. The Republican tenets, then so assiduously propagated by the French, were as eagerly adopted by the Bolognese, and the city was constituted into a free and independent state, in connection with Modena, Ferrara, and Reggio. It was afterwards included in the Cisalpine Republic; and in the campaign of 1799, it was taken by the Austrian General Kleau, with vast magazines belonging to the French army, under the command of Macdonald. The battle of Marengo brought it again in possession of the French, and it was made the capital of the department of the Reno, till it reverted to the Papal authority at the general peace. Bologna is about 24 miles south-east of Modena, and nearly 50 north of Florence. Latitude $44^{\circ} 30' 12''$ N., and longitude $11^{\circ} 21' 30''$ E.

BOLOGNIAN SPAR, a variety of sulphate of Barytes found at Monte Paderno, near Bologna. It occurs in roundish masses composed of rather large laminated fibres, radiating from the centre, and is remarkable for its phosphorescent property.

If the mineral be calcined, reduced to powder, then mixed with gum water, dried, and exposed to light, it becomes phosphorescent, and exhibits a luminous appearance when taken into a dark room.

BOLSENA, a town of Italy in the Papal states, situated among woody mountains, on the margin of the lake of that name, which was the ancient *Lacus Fucine*. Near this place stood the ancient *Folciurnum*, which was one of the chief cities of Etruria, and was said to contain 9000 statues in its numerous temples, squares, and streets. It stood on an eminence, where several ancient marbles and ruins are still visible. It was, according to the testimony of Pliny, destroyed by lightning. The modern town is surrounded with a high wall, and encompassed with a dry ditch; but is only an inferior place, chiefly distinguished as the spot where the pretended miracle was wrought, which led to the institution of Corpus Christi day, in 1292.

BOLSENA, LAKE of, which was also called *Lacus Turgisensis*, is about 30 miles in circuit, and is surrounded by mountains, which gradually rising from the margin of the water are covered with stately forests, presenting the appearance of a vast amphitheatre, sprinkled with towns and villages at their base. A great variety of birds resort to this lake, which abounds with fish of different kinds, particularly eels of a prodigious size. It contains the two small islands of *Meritana* and *Bisentina*. The first possesses only a hermitage, a chapel and a few trees. The other is adorned with a fine Franciscan con-

vent and large gardens. Pliny says, these were BOLSSENA floating islands, and assumed different shapes as they were driven by the wind. *Ibid.* Nat. lib. ii.

BOLSOVER, a market town in the county of Derby. In a modern mansion on the site of the ancient castle, William, Duke of Newcastle, entertained Charles I. and his court in the year 1633, with a festival, the expenses of which amounted to £15,000. Ben Jonson prepared the masques on the occasion. Bolsover is eight miles from Mansfield, 145 north-west from London. The church is a vicarage in the gift of the Duke of Portland. Population in 1821, 1355.

BOLSTER, c. } A. S. *bolster, bolste*; Dutch, *bolster*; Ger. *polster*, from *ball*. (See *BOLL*.) And *ster*, or *stir*, is, perhaps }
A. S. *stir*, straw. A ball or roll of straw.

To *bolster* is—to put or place a bolster, or any thing in shape or form of a bolster, as a support; and thus consequently, to raise, uphold, sustain, or support.

And in so great confusion among sundry nations, sundry sects shall argue *bolster* by man's wit & reason concerning God's worship instituted by man and the justification by works.

John. The Argument, p. 8.

Ye saye, it is a perfect ymitation of Christ. What a shamelesse lyre is this, and what a bolde bragge to *bolster* out fythlesnesse.

Salm. Apology, p. 134.

We be wote you, that some pillows vnder all armes hooles, and *bolsters* vnder the heads both of yong & elde, to catche soules wthall.

Bible, 1551. *Earth ch. xiii.*

Your busines as busy bee

Is thinking how to sue

Us women, as your pillows soft

And *bolsters* pleasant are.

Turberville. The Assurance of a Woman to her Lover.

Which blyndnes it pleased God by his secrete counsel to suffer for a tyme, to the intent, that I beinge sodenly changed from so great a *bolster* of the lawe into a preacher of the gospell, might by myne example drawe and provoke many to Christe.

Udall. Galat. ch. ii.

If this chaplaine had mynded the prefermentes of a verreyte, as he did the *bolsterage* oute of a fable, he had there more aduisedly marked this wurd *posant*, whiche carryeth all the myght of the whole matter.

Hale. Apology, p. 41.

On the world's idols I do hate to smile,

Nor shall their names e'er be in my page appear,

To *bolster* baseness I account it vile.

Dryden. Pastoral, Eclogue v.

The smell of vnderwood procureth sleepe; or if it be laid under the pillow or *bolster*, provided alwaies that the patient be not ware of it.

Hallows. Plaut. v. ii. fol. 277.

But when the eyes be dressed with this blood, it would not be forgotten, that there be a thin *bolster* boiled in honey, laid soft, yea, and a Locke of greivie wool upon it, which had been soaked either in oile or wine.

Ib. v. ii. fol. 368.

For who durst begin such a rote, as to enterprize to take the cries boyr, holdynge the cries boier in his handes, denyng his office, without some *bolster* or *bolster* in their dede.

Flourent. Cynique, v. i. C. 350.

Such barking at the good, such *bolstering* of the ill, Such threatening of the wrath of God, such vice embraced still.

Everard. Authors. Of the Choice of a Wif.

Corruption, springing from his canker'd heart,

Turn up the clauall, and disturbs his rest.

With head propt up the *bolster*'d engine lies;

If pillow slip aside, the monarch dies.

Dryden. Salm. Cynique.

BOLSWAARD, or BOLSWERT, an old town of the Netherlands, in West Friesland, situated a few miles east of the Zuyder Zee. It formerly belonged to the

BOLSENA
BOL-SWAARD.

BOL-
SWAARD.

BOLT.

Hanseatic league, and has a port about three miles below the tow, which is now much obstructed by sand. It was anciently a large tow, but built in an irregular manner, and carried on a good trade to the products of the adjacent country, as well as in fine woollen stuffs. It has been twice nearly burnt down, once in 1475, and again in 1515, and is now reduced to a population of less than 3000 people.

BOLT, v. } To bolt, — as to bolt the door, is to bolt, *v. }* I fasten the door, to strengthen it, to throw to — a bolt, i. e. as now applied, to throw to — that by which a door, or shutter is fastened or strengthened; from the A. S. *byldan*, to build, strengthen, or confirm. See Tooke. Also, — simply — To fasten.

In Dutch it is *bout*, i. e. *boud*, the past tense and past part. of *bouwen*, to build.

He *bolteth* their arm with a poulty, that they cannot lift their hands to their heads.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 1246.

The *bolted* gates flew open at the blast,

The storm ruck'd in, and Arctic stood against.

Dryden. Palamon and Arcite, book III.

So that it was a breach of their Christian liberty belike, to have a lock or a bolt on a door, to keep peculiar possession of any thing from them.

Spectator. On Fishes, fol. 157.

Heav'n's ! and are these the plagues that wait,

Around the hospitable gate !

Let seedling from *bolt* my door,

And the great mastiff growl before.

Langhorne. To Lord Granby.

BOLT, v. }

BOLTER.

BOLTING-BUTCH.

BOLTING-TEA.

And *aplunda* according to Waechter, a *piodendo*, (whence our English, to explode.)

To force away, to drive out, to sift or separate; (ac.) the fine from the coarse, the good from the bad.

But I've cannot *bolt* it to the brim,

As e'er the holy doctor Augustin.

Chaucer. The Nonnes Preestes Tale, v. 15246.

For as a winnower powereth the chaff from the corn, and the *bolter* tryeth out the bran from the meal: so hath Erasmus scoured out of all the doctors and commentators upon scripture, the dross which through the *fume* of the times or places in which those writers lived, had settled itself among the pure & fine substance.

Udall. Preface to the King's Majesty, fol. 10.

The Bishop of Winchester had long ago thoroughly *bolted* this matter, even into the bran.

Jewell. A Reply to M. Harding, ii. fol. 731.

Divers sorts of sieves and *bolters* there be. The sieve made of hair, was a *derisive* of the Frenchmen; the tannet roanor for coarse bread, as also the fine *flour bolter* for manchet (made both of linen cloth) the Spaniards invented.

Holland. Flinis, v. i. fol. 567.

For as a miller in his *bolting-hutch*

Drives out the pure meal evenly, (as he can)

And in his sifter leaves the coarser bran :

So doth the cackler of a poet's name

Let slip such lines as might inherit fame.

Brown. Britannia's Pastors, book II. st. 2.

This day thou shalt have ingots : and to-morrow,

Give words th' affront. In it, my Zephyrus, right,

Blushes the *bolt-head* !

B. Jonson. The Alchemist, act II. sc. 2.

BOLT.

She is not to be found i' the house

With all the hue and cry is made for her

Through every room : the larder ha' been search'd,

The bak-house, and *bolting-hut*.

B. Jonson. The Magnetick Lady, act v. sc. 8.

This fierce Inquisitor has chief

Domination over men's belief

And manners ; can pronounce a sinner

Idolotrous or ignorant,

When superciliously he sits

Through courteous *bolter* others gifts.

Boswell. Hudibras, part I. 3.

In short one sentence may the whole discuss,

As we with truth, truth coincides with us :

This *bolts* the matter fairly to the brain,

And nothing more, wits, heads, deans, doctors eae.

Horace. An Essay on Reason.

BOLT, v. } Sc. To bolt out seems to be the same

BOLT, v. } word differently applied.

To force away, to drive out, to rush or cause to rush out, to start out.

The noun is applied, to an arrow from a bow ; to a thunder-bolt. Upright as a *bolt* ; upright as a dart, straight as an arrow.

Wasting she was, as is a jolly colt,

Long as a mast, and upright as a *bolt*.

Chaucer. The Miller's Tale, v. 3263.

Now seeing the bladesmen of a worldly folk, how precisely we presume to shoot our *bolish* at those masters met, in which we least can skill.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 73.

Or as the acely byrd, that with the *bolt* is brund,

And lieth aloof among the leaves of al her pharise refus'd

And heares them sing full shrill, yet cannot she rejoyce,

Nor frame one faulting note to praise out of his mournful voice.

Gascoigne. The Lamentation of a Lover.

The fore head and breast hath the signe of the crosse made upon them, glorie is given to the Lord down to the pinnacle, every man *scrut* and standeth *bolt* upright, the headen be bare, the eares attentive, the eyes full of reverence.

Udall. John, Pref.

And so when thou rashly *bolt*est out somewhat that is either doubtful or false, thou wilt seal it up and confirm it with an oath, before thou hast had time to consider what thou hast said, or what thou art swearing.

Hephæstus. Exposition upon the Third Commandment.

Hence had the lustre Dian her dread bow,

Fair silver-shafted queen, for ever chaste,

Wherewith she tam'd the brinded horses

And spotted mountain pard, but set at naught

The frivolous *bolt* of Cupid. *Milton. Comus*, l. 445.

With your hand work her drooping hopes revive ;

You hid her read, repent, adore, and live ;

You wist the *bolt* from heaven's *bolt* hand ;

Stop ready Death, and save a sinking land.

Prætor. To Dr. Sherlock.

The man had no sooner set one foot within the vault, than the statue erecting itself from its leaning posture, stood *bolt*-upright.

Spectator, No. 379.

Sir, this vermin of court reporters, when they are forced into day upon one point, are sure to borrow a number ; but they shall have no refuge ; I will make them *bolt* out of all their holes.

Burke. On American Taxation.

The infidel had shot his *bolts* away,

Till, his exhausted quiver yielding none,

He gleams the blunted shafts that have recoil'd,

And aim them at the shield of truth again.

Cowper. The Task book vi.

BOLT.

BOLTS, in *Naval Architecture*, are cylindrical pieces of copper or iron, pointed at one end, hot plain at the other, for the convenience of driving. These Bolts vary in length from two feet and under to fifteen feet, and in diameter from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch or more; they receive particular denominations according to the parts of the vessel in which they are driven; which latter operation in the larger sorts, is performed with what is called a *monkey*, acting after the manner of the ancient battering rams. The total weight of copper Bolts in an English seventy-four gun ship is estimated at about thirty tons, and of iron Bolts for the upper works at not less than forty tons.

When it is necessary to have a complete repair of a ship of the dimensions to which we have alluded, and indeed in any vessel, many of these Bolts must be drawn or driven out; when they are so situated that they can be reached from either end, they may be driven out, but when, as frequently happens, we can only get at one end of the Bolt, it must be drawn, and the operation of drawing a Bolt that has been driven with great force into solid oak, to the depths above specified, is by no means so easy process; it can indeed only be effected by the application of most powerful instruments, which are called *Bolt Drawing Machines*.

There are several distinct engines of this kind employed in our public and private dock yards, for drawing Bolts employed in the construction of vessels, either in the case of large repairs, or when the Bolt has taken a wrong direction in the driving; the following is a general description of two of those which are esteemed the best.

Bolton's Bolt Drawing Machine. This apparatus is represented in fig. 1, plate XVI. Miscellaneous. A A A is the frame of the machine; B a cylindrical tube, having a female screw in the inside; C a wheel with teeth attached to the cylinder B; D an endless screw adapted to the wheel C; E handle of the winch; F the Bolt drawing out; G G blocks to support the frame; H a hollow piece of steel, having on its outside a male screw, whose thread works within the female screw in the cylinder B. To this piece of steel the Bolt is to be rivetted. I (fig. 2.) is a semicircular piece of steel which is to be introduced into the notches on H, when a similar notch has been cut in the head of the copper Bolt, which by this means is prevented from turning in H, while drawing; K the Bolt as prepared to receive the machine; L a steel bar somewhat smaller than the Bolt to be drawn, having at one end a male screw A, and at the other end a male screw that fits into the female screw in B; M a section of a male screw having a square hole larger than the Bolt; N a Bolt with a male screw at one end ready to be drawn out.

The entire machine consists of a frame supporting a cylindrical female screw. On this tube is mounted a wheel with teeth adapted to an endless screw fitted to the frame, and worked by a handle.

To draw the Bolt out. The head of the Bolt must be cut off, and a hole made in the timber big enough to receive the male screw H, which is put over the Bolt; a slit is then to be made either with a saw or cold chisel, in the head of the Bolt to receive the key I, and which corresponds to the slit in H; the Bolt head is then to be rivetted as firmly as possible upon H; the cylindrical tube B is then to be screwed on,

turning the whole machine round till it can be done no longer, when the endless screw is to be used. If the machine is of a proper strength, and the rivetting well done, the power is such as to extract the Bolt or break it, but generally it will be drawn out unimpaired.

To draw Bolts into ships. In this case it will be necessary to have a bar L, which is recommended to be made of steel, long enough to pass from the outside to the inside of the ship, and somewhat smaller than the copper bolt intended to be drawn in, this may be called a *conductor*; on one end should be an exterior screw a, the Bolt to be drawn in should be tapped at one end to receive the screw, on the conductor; and at the other end should be another exterior screw which fits into the interior screw in B; after which the operation is the same as drawing a Bolt out, and the machine should be applied accordingly. When the Bolt arrives at its destined place, it may be secured on the inside by a nut which is equally as effective as clenching, and more expeditious.

This machine although only eighteen inches in height, will draw Bolts in or out of any length, for after the Bolt has risen to the top of the tube, it will only be necessary to screw the machine back and follow up the work with blocks of timber as represented in the drawing.

Hooker's Bolt Drawing Machine. The purpose here is the same as in the preceding case; but the operation will be more readily understood. It consists, as shown by the two elevations, figs. 3 and 4, of two strong screws $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch in diameter, united at top by a shackle Bolt with a right and left handed screw, so that by one motion the two upper ends of the upright screws are brought together; while their lower extremities work into two beds let into the timber, or simply resting thereon. These beds are set somewhat nearer to each other than the upper extremities, so that by turning the upper double screw the head of the Bolt is slipped by the jaws D D, and so much harder as the upper extremities are brought nearer together. The screws A are then worked, and by this means the jaws D D, and consequently the Bolt, are brought upwards, and the latter extracted from the timber. This, however, supposes that the Bolt head is already out from the timber, and applies therefore principally to the case of drawing a Bolt which has not found its way properly in the driving; when the Bolt is actually home, as in the case of repair, &c. then it is necessary to cut away the timber, till sufficient room is obtained to catch hold of the Bolt head with a pair of small jaws or nippers, and which are then introduced into the jaws of the machine D D; the operation is then as before.

Bolt Driving Tubes. We have stated in the preceding article that Bolts are commonly driven by what the shipwrights call a *monkey*, on the principle of the ancient battering ram; it may not be amiss, however, to describe another method which is sometimes practised, particularly where the highest power is not required; this is by means of tubes invented by Mr. Phillips, formed from separate pieces of cast iron, which are placed upon the heads of each other, and firmly held thereto by iron circles or rings over the joints of the tube. The lowest ring is pointed in order to keep the tube steady upon the wood. The Bolt being entered into the end of the hole bored in

BOLT.

BOLT.
BOMB.

the wood, and completely covered by the iron tube, is driven forward within the cylinder by an iron or steel punch placed against the head of the Bolt, which punch is struck by a mallet; and as the Bolt enters, successive parts of the tube are unscrewed and removed till the Bolt is driven home into its place. The tubes are about five inches in circumference, and will admit a Bolt of seven-eighths of an inch in diameter. The principle will however apply to Bolts of any dimension.

These tubes are represented in figs. 5 and 6, plate XVI. *ab, ab*, are the parts of the iron tube fastened together, ready to be put on the Bolt. *d e, f g*, iron rings with screws, placed over the joints of the tube to hold them firmly together. *F F* the points formed on the lower ring: their purpose is to stick into the timber in order to preserve the tube steady in its place.

In fig. 6, the parts of the tube are shown separated; figs. 7 and 8, are steel punches or *drifts* to be placed on the head of the copper Bolt within the tube whilst driving. See *Transactions of Society of Arts*, vol. xix.

BOLTON LE MOORS, a large manufacturing town in Lancashire. It consists of two townships, Great and Little Bolton, intersected by a rivulet. As far back as the reign of Henry VIII. it is mentioned in Leland's *Itinerary*, as excelling in cotton manufactures. Some Flemings are traditionally stated to have settled there about the close of the sixteenth century; and several French Protestants also found refuge to it after the revocation of the edict of Nantz. A canal conveys goods to Manchester and Bury. The town was taken by Prince Rupert in 1644; and the gallant and loyal Earl of Derby was executed in it by the Republican party in 1651, for proclaiming Charles II. Population of the entire parish, 1841, 50,197; of Great and Little Bolton township, 31,295. Distant from London 197 miles north-north-west, from Manchester 11 miles north. The church is a vicarage in the gift of the Bishop of Chester.

BOLTONIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Syngeneses*, order *Polypetala Superflua*. Generic character: receptacle favose, hemispherical; pappus dentato-ariolate, sub-bicorne; florets of the ray rather numerous; calyx imbricate.

A genus allied to *Aster*, containing two species, natives of North America.

BOMB, v.
BOMB, n.
Bo'HEARD, v.
Bo'HEARD, n.
BOMBARDIER,
BOMBARDMENT,
Bo'BA-RETTA,
Bo'BA-RETTA,
Bo'BA-RETTA,
BOMB-LATION.

Dutch, *bommen*, *bombardieren*; which Kiliau thinks are words *æoni facta*. Vossius thinks the same of the Gr. *βόμβη*, and the Lat. *bombus*. *Bombardis* (a new word, he remarks, for a new thing) a *bomb*, *ardere*, so named because it vomits or throws forth iron balls with a noise and blazing fire,—*cum sonitu et flammâ*. Laurentius Valli, who wrote in 1420, about forty years after the invention of these murdering pieces, as Cotgrave calls them, gives the same opinion. *Bombard*-phrase is used by B. Jonson for *amplified*; a phrase of more sound than sense;—sounding or noisy as a *bomb* or *bombard*. A *bombard* of sack or beer; is a vessel so called, perhaps, from some resemblance to the murdering piece. A *bombard-mao*, Mr. Gifford says, was one of the people who attended at the buttry-hatch, and carried the huge cans of beer to the different offices.

The capitaine with all his retinue departed leaving behind the ordnance of *bombards*, *curtawes*, & *dray curtawes*, *alleges*, *canons*, *vulgers*, and other ordnance, there were *lævi*, *pices*, *plains* of *pelleties* & *pouder*. *Hall. King Henry VIII.*

BOMB.

In Saturn's name, the father of my lord!
What ever-charged piece of melancholy
Is this, that breaks in between my wishes thus,
With sounding sighs?

B. Jonson. Marquet, The Fortunate Isles.

Why dost thou converse with that trunk of humour, that huge *bombard* of sack.

Shakespeare. Henry IV. First Part, fol. 39.

I answered, we are all manques sometimes: with which they knock'd hypocritie o' the pate, and made room for a *bombard* man, that brought home for a country lady or two, that fainted, he said, with fasting, for the five night since seven a clock I the morning.

B. Jonson. Marquet, Ever Restored.

Against which, one day I am to deliver the letter in, so many *frisks* of *curious* *passions*, as it delivers out *bombards* of badge to them, between this and that.

Id. Mercutio Fluctuant.

This [Charles Berkeley] dying without issue, was succeeded in his honour and estate by his next brother John, afterwards an Admiral at sea, and the same, who with his fleet *bombarded* and burnt down France, and *bombarded* Harve de Grace in the same country, in July, 1649.

Wood. Athenæ Oxon. ii. 586.

At the entrance into the towns there were many slays and hurie, mo than xl.: the men of the towns were about one the gate, and cast down stones, and shotte out *bombards*, so that the Englishmen durst speake no more.

Frisiart. Crongels, v. li. C. 134.

Both Telephus.

And Felrus, if they seek to heart-strike us

That are spectators, with their miserie,

When they are pious, and banish'd most thorow by

Their *bombard*-phrase, and foot, and half foot words.

B. Jonson. Horace, of the Art of Poetrie.

How to shute the *vigor* thereof, or silence its *bombardment*, a way is promised by *Urania* in general terms by some fat bodies, but in particular by *borax* and *better mixed* is a due proportion; which said he, will so go off so scarce to be heard by the discharge; and indeed plentifully mixed, it will almost take off the report, and also the force of the charge.

Brown. Fa'gar Eternus, p. 98.

Our king that trembles at Namer

While Villeroy, who ne'er afraid he,

To Brussels marches on secure,

To bomb the monks, and scare the ladies.

Prior. Ballad on the King taking Namur.

The *bombardier* tosses his balls sometimes into the midst of a city, with a design to fill all around him with terror and combustion. His chief aim is at several eminent stations, which he looks upon as the fairest marks, and uses all his skill to do execution upon those who possess them. Every man so situated, let his merit be never so great, is sure to undergo a *bombardment*. It is further observ'd, that the only way to be out of danger from the bursting of a bomb, is to lie prostrate on the ground; a posture too obnoxious for generous spirits.

Tatler, No. 98.

Nor could an ordinary fact with *bomb-vessels*, hope to succeed against a place [Vesuvius] that has always in its arsenal a considerable number of gallees and men of war ready to put to sea on a very short warning.

Adkins. Remarks on Italy.

Of boasting more than of a *bomb* afraid,

A soldier should be modest as a maid.

Young. Love of Fame, Satire 4.

It is known as a fact that she [France] proposes the ravage of the Ecclesiastical state, and the pillage of Rome, as her first object; that erst she means to *bombard* Naples, to awe, to humble, and thus to command all Italy.

Burke. On the present State of Affairs.

BOMB. From the earliest dawnings of policy to this day, the invention of men has been sharpening and improving the mystery of murder, from the first rude essays of clubs and stones, to the present perfection of gunnery, cannering, *bombarding*, mining, &c.

Berk. A Publication of Natural Society.

BOMBASIN, Lat. *bombyx*; Gr. *βόμβος*, a word, as Vossius thinks, of Eastern origin. The ancients (says Skinner) so called any soft or delicate wool adapted for weaving garments.

There is planted on the one side of the Casiquers house a faire garden, with all herbes growing in it, and at the lower end a well of fresh water, and round about it are trees set, whereon *bombasin* cotton groweth, after this manner.

Hobbs. *Feyage*, &c. Thomas Coudick, v. iii. fol. 813.

In six months after, come the silke worms *bombasins*. Silke worms spin and weave webs like to those of the spiders, and all to please our dainty dames, who thereof make their fine silkes and velvets, from their costly garments and superfluous apparel, which are called *bombasins*. *Holland.* *Pinet*, l. fol. 322.

BOMBAST, or **BOMBAST**, v. *Of the same origin as BOMBASIN*, *q. v.* *Bombast*, Skinner says, is *line sewed together with flax*, *q. v.* Hence *bombast* words are still—*inflated*, *q. v.* *quasi stopped* *refertus*. See the example from Holland's *Floie*.

Need you say lake and *bombast*, (i. e. cotton to put into the lake).

Hollyband. *Dutton School Master*, sig. E. 3.
Give me those lines (whose touch the skilful ear to please)
That gliding flow in state, like swelling Euphrates,
In which things natural be; and not in falsely wrong;
The sounds are fine and smooth, the sense is full and strong;
Not *bombasted* with words vain ticklish ears to feed,
But such as may content the perfect man to read.

Thynne. *Poliglot*, Song 21.

My thynges are this, my body lacke and leane,
It hath no *bombast* now, but skin and bone.

Gualtero. *Bertholomew of Bath*.

Lette none outlandish taylor take dight,
To stuffe thy doublet full of such *bombast*.

Id. *Councilt Glare*, &c.

Thy bodies bolstered out with *bombast* and with laggas.

Id. *Challenge to Heuties*.

This plant is but small, and bringeth forth a fruit resembling the bearded nut or filbert; out of the inner shell or husk whereof [called *bombyx*] (Jecupon, *Holland* observes, *cotton* is called *bombast*), there breaketh forth a *cotton* like unto down, so easie to be spun; and there is no flax in the world comparable to it for whiteness and softness. *Holland.* *Pinet*, v. ii. fol. 3.

The forward merchants transport thither crimines and grey fures, with other rich and costly skines. Others carry clothe made of cotton or *bombast*.

Hobbs. *Feyage*, &c. *The Tartars*, v. i. fol. 93.

Some braver braile in high heroic rhymes
Complett worm-eaten stories of old times
And be like some imperious Marston.
Conjures the muses that they him assist.
Then strives he to *bombast* his feeble lines
With far-fetched phrases.

Hall. *Satires*, book l. sat. 4.

Tis not much lines as almost crack the stage
When Bajazet begins to rage;
Nor a tall metaphor in *bombast* way.

Cowley. *Ode*, *Of Wit*.

By his [Arthur Wilson] endeavouring too much to set out his bare collections in an affected and *bombastic* stile, they are much neglected. *Wood.* *Athenae Oxon.* v. ii. p. 115.

Yet noisy *bombast* carefully avoid,
Nor think to raise, though on Piazolla's plain,
A multitude of mourning mountains of the slain.

Dryden. *Art of Poetry*, can. 1.

Bombast and buffoonery, by nature lofty and light, scarce *BOMBAST* highest of all, and would be lost in the roof, if the prudent architect had not with such foresight contrived for them a fourth place, called the twelve-penny gallery, and there planted a suitable colony, who greedily intercept them in their passage.

Swift. *Tale of a Tub*, sec. 1.

Young had much of a sublime genius, though without common sense; so that his genius, having no guide, was perpetually liable to degenerate into *bombast*.

Pope in *Johnson's Life of Young*.

A theatrical, *bombastical*, windy phraseology of heroic virtue, blended and mingled up with a worse dissoluteness, and joined to a murderous and savage ferocity, forms the taste and idiom of their language and their manners.

Berk. *Letter on a Rigid Peace*.

BOMBAX, is *Bolany*, (Angl. *Silk Cotton Tree*.) a genus of plants, class *Monadelphia*, order *Polypandria*. Generic character: *calyx* five-*fid*; *stamina* five or more; capsule *liguose*, five-*locular*, five-*valved*; seeds *cotyled*; *receptacle* pentagonal.

This genus contains six species, inhabiting various parts of the world. *Rheed.* *Herbar. Malabaricus*; *Canaville.* *Monadelphic Class.* *Dissect. Decem.*

BOMBAY, or as the Indians name it **MAMAR**, is a small island separated by a narrow arm of the sea from the island of Salsette, which lies between it and the coast of Malabar. The Capital of one of the three Presidencies into which British India is divided, bears the same name, and is situated on the southern side of this island, which was anciently subdivided into several smaller ones; but drainage, accessions of soil from the hills, and possibly some alteration in the tides and currents of the neighbouring sea, have recovered many thousand acres once entirely under water, and have thus united the two ranges of hills which cross the island in parallel directions, by a line of fertile valleys. The western and shortest range is not much more than five miles in length; the eastern rather exceeds eight; and the interval between them is about three. A belt of sand, now hardened into stone, unites these two ranges at each extremity of the valley, and forms a harrier which was often broken through by the waters of the ocean, little more than a cecrotyr ago.

Considered with regard to its internal resources, Bombay is a settlement of no value, for it is nothing but a mass of barren rocks, with scarcely any soil capable of cultivation; but in a commercial point of view, it is of the first importance. Its proximity to the main land gives a facility of communication with all the different points of that long line of coast, as well as with the shores of Persia and Arabia. Large navigable rivers, such as the Tapi, Nerbed and Mehiodri, afford ready channels of intercourse between the coast and interior. The island itself, on account of its small extent, is easily defended; and the rise of the tide is sufficient to allow the construction of docks on a scale large enough for building and repairing ships of the line: advantages not possessed by any other of the three Presidencies.

On a narrow oock of land, near the south-eastern extremity of the island, stands the town and fort of Bombay, in lat. 18° 56' N. and long. 72° 7' E. at a distance of 1500 miles from Calcutta, and 770 from Madras. It is the seat of government for the south-western part of our territories in India. On the western side of this isthmus is a large bay, called Black Bay, and on its eastern side is the harbour. Nearly six miles from the fort, at the north-western end of the island,

BOMBAY. are the Worlee sluices. The ancient capital was Mahim (Máhi) a small town not far from them on the northern side; and at that time there was nothing but an inconsiderable fishing village on the Dungaree hill above the harbour, near the site of the fort of Bombay. The island was ceded by the Crown to the East India Company, in 1668, under the name of the manor of East Greenwich, on payment of an annual rent of £10. in gold. It was at that time considered as one of the most unhealthy settlements in India, in consequence of the lagoons and morasses in the valley between the whistone hills by which the island is traversed. But in 1683-4, when the Dutch had made themselves masters of Bantam, the East India Company transferred the principal seat of their power and trade to Bombay. Before that period, they had already spent £300,000, on the fortifications and improvement of the island: but their principal officers in India, and the seat of government continued to a great measure to be fixed at Surat till 1696. The fortifications are too extensive, and would require a very numerous garrison for their defence. They are very strong towards the sea, but weak towards the land. The whole area enclosed by the walls was so extensive, that within the fort, besides all the requisite buildings, there was a grove of cocoa nut trees for a considerable time after it was first built. An expanse, 800 yards in front of the fort, has since been completely cleared, and the neighbouring groves are thickly interspersed with country houses, while the Dungaree hill is covered with houses to the extent of two miles from the harbour. The salt marshy ground recovered from the sea at the foot of the hills is covered with huts built by the more necessitous inhabitants, who are unable to pay the exorbitant prices paid for ground in healthier situations. The English residing on this island have adopted the mode of building usual among their predecessors, the Portuguese. Verandas or sheds supported by wooden pillars surround their houses, and give them a different appearance from those in the other English settlements. The government house is well built, but as is common in the houses of the Italians and Portuguese, has the fault of having its largest apartments in the centre, and serving as a passage-room to the rest.

The surface of the island, as was before remarked, is either a naked broken rock, or low swampy ground exposed to inundation: the quantity of grain therefore which it is capable of producing is very small, compared with the wants of the population by which it is inhabited; and it has been said that a whole year's produce would not afford a supply sufficient for the consumption of a single week. Vellards, or solid embankments, have been constructed in different parts of the island to prevent inundations from the sea; but the rain water still collects in the valleys, and forms unhealthy swamps. The causeway which connects Bombay with Salsette, is a public work of considerable magnitude and of much utility, as it insures the country a constant supply for the markets; but it has been thought to be injurious to the harbour.

The population was estimated, in 1816, at 161,550; of whom nearly 104,000 were Hindús, 28,000 were Mohammedans, and more than 11,000 native Christians; a large proportion, owing, no doubt, to the early and compulsory conversions made by the Portuguese when masters of the island. The whole number of the British inhabitants was only 4300; but

the Pársis amounted to 13,150, and the Jews to only 800. The number of houses was 20,786, which gives an average of about eight individuals to each house. Besides this, there is a fluctuating population of strangers brought by maritime or commercial occupations, which may be estimated at 65,000 annually; so that the whole number of individuals constantly fed and maintained on this small area, is considerably above 200,000. The Armenians, who, as is well known, differ in some of their religious tenets from all other Christian sects, maintain at Bombay the same respectable character for diligence, perseverance and uprightness in their dealings, as they possess in almost every other part of Asia. Their community is occasionally visited by an itinerant Bishop, commissioned to inspect the distant churches, by the Patriarch of Etchmiyadzin. Just as Gibraltar has been humorously termed the Paradise of the Jews, so may Bombay be called the Paradise of the Pársis. That remarkable remnant of the followers of Zoroaster, so useful and inoffensive, and so long the victims of Mohammedan bigotry, have found for the last century a secure asylum in this island, of which they are now almost the exclusive proprietors. Tall, well-made and athletic, fairer than the Hindús, more active, enterprising, and industrious, and not shackled by the same debasing superstitions, they contribute by their industry and integrity very considerably to the prosperity of the settlement. Many of their customs are peculiar to themselves; being derived from the tenets of their religion: but as a bigoted dislike of those who profess a different faith is not one of its doctrines, they readily enter into commercial speculations with Christians; and almost every European house of trade has a wealthy Pársi partner, who furnishes a large proportion of its funds. The intercourse with Europeans has already had a powerful effect on the character and habits of the natives of our principal settlements; and in another half century the difference between the inhabitants of these cities and those further from the coast, will be increased in an almost incalculable degree, in consequence of the efforts now made to promote education, particularly that of female children. The European Society at Bombay is neither so numerous nor so expensive as that at the other Presidencies; and if not rivals in splendour, they are quite equal in comfort and hospitality to their countrymen at Calcutta or Madras. Though the soil and elevation of the greater part of the island ought to render it more healthy than either of those places, it is said to be the reverse. Most of the Company's servants live in country-houses at some distance from the fort: they are well adapted to the climate and command very fine views; but the necessity of going almost daily into the town, where all public business is transacted, unavoidably exposes those who live in the country to the heat of the scorching sun or late and early damps, which will perhaps sufficiently account for the mortality said to prevail among the European inhabitants of this island.

The markets of Bombay present a greater variety of articles for sale than those of Madras. Mutton, sometimes good, but often lean and hard; excellent fish, a small quantity of game, principally the red-legged partridge; and large frogs, in request among the Portuguese and Chinese, are the kinds of animal food most commonly to be had. Common and sweet potatoes, and especially onions, for which Bombay is as

BOMBAY. famous in India as Portugal in Europe, are the vegetables most plentifully produced. Indifferent cheese is imported from Gajarât; and buffalo butter and milk are usually on sale; but the Europeans are prejudiced against the beef of the buffalo.

The docks, which are the best in India, are the Company's property, and a high rent is paid monthly by the King's ships, for permission to repair in them. The Pârisis have obtained contracts in all the different departments of the yard, and ships of the line have been built by them without the least assistance from European builders. Since 1810, five or six large men of war, and seventy or eighty vessels of different sizes from a 1000 tons downwards, have been launched from these docks, all built by the Jemâdjî family of Pârisis, as head-builders. The hills to the north and east of Bassein, on the neighbouring coast, furnish the Teak timber (*Tectona grandis*) used here, and the rivers descending from the mountains near the coast, afford an easy water carriage for the whole distance from the forest to the dockyard.

As Bombay is the emporium of all the north-western coast of the Peninsula, and of the Persian and Arabian Gulfs, its trade is very considerable. To China it sends a large quantity of cotton, of which 1500 lbs. are screwed down into an area of fifty feet, or one ton by admeasurement. Pepper, sandal wood, gums, drugs, pearls, ivory, gems, shark's fins, edible bird's nests from the Maldivé Islands, Arabia, Persia, and different parts of India, form the remainder of the cargo for the Canton market. The ships are generally detained there from July to January. The banks of the Nerhed, Cach, and Gujerâh are the countries which furnish the cotton exported from this settlement. Hemp, coffee, barilla, manufactured goods from Surat, and many other articles: enumerated above, are also sent hence to Europe. The state of the trade to and from Bombay twenty years ago, since which period it has increased rather than diminished, will be seen at once by a reference to the following Table.

BOMBAY.

State of Commerce at Bombay, 1802—1803.

1802—1803.	Imports.			Exports.		
	No. of Vessels.	Goods.	Money.	No. of Vessels.	Goods.	Money.
		Rupers.	Rupers.		Rupers.	Rupers.
London	11	1,300,945	300,969	6	614,237	
Foreign Europe.....	3	119,341	181,748	4	315,662	
America.....	2			3	178,332	
British Asia.....	50	10,933,651	489,067	47	6,440,600	2,016,301
Foreign Asia.....	36	8,163,307	3,483,635	60	11,263,448	430,718
Eastern Africa.....	3	114,004	9,370	2	19,227	
Total	105	20,594,338	4,464,689	123	18,830,506	2,456,919

Town and Island.

The company's marine establishment at Bombay consists of eighteen armed cruizers, besides boats and other craft; nearly double the number which it possessed when Niehuhr was there in 1764, though the pirates on the Malabar coast were then very formidable. The military and marine corps do not amount to 3000 men; but this, as will be conjectured, is only the force employed in the town and island. The whole regular army forms a body of more than 21,000 men, chiefly Mahrattas, who retain the language as well as the customs of their native country. The number of the principal civil servants is 106. Besides the Governor and Council stationed at the Presidency itself, there are magistrates and commercial residents at the chief towns of the different provinces subject to their government. There is one supreme Court of judicature held under a single judge, called the Recorder; to which the practitioners are three barristers and three attorneys. It is remarkable that though Bombay is a favourite resort of thieves and pickpockets, offences of great magnitude rarely occur.

The other places in the island deserving of notice, are Mazagong, Fort Sion, Mahim and Malabar Point. **Mazagong.** Mazagong (Mazagang, in Sanscrit, Mahâsa grâma) is a village on the east side of the island, inhabited by

Portuguese, who have two respectable churches. It has also a good dock for small vessels, and its mangoes are famed throughout India.

Sion, at the north-eastern extremity of the island, **Sion.** about eight miles from the city, has a fort on the summit of a conical hill, which commands the narrow channel between Bombay and Salsette. It was a post of considerable importance before the latter was ceded by the Mahrattas. From the foot of this hill, the causeway or vellard, connecting the two islands, commences; it was begun in 1797 and completed in 1805, under the government of M. Duncan, at an expense of 50,575 rupees, £6390. It is solidly constructed of stone, and has a drawbridge in the middle, but it is too narrow for carriages in stormy weather.

Mahim (i. e. Mâhi, with the Portuguese nasal termination,) at the north-western extremity of the island, in lat. 19° 5' N. long. 72° 55' E. is a small town chiefly remarkable on account of a college for the education of Roman Catholic priests, and the tomb of a Mohammedan saint. Its population in 1816, amounted to 15,618 souls.

Malabar Point is a remarkable rock terminating the narrow promontory which forms the south-western Point. extremity of the island. At a considerable elevation

BOMBAY. above the sea there is a cleft or perforation in the rock, which is difficult of access; and much frequented as a place of pilgrimage, since the baying passed through it is believed to regenerate the pilgrim, and to secure to him ages of bliss in a future period of transmigration. Near to it is the Brahman's village, almost entirely occupied by Ascetics, and surrounding a fine tank in a picturesque situation. A temple of Lachmi (or Lachmi) the Goddess of Wealth, in its neighbourhood, is much visited by pilgrims.

BOMBUS. *Fryer's Travels*, p. 65, seq.; *Niebuhr's Reisebeschreibung*, II. 1 to 51, 1. *Moore's Hindi Pantheon*, p. 969, seq.; *Hamilton's East India Gazetteer*, and *Hindustan*, II.

BOMBUS, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects of the order *Hymenoptera*, family *Apidae*. Generic character: antennae filiform, broken; labium transverse; mandibulae spoon-shaped, rounded at the apex, toothed; palpi four, the maxillary palpi spatulate; ocelli disposed in a transverse line; body very hairy; hairs disposed in particulate fasciae or spots; the posterior tibiae terminated with two spines. *Lamarck*.

Bombus terrestris, the Humble Bee, (*Apis terrestris*, Lin.) is the type of this genus; and some of the particulars of the history and economy of these insects, are scarcely less interesting than those of their near kindred the common hive bee.

They live in subterranean habitations, in societies composed of from fifty or sixty to two or three hundred individuals, which associations terminate at the approach of winter. They consist of males, females, and two distinct varieties of neuters or labourers. The females, of which there are more than one in each society, are the largest; the males are of the middle size, as well as one variety of neuters, the smaller kind of which are scarcely larger, indeed sometimes even less, than the hive bee. According to the observations of the younger Huber, many of the labourers, which are produced in the spring, unite with males of the same race, and soon after lay their eggs which produce only individuals of the latter sex. These fecundate females, which appear late in the season, and are destined in the spring of the following year to lay the foundation of a new colony. As soon then as the cuttings of the different species of soil are in bloom, they are seen collecting honey from the female flowers, and pollen from the male; and are found to consist exclusively of fecundate females, all the other individuals of the former colony having perished on the approach of winter. The neuters appear later, and the males are most common in autumn, when they are seen in abundance, on the flowers of thistles, of which they are remarkably fond. When these animals, says Mr. Kirby, are walking upon the ground, if a finger be held towards them, they lift up the three legs of one side to defend themselves, which gives them a very grotesque appearance. Most species form their nest under ground, but *B. lapidarius* builds under stones, on the surface. When they do not meet with an accidental cavity ready made, they excavate one themselves with great labour. It is of considerable extent, broader than it is deep, and made in form of a dome, by a convex vault or coping of moss, the interior surface of which is lined with coarse wax to keep out the wet. Sometimes the access to the nest is simply an opening formed at the bottom, at other times it consists of a long tortuous gallery or covered

way, a foot or even more in length, by which the nest is rendered less accessible, and less easily discovered by their enemies. The mode in which they transport the moss to form the roof is exceedingly curious. "It must be observed, that they employ only such as grows upon the ground. When they have discovered a parcel of this, conveniently situated, they place themselves upon it, with the hind part towards the spot to which they mean to convey it; they first take a small portion, and with their maxillae and fore legs, as it were card and comb it; when the pieces are sufficiently disintegrated, they are placed under the body by the first pair of legs, the intermediate pair receives them, and delivers them to the last, which pushes them as far as possible behind. Then either the same insect, or another who takes her turn in the work, pushes it nearer and nearer to the nest. Thus small heaps of prepared moss are conveyed to it, and in a similar manner carried to the summit or wherever it may be wanted." There are generally four or five individuals employed together at this work. The nest is often as much as six or seven inches in diameter, and sometimes considerably raised above the surface of the ground. In this the female first deposits little masses of brown wax, which Reaumur calls the paste, forming a kind of irregular cells, not at all approaching to the mathematical accuracy with which the elegant comb of the hive bee is built, though destined to serve the same purpose. In these cells, which are of three different sizes, according to the sex of the destined inhabitant, the eggs are laid, and the larvæ, after having lived their appointed period in that state, form each its cocoon, which is pierced at the bottom, and through this opening the perfect insect finds its exit, the pupa being always placed with the head downwards. *Reaumur*; *Kirby*, *Monographia Apium Anglie*; *Cuvier*, *Régne Animal*.

BOMBYLIUS, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects of the order *Diptera*, family *Bombyliari*. Generic character: first joint of the antennæ much longer than the second, and smaller than the third; palpi distinct and apparent; haustellum obviously longer than the head.

The transformations of the insects of this genus have not been accurately observed; but the larvæ are supposed to be parasitical. The perfect insect flies with great rapidity, and hovers quite stationary over flowers, without resting, with the tongue inserted into them.

BOMBYX, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects of the order *Lepidoptera*, family *Bombyciter*, of *Latreille*.

In *Linnaeus's* system, the division of the genus *Phalaena*, to which the name *Bombyx* was applied, comprehended a vast number of species differing considerably from each other, and forming distinct groups, which have since been established as separate genera by *Fabricius*, *Latreille*, *Lamarck*, &c. The genus *Bombyx* of the last named author, is less restricted than that of *Latreille*, who has formed a distinct family of the *Bombyciter*, whilst *Lamarck* arranges them, perhaps more correctly, amongst the *Phalaenide*. He includes, in this genus, the *Phalaenide* having bipunctated antennæ, two short palpi, a very short tongue, (in some species being scarcely perceptible;) a thick body, closely covered with hair or wool, and wings either horizontal or deflected. The larvæ have sixteen feet, and the pupa is enclosed within

BOMBYX, a cocoon. Some of the *Bombyces* are amongst the largest of the *Lepidoptera*. *B. Atlas* for instance, (belonging to the *Lionman* division *Ataci*), measures from tip to tip of the wings, upwards of eight inches. This magnificent moth is a native of Asia; the larva feeds on the orange; the pupa is enclosed in a large strong cocoon. The wings are yellowish and clouded, and there is a large transparent silvery spot on each. Of the European *Bombyces*, the most beautiful is the *Phalana Janonia* of Show, separated by him from the *B. pavonia*, of which it is probably only a large variety. But the species to which the greatest interest attaches, is *B. Mori*, the silk worm moth, from which the whole of the European silk, and the greater part of that of China is produced. "To estimate justly the importance of this article, it is not sufficient to view it as an appendage of luxury, unrivalled for richness, lustre, and beauty, and without which Courts would lose half their splendour; we must consider it, what it actually is, as the staple article of cultivation in many large provinces in the south of Europe, amongst the inhabitants of which, the prospect of a deficient crop causes as great alarm as a scanty harvest of grain with us; and after giving employment to tens of thousands in its first production and transportation, as furnishing subsistence to hundreds of thousands more in its final manufacture; and thus becoming one of the most important wheels that give circulation to national wealth." Kirby and Spence *Intr.* vol. i. 329.

This statement may surely be considered sufficient to rescue the study of Entomology from the charge of inutility, especially when it is observed that many other species of *Bombyx* have been discovered by Entomologists, from which there is every probability that silk may be readily obtained. In India, large quantities are manufactured from the Tussock and Ariody silk worms, (*B. Paphia* and *Cynthia*.) The first of these produces large quantities of a coarse, dark coloured silk, the durability of which is so great, that after constant use for one or two years, it does not show any signs of decay. The silk of the latter species is still more durable, but it is so delicate and fleshy, that it can only be spun like cotton without being wound. (Vide *Lin. Trans.* vii. 33. 48.)

It was from Asia that silk was first brought to Europe; but for many ages the ancients of this continent were unacquainted with its origin. In the sixth century, the eggs of the silk worm moth were brought to Constantinople by two Monks, who had procured them secretly in India, and conveyed them concealed in hollow canes. They were thence introduced into Italy, and in the time of Henry the Fourth were transported from that country into France.

The moth deposits its eggs in the autumn, and the larva appears about the middle of May. It feeds on the mulberry, which it much prefers to any other food; though the lettuce may be substituted till the mulberry leaves appear. About the middle of June they spin the important cocoon, which produces the silk, and which, though it weighs but three grains, or even less, consists of a thread 900 feet long. It requires two thousand silk worms to form a pound of silk. In this cocoon the caterpillar changes to a pupa, and in about twenty days the moth comes forth.

It is probable that other articles besides silk may be, and indeed are, by the Chinese, procured from

the larvæ of the *Bombyces*, such as varnishes, cements, &c.; and the Indian grass of anglers, is said to be procured from the silk reservoir, by opening the body of the larva just before they are about to spin.

Latreille, Hist. Nat.; Kirby and Spence, *Intr.* vol. i. **BOMMEL**, a town in Dutch Guelderland, situated on an island formed by the Maese and the Waal, which is called Bommeleer Waard. It was once a fortified place, but the works were suffered to decay after the acquisition of Bois-le-Duc, by the Dutch Republic. Bommel contains a population of nearly 3000 inhabitants; but its trade has declined in consequence of the accumulation of sand before the entrance of its harbour. During the winter of 1794 and 1795, this town was distinguished by several severe conflicts, occasioned by the attempts of the French to cross the Waal. This they effected towards the end of December of the former year, when the town of Bommel, as well as the adjoining fort of Saint Andrew, fell into their hands, and they afterwards drove the allies from their entrenchments at the point of the bayonet. Bommel stands about 60 miles nearly north-east of Aotwerp, in latitude 51° 49' N., and longitude 4° 55' E.

BOMMELEER WAARD, an island in the Netherlands, formed by the Maese and the Waal, about fifteen miles long, and six broad. Caesar calls it *Insula Batavorum*. It was formerly under the command of a governor appointed by the States General, and was defended by the three forts of Saint Andrew, Voorn, and Crevecoeur. This island being a kind of strong hold, has, like many other parts of Holland been the object of fierce conflict. In the beginning of the civil wars, as a detachment of Spanish troops were crossing it, they were surrounded by a fleet of Dutch ships, the dykes were opened, and the island being thus laid under water, the troops had no refuge but the Citadel, where they must soon have perished for the want of supplies, but for a sudden frost, which obliged the Dutch to raise the blockade, and suffer the Spaniards to escape. In 1600, the island surrendered to Prince Maurice of Orange, and seventy-two years afterwards, it was taken by the French, under Marshal Turenne, but was abandoned in the following year, after destroying the works.

BONACE, Bark Tree, the English name of the *Daphne tawinfolia*.

BONA DEA, the good Goddess. A goddess, in Roman Mythology, concerning whom great diversity of opinion prevails, even among the writers of antiquity. Plutarch, in his *Life of Julius Caesar*, considers her to be the same as the Grecian *Gyaneos*, the mother of Bacchus; the Romans, he adds, believe her to be a Dryad, the wife of Faunus. Macrobius (i. 12.) treats at length upon her nature and worship. On the authority of Cornelius Labeo he represents her to be the same as *Moia*, to whom many other names also are assigned; *Terra*, *Fauna*, *Ops*, and *Fatis*. That she is *Terra* he thinks is clear from the secrecy of her rites. She is *Bona* because she produces good things for man's subsistence. *Fauna*, because *faunt omni usui animantium*. *Ops*, because *ipsius auxilio (vel ope) vita consistit*. *Fatis*, a *fando*; *quod infantes parva editi non prius vocem edunt quam attigerint terram*. Others again, he continues, believe her to be Jono, and therefore represent her with a regal sceptre in her left hand. Some worship her as Proserpine, and therefore approach her with a swine as a victim, the

BOMBYX
—
BONA
DEA

BONA
DEA
BOND.

animal which roots up corn, the gift of Ceres. The Boeotians, he says, hold her to be Semele, a daughter of Faunus, who enraged at her resistance to his incestuous love, scourged her with a myrtle rod; and having in vain attempted to corrupt her by the influence of wine, finally succeeded by transforming himself into a serpent. Hence myrtle twigs are excluded from her temple: a vine is placed above her head: the vessel in which wine is borne into her temple, bears an unusual name, *mellarium*, or as others give it *miliarium*; and the wine itself, in her rites, is spoken of as milk: serpents also sport harmless and unharmed round her altar. Medea among others has claimed this title; because the priests distribute medicine in her temple from a store of herbs; and, on account of the ingratitude of Jason, men are excluded from her sacrifice, Varro, without adopting the whole legend relating to Faunus, makes the *Bona Dea* the daughter of that god; and extols the chastity which prevented her from quitting the chambers assigned to the women, and never permitted her to see or be seen of man. He adds also, that the festival of Hercules, in which women were not allowed to participate, was established by that hero in revenge for a privation which he had suffered while driving the herds of Geryon through Italy. The Demigod was thirty, and, on his application to a woman for water, he was refused, because the day on which he asked was dedicated to the *Bona Dea*, and it was unlawful that men should taste any thing devoted to her service.

The *Bona Dea* had two temples in Rome, one on the Aventine hill, the other in the *Via Nova* adjoining to the temple of Isis. Her rites, however, were generally celebrated in the house of the Consul or the Praetor, who quitted it for the occasion. No male was allowed to be present, even the pictures of her were veiled, and unhappy, says the satirist, the was detected mouse of forbidden sex, who violated the mysteries by his intrusion. In spite of this prohibition, the foul attempt of Clodius is well known, (Plutarch, *in loc. cit.*) and it is to be deduced from many passages in the Roman poets, that the extraordinary appearance of sanctity with which the worship of the *Bona Dea* was conducted, served only as a veil for the uttermost licence of excess and illicit intrigue.

BONAH, or BELAD EL ANER, (the Land of Grapes) is a seaport on the coast of the Mediterranean, in lat. 36° 52' N. and long. 7° 45' E. It belongs to the Dey of Algiers, and the province of Kostoninah. The French have a factory there, and used formerly to carry on a considerable traffic in grain, butter, oil, wax, hides, and wool. Both the harbours are almost choked up, and very insecure, and no vessels can approach nearer than a league from the town. The coral fishery, on the neighbouring coast, is principally carried on by the Genoese. See Shaw's *Travels*; Poirer's *Foyage in Barbarie*; Morgan's *Barbary States*.

BOND, n.
Bond, adj.
Bo'NDAGE,
Bo'NDMAN, OF
Bo'NDMAN,
Bo'NDMAID,
Bo'NDPOLE,
Bo'NDSERVANT,
Bo'NDSLAVE,
Bo'NDWOMAN, OF
Bo'NDWOMAN.

The past tense and past participle of the verb to bind, (q. v.)
A bond is that which binds, fastens, or confines; or by which any thing is bound, fastened, or confined; which puts or keeps in confinement, under constraint, under obligation, that which constrains or obliges, which forces or compels.

Me may as a bonds man's some other wyle say: bi come,
And some gromes and squires, and seth: knyghtes come.
R. Gloucester, p. 100.

BOND.

For alle his prydism, but now on Ingland es,
Jorh Normann it cam, bondage it destres,
And ife now powere had of us, wite ge wile
Sirester we wold be led by his tend chile.
R. Brunne, p. 261.

No lense flatering in her word
That purely her simple record
Was found as true as any load
Or truth, of any mannes bond.
Chaucer. *The Dreeme*, fol. 243.

And anon hie eeris were opened and the mark of his tinge
was unbeniden and he spak rightly. Wiclif. *Math.* ch. vii.

This gentill wote he male not longe
Endure under so harde bondes,
And thought he wold out of his bondes
By sleight, in some maner escape.
Gower. *Conf. Am.* book iv. fol. 75.

Thus I alone, where all my freedom grew,
In prison pine with bondage and restraint,
And with remembrance of the greater griefe
To banish the less, I find my chief rede.
Surrey. *Complaint of Dying Lover*, &c.

If thou wilt mighty be, flee from the rage
Of cruel will, and see thou keepe the free
From the foul yoke of sensual bondage.
Wynt. *He raieth not*, &c.

And furthermore, ther as the lawe sayth, that tempore goodes
of bondfith ben the goodes of his Lord.
Chaucer. *The Parson's Tale*, v. li. p. 351.

And knyghts of the erthe and prynces and tribunes and riche
and stronge, and ech bondman and free, men hidden hem, in
densys and stony of hilles. Wiclif. *Apocalyp.* ch. vi.

And the byrges of the earth, and the great men, and the
ryche men, and the chiefe capytaynes, and the myghty men,
and every bondman, and every free manne hid themselves in
denses, and in rockes of the hilles. Bible, 1561.

My father but a bondman borne
and I at first but poore,
I stretcht my wings and from my nest
did mount aloft and soore.
Draut. *Hercules*, R. 9

For Sina is a mountaine in Arabia, whiche in the Chaldee
language hath the name of the *bondman's* Agur, and bordereth
upon the mountaine of Sina. Udal. *Gelethi*, ch. iv.

A bondman that hath a master more cruel then a reasonable
man would be to a dogge; if there were no lawes, might this
bond servant accuse God of unrighteousnes, because he hath not
made hym a master?
Tyndall's *Workes*, fol. 218.

They therefore whiche gave themselves unto synne became
bondslaves, the fruite of that theye bondage is death.
Udal. *Romanes*, ch. vi.

Yet satrest thou an idle looker on,
And gladst attracted which side won or lost:
Now if thou be a bondslave vile become
No wrong is that, but Gods most righteous doome.
Puritan. *Godfrey of Hounslogre*, book i. st. 51.

I tell you, master Thorney, I sere no necessity. Bonds and hille
are but terrers to catch foole, and keep larye hawes hony. My
security shall be present payment.

Ford. *The Wic of Edmontan*, act i. sc. 2.
And thus whilst all a mutual change desire,
The ancient bonds of their allegiance broke.
Resolv'd with blood their liberty to buy,
And in this quarrell resolv'd to live and die.
Dreyton. *The Heres Wars*.

100 were Spaniards, every one well mounted upon his horse;
the rest were Indians, running as dogs at their heels, all naked
and in the most miserable bondage.

Su Francis Drake. *The World Encompassed*.

BOND.

Mr. Lambard therefore (in declaiming the miscreanting of the word villanus) doth render it in the Saxon laws by Faganus, which signifeth the same that villanus doth, according to the French for a villager, but not according to our English for a bondman.

Splendian. On the Frodo and Treasures, ch. vii. fol. 14.

It happened that the bondman of Plutarch had committed some gross offence: wherefore his master willed, that he should be sharply punished.

See Thomas Elyot. The Governour, p. 211.

Too much this sacred seat of Justice grants unto such a fugitive bondswoman, who, instead of these examinations, should be made confess with a truth, that which a halter should punish.

Sidney. Arcadia, book v.

Their children that were left after them in the land, whom the children of Israel also were not able utterly to destroy, upon those did Solomon levy a tribute of bond-service unto this day.

Bible. Modern Version, Kings, ch. ix. v. 21.

Others of some note,

As story tells, have trod this wilderness;

The fugitive bond-woman with her son

Outcast Nebeloth, yet found her relief

By a providing Angel.

Milton. Paradise Regain'd, book ii. l. 308

When thick as Egypt's locusts on the sand,
Our tribes lay slaughter'd through the prom'd land,
Whose few survivors with worse fate remain,
To drag the bondage of a tyrant's reign.

Dryden. Absolon and Archipel, part ii.

—Th' appointed time

With pious toll fulfill'd, the callous yoking,

Warm'd and expanded into perfect life,

Their little bondage break, and come to light.

Thomson. Spring.

I have struggled through much discouragement and much opposition; much obloquy; much calumny, for a people with whom I have no tie, but the common bond of mankind.

Burke. A Letter to Sir Hercules Langrishe.

Let them endeavour to wipe away the reproach of having delivered over so many of their innocent fellow-creatures to a most heavy temporal bondage, both by contributing to soothe and alleviate that as much as possible, and by endeavouring to rescue them from the still more cruel bondage of ignorance and sin.

Porteus. Sermon xvii. v. i.

On account of the prejudices which we have justly conceived against the doctrine that were afterwards grafted on this system, we now use the word *enslaved* opprobriously, as synonymous to slave or bondman.

Blackstone. Commentaries, ii. p. 53.

I shall be obliged, therefore, to furnish these honest farmers with a new supply of hands for tillage, which I must be at the expense of buying, as there are none left upon the estate, neither have I any bond-slaves of my own.

Melmoth. Pilgr, Letter xix. book iii.

Buxo, in law, is one of the modes of alienating personal property by deed, by the force of which a person (technically called the obligor) obliges himself and his personal representatives by consequence, or, if the deed so express it, his heirs also, to pay a sum of money, at a certain day therein specified, to another person (called the obligee.) The money is recoverable, after the expiration of the time specified, in an action of debt. So far a Bond may appear to be simply a security for the repayment of a sum of money due; though, being under the seal of the obligor or party engaging to pay it, it is considered in law a specialty debt, i. e. it is entitled to payment prior to all simple contract debts, or debts secured only by parol, whether they be such in fact (as mere oral undertakings or contracts) or in law (as where the promise or agreement, though in writing, is not under seal.) Bonds are, however, more commonly given for the purpose

of securing the performance of some act. Thus, where one party has entered into a covenant with another to do or leave undone any particular act,—as a tenant, in a lease, to pay rent to his landlord; a surety to indemnify a principal against the acts of a person for whom he thus becomes bound; a borrower under mortgage, to pay the interest on the sum lent regularly to the lender, &c. &c.; it is a convenient and usual method to give a Bond for a certain sum, which is termed the penalty, and which of obvious necessity exceeds, and in common practice, is just double of the sum risked by the party accepting this indemnification. In such cases a condition is superadded to the Bond, stipulating that if the act be performed the obligation shall be void, but shall otherwise remain in force. Should the act so secured to be performed be, in itself, immoral or illegal, the Bond is held in law to be *ipso facto* void. Under the former head may be classed all Bonds for the performance of any thing *malum in se*, and so recognised by the common feeling and understanding of mankind, or the common law of the land, which is, or must be supposed to be, founded on them. Such are Bonds given in consideration of future prostitution, though if the consideration be previous cohabitation, they are held by our courts to be valid, being considered in the light of compensation for the ill done. 2 P. Wms. 439, and other cases. Such also are Bonds whose condition tends to the general and unqualified restraint of the freedom of trade—a principle very dear to our laws, and the operation of which, as applying to the point in question, is fully and clearly developed in Lord Maclesfield's judgment, in the case of Mitchell v. Reynolds, 1 P. Wms. 181. See also *East*, 86. The latter head comprises all Bonds for the performance of any acts of the class of *malum prohibitum*, or which, by particular enactments of the legislature, are made equally offensive to the law with the preceding class of misdoings. Such are gaming, usury, simony, &c. &c. And no position is now clearer, than that our Courts of Law can admit no distinction, however obvious be the difference in the eyes of moralists, between *malum prohibitum* and *malum in se*. Where the condition of a Bond is impossible at the time of making it, "the condition alone," says Blackstone, book ii. ch. xx. "is void, and the Bond shall stand single and unconditional;" i. e. the whole penalty shall be recoverable, without inquiring into the non-performance of the condition. In other cases, it is sufficient for the defendant, in an action on the Bond, to set forth the condition on the pleadings, and to prove, on the trial, that it has been complied with. If in any case he failed to do this, he would by the letter of the Bond, be liable to pay the whole penal sum, and this liability the common law enforced. It is obvious that such a rule would often be productive of gross injustice. A man might borrow a hundred pounds, and give a Bond, in the penalty of two hundred, conditioned for the repayment of the sum really borrowed; yet, if he failed to repay it, his obligor would recover the whole two hundred. To obviate this, it was enacted (8 and 9 William III. ch. xl. sec. 8.) "That the plaintiff may assign;" (and the act having been passed for the relief of defendants in actions on Bonds, this word "may" has been construed to mean "must." See *Drage v. Brand*, 2 Wils. 377, and subsequent cases) "as many branches as be

BOND.

BOND. shall think fit," of the condition; and it is in relation only to these breaches, so assigned on the face of the pleadings, and, of course, proved to the satisfaction of the jury that damages can be recovered.

BOND. If in a Bond the obligor binds himself only and not his heirs, the heir will not be liable; but the charge falls only on the personal representatives. Shep. Touch. 369. And where the heir is expressly bound, yet, in an action against him on his ancestor's Bond, it is necessary to allege this fact in the declaration, or the plaintiff cannot recover; and even after a verdict in his favour, judgment would be arrested on the ground of such a defect in the pleadings. See Barber v. Fox, 2 Sandd. 136.

BONDOLU, or **BONDU**, is one of those states near the western coast of Africa, which belong to the Fúlhas, who, with the exception perhaps of the Mandingoes, are the most numerous of all the Negro tribes in western Africa. This territory, placed between the Senegal and Gambia, is bounded on the north by Kajaga, on the east by Bambúk, on the south by Tenda and the Simbani desert, and on the south-west and west by Fúta-tarra. It is hilly and extremely fertile, well watered, and in many places covered with wood. The banks of its principal stream, called the Faldú, are covered in December with rich fields of manioc (*Holcus crassus*), and among the fruits and esculent vegetables, besides most of those produced at Sierra Leone, there are several still imperfectly, or not at all known to Europeans. The natives are gentle, kind hearted, and industrious: raised, or rather rising from the pastoral to the agricultural state; and entirely occupied in the care of their cattle and the culture of their fields. They fold their herds every night, and always keep watch to guard against the attack of wild beasts. They do not use their milk till it is sour; preparing an acid beverage, something like the yoghurt of the Tatar tribes, so agreeable in a hot climate. Of the cream they make butter, which is preserved in earthen pots for the table or the toilet, as anointing the body with it is a luxury in which the wealthy delight to indulge. With the art of making cheese they are not acquainted. Their horses, which bear apparently the cross of the Arabian breed, are excellent. The rapid and rocky stream of the Faldé supplies them with abundance of fish, and their contrivance for fishing, on a large scale, is ingenious. A dam of stone, with openings at intervals, is built across the river, and baskets of split cane, twenty feet long, are placed before these openings in the direction of the current, which is too strong to allow the return of the fish when once they have entered the trap. Hand-nets made of cotton are used for catching a smaller kind of fish, about as big as sprats, and these are, as soon as caught, pounded in a wooden mortar till a paste is formed, which is immediately dried in the sun in large lumps.

Bondú being a great thoroughfare from the interior to the European factories on the coast, is much frequented by *selátés* or slave merchants, who usually trade in various articles. Other traders come to purchase salt. Strong cotton cloths, manufactured in the country, and dyed with indigo growa there, are also an article of barter with the people of Bambúk, who bring gold in exchange. Grain and fragrant gums are given in return for iron, the butter of the shea-tree, and gold dust. The duties levied by the king are

very heavy; and as arms and ammunition are always required from travellers who can pay in that coin, his Majesty's arsenals are well supplied, and he is the terror of his poorer neighbours.

The Mohammedan faith has been embraced by the greater part of the natives of Bondú; but the gentleness of the Negro character here, as elsewhere, has softened the intolerant spirit of Mohammedanism. Religious persecution is unknown; and many retain their idolatrous superstitions without molestation from their Musliman neighbours. Schools, in which Arabic is taught, are common; as is always the case where the doctrines of the Koran have taken root. See Park's *Travels*; Goltberry's *Trovels*; Durand's *Voyage au Senegal*; Mollier's *Voyage en Afrique*.

BONDOKDAN, a title given to the Master of the Ordinance in the service of the Mamluk Sultan of Egypt. The name is derived from the Turkish word *bondak*, a nut; hence applied metaphorically to a hall discharged from fire-arms. It was the surname of the Sultan Bibars, who originally was the slave of this officer.

BONDORF, a County of Sushia, in the Black Forest, which formerly belonged to the Benedictine abbey of St. Blasius. Amidst the commotions which agitated this part of Germany in 1803, it was assigned to the Grand Prior of Heisterbach; in 1805 it reverted to the King of Württemberg, but during the following year it was transferred to the Grand Duke of Baden. The whole extent, including the lordship of Blumack, is near ninety square miles, and the population less than 5000. The revenue it then yielded was estimated at 45000. Bondorf is the chief town, and is now the head of the bailiwick, in the circle of the Danube; but does not contain more than 1000 inhabitants. It stands near 730 miles nearly north of Zurich, and six miles from Strathingen.

BONE, *v.* A. S. *ban*; Ger. *bein*; Sw. and *Bona*, *n.* Dutch, *been*; Martinus, Wachter, Bo'ned, } ihre, agree with other etymologists
Bo'nelas, } that the Northern *ban* and the Gr.
Bo'nev, } *baivov*, to go, to step forward, to
Bo'neace. } proceed; *ire*, *gradi*, *incedere*, must have some affinity. "Crura," says Wachter, "*sunt natoris gradiendi instrumenta*." And Martinus, "*Bein*, *Os*, quia osium virtute eat *to baivov*."

Bone-lace, or *bone-worked lace*, is lace worked, made, or manufactured upon bones.

To make no bones is to do—as willingly, as readily, as easily as a dog or other animal devours meat without bones; and thus—to invent no difficulties.

Bone-set, to set a dislocated or fractured bone into its place.

He smot to gromde, & lyttliche he no gaf strok non,
þat he ne brak her oþer arm; or non oþer bon.
R. Gloucester, p. 126.

þeke man he was þrow, round & noxt wel long.
þoru out red, and god wombe, wel yþowd & strong.
Id. p. 414.

The helmes they to-bewen, and to-shirde;
Owt breut the blod, with sterne stremes rode.
With mighty forces the bones they to-brewen
He thurgh the thickest of the throng ran throuwe.
Chaucer. *The Knight's Tale*, v. 1611.

The bathes woren than arald
With herbes tempered and assaid,

BONE.
—
BONER.

And Jason was warmed none,
And did, as it befell to doze,
Into his balbe he went anon;
And wimble hym cleane as any bone.
Greene. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 104.

Alas my Lord while I do muse hereon
And call to minde my youthful years ymagine,
They give me such a bone to gnaw vpon,
That all my anials are in silence pent.
Gascoigne. Woodenship.

See ye my hondis and my feet: for I myself am, feeble ye nod
see ye for a spiryt hath no flesh and bones as ye see that I have.
Wiclif. Luke, ch. xliii.

Beholde my handes and my fete, that it is euen my selfe.
Handle me and see: for spirites haue not flesh and bones, as ye
see me haue.
Bible, 1551.

For those pictures expresse only y^e lothely figure of our dead
body bodica litten away y^e flesh.
Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 77.

Thomas Wyatt had on a shirt of maille, and on his head a faire
hat of velvet, with broad *haucwre* lace about it.
Stowe. Queen Mary. Anno, 1554.

I here giuen sucke, and know
How tender 'tis to loue the babe that milkes me
I would, while it was anything in my face,
Hauo pluckt my nipple from his boneles gums
And dasht the brains out, had I so sworn
As you haue done to this.
Shakespeare. Macbeth, fol. 135.

After this, the vengeance on the whole camp, or rather the
bone-ack, for that me thinks in the curse depend on those
that warre for a plackit.
Id. Troilus and Cressida, fol. 87.

This seemed to be a bone cut betwene the nakles and the
commons, to set them together at strife and contention.
Holland. Livius, fol. 178.

Like *Exu's* hounds contending for the bone,
Each pleas'd right, and would be lord alone;
The fruitless fight continued all the day;
A one came by, and catched the prize away.
Dryden. Palamon and Arcite, book 1.

When Scanderbeg, prince of Epirus, was dead, the Turks
imagin'd that by wearing a piece of his bones near their heart,
they shoud' be animated with a vigour and force like to that
which inspir'd him when living.
Spectator, No. 316.

I am not without hopes, because I am not like the twaddly gay
things that are fit only to make a bone-face.
Tatler, No. 83.

Some haue amur'd the dull, and years of life
(Life spent in indolence, and therefore sad)
With schemes of monumental fame; and sought
By pyramids of Mausoleo pomp,
Sort-th'd themselves, 'till immortalize their bones.
Cowper. The Task, book v.

Unlike to living sounds it came,
Umbell'd, umbell'd with breath;
But, grinding through some scranell frame,
Creak'd from the bony lungs of death.
Longhorn. Fable xi.

BONECHIEF. Fr. bon, good, and chef, the chief or
head; opposed to mischief. Another example may
be found under *ACHERY*, q. v.

As smeth wels by reason, who so can intend,
That O man's wytt ne wyll any more comprehend
Than bonechef, as may many hedia.
Chaucer. The Merchant's Second Tale.

BONER. Fr. bonnaire, "gentle, courteous, affable,
mild, without malice, faithful, sincere." Cotgrave.
Bonier is still preserved in the compound *debonair*.

He telleth a tale of the Patriarke of Constantinople that he
should be *boner* and *bonen* to the bishop of Rome; and yet at
that time, when, as he imagineth, this graunte was made, the
cittie of Constantinople was not builded.

French. Def. of the Apologie.

Of all this deckdom fey
That yls lady ys eyr;
And come of knyghtes heene;
She is wicke and bonny,
Therefore we will in despyte,
That she be dygit to synne.

Lycanus. Discourse in Ritsen's Romances, v. li. p. 73.

BONFIRE. Illicks in his *Diction. Island.* says that
bon-fyr, whence our *bon-fire*, by change of a letter of
the same organic utterance (namely *i* into *a*) is from
bon-fyr, *rogus*; Sax. *heli*; Isl. *houl*, incensum. The
glossarist to G. Douglas adopts this opinion, and it is
transcribed into Lye's edition of Junius without com-
ment. But Junius himself, in his *Gloss. Goth.* in v.
balugan, torquer, (with which he considers the A. S.
hæl to be connected) intimates nothing of the kind.
He indeed produces (in consistency with this con-
nection) instances of the usage of the A. S. *beffir* and
beathlyre (i. e. blaze) in application to the fires lighted
by Abraham, to burn his only son, and by Nabuchod-
onozor to burn the three young men.

There is no evidence that such a word as *bon-fyr*
ever existed. The etymology proposed by Skinner
certainly accords better with our more common usage
of the word, and is more simple in itself. "Ignis
festus, q. d. bonus, vel bene ominatus ignis, i. e. Fr. G.
un bon feu."

This month was reported all the realm ower, that the quene
was delivered of a prince, for kyne whereof, in many places the
sang *Te Deum*, and made *bon-fires*.
Fulcan. Queen Marie, Anno, 1555.

When tidynge of this notable victory was blown into En-
glands, solemn prayers and other praynyngs to Almighty
God, with *bon-fires* and dancs were ordain'd in every town,
cittie and borough.
Hall. King Henry 7.

As he died of cruel diseases. But they made him as *bon-fir*,
like the *bon-fires* of his fathers.
Bible, 1551. 2 Chron. ch. xli.

When he beheld any *bon-fires* made for loy of his fathers vic-
tories, he would weep, saying, my father will conquer all and
leave nothing for me to conquer.

Stow. Memorable Antiquities. Alexander the Great.

I venture to assure you in the name of the whole neighbour-
hood, that we will at our next meeting hold a day of thanksgiving
on that account, and conclude the evening with a *bon-fir* of
dew's, dyes, and post-boys.
Tatler, No. 317.

Do you feel any, even the least, warmth, in the idea of a *bon-fir*,
a burning mountain, or the general conflagration?
Beattie. On Truth, part li. ch. xi.

BONGRACE. The Fr. *bonne-grace*, Cotgrave says, is
the uppermost flap of the down-hanging tail of a French
hood; and hence *delecto sensu*, according to Skinner
our *bongrace*, a frontal or covering for the foreheads of
infants to defend them from injury, when they fall;
so called because they seem graceful or becoming to
them. Baret considers it to have been a mere um-
brella or *embracatur* "to keep off the sunne."

What was my face,
That is no better than a ragged map now
Oh where I have march'd and travell'd, profit me;
Unless it be for ladies to abuse, and say
'Twas spoil'd for want of a *bongrace* when I was young.
Beaumont and Fletcher. The Captain, act li. sc. i.

BONIFY: used by Cudworth. Fr. *bonifier*, from the

BONER.
—
BONIFY.

BONIFY. Lat. *bonus*, and *fac*; to become or cause to become good.

BONNET.

This must be acknowledged to be the greatest of all arts, to keepen evils, or incite them with good. *Codworth.*

BONN, a town of the Prussian States, in the grand Duchy of the Lower Rhine, which lately belonged to France, and was included in the department of the Rhine and Moselle. It is situated in a fertile country on the left bank of that river, and was the *Ara Ubiorum*, as well as the *Colonia Julia Bona Verona*, of the ancients. It was the residence of the Elector of Cologne, and was formerly much more populous than it is at present; for since the Electorate has been abolished, the population has declined. At the close of the last century, the number of inhabitants was estimated at 11,000, but lately at only 9000. The town itself presents but little to attract the traveller's attention. The chief objects of his curiosity are the metropolitan church, the noble area before its porch, the town house, which is adorned with some good paintings, the rampart which presents a fine view of the Rhine, and the palace of the late Elector, which stands on an eminence out of the town on the spot where four palaces had been previously burnt to the ground. Bonn being formerly considered as a fortress, has suffered in the wars between the neighbouring countries; and was taken by the Duke of Marlborough in 1703. It was also noted for its Academy, which was founded in 1777, and received the title of a University in 1786; but it was converted by the French first into a central school, and afterwards into a Lycée. It was taken by the French troops in 1794, and given up to Prussia at the general peace of 1814. About three miles from Bonn are the mineral springs of Dreitsch, which have been found to contain fixed air, iron, magnesia, and salt. Bonn is about fourteen miles nearly south-east of Cologne, the spires of which can be seen from the Electoral palace. Lat. 50° 40' N. long. 7° 6' E.

BONNET, *v.* Fr. *bonnet*; Sp. *bonete*; Dutch, *bonnet*, *n.* Fr. *bonnet*; Sw. *bonad*. The Swedish *bonad*, three deduces from *Swed. bo*, *boo*, to prepare, to provide. *Wet bold*, he observes, is well clothed; i. e. well prepared or provided, *sc.* against the cold; and hence, *bonad*, a clothing, a covering; *Hufvud bonad*, *tegenen capsis*; n clothing or covering of the head. *Bonnet* is also applied to certain small sails attached to the larger sails.

For though some he lither, and list for to rayle.
Yet to vpon me they can not prayle.
Then let them vade a bonet of their proud sayle.

Skelton. Against Vincent Tongues.

Let your chaplaine sayle his bonet, & receyue hym wyth
reuerence, for here now he cometh. *Bale's Apology.*

They shall haue ferre linnen bonnettes vpon their heades, and
lynne breeches vpon their loynes. *Bible, 1551. Ezech. ch. xlii.*

As for reiling *bonet* before great rulers and magistrates, or
within their sight. Varro saith, it was a fashion at first not com-
mended for any reverence or honour thereby to be done unto
governours, but for health sake; and namely, that men's heads
might be more firme and hardie, by that ordinarie use and custome
of being bare. *Heliod. Phisic. v. li. fol. 305.*

This same *bonet* the Salamander beleeu'der both her corners and
bonet, happened to strike a great while with her full armour.
Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. M. Frobenius, ill. fol. 77.

FOL. XVIII.

Hee hath deseru'd worthily of his country, and his ascent is
not by such raise degrees as those, who haue bene supple and
cortuous to the people, *bonnetted*, without any further deed, to
haue them at all into their estimation. *Shakespeare. Coriolanus, fol. 10.*

Thus the vast jetting coal and small *bonnet*, which was the
habit to Harry the Seventh's time, is kept on in the yemen of
the guard, not without a good and politick view, because they
look a foot taller, and a foot and an half broader. *Spectator. No. 109.*

BONNY, } Not in our old lexicons. Fr. *bon*,
Bo'NNILY, } *bonne*, good; good, in any respect;
Bo'NNINES, } having good features, good complex-
ion, good form; well made; having good and manly
dispositions.

O *bonnie bonnie* was his mouth,
And cherry were his cheeks,
And clear clear was his yellow hair,
Whereon the red blind drap.
Kiln of Gordon, in Percy.

Their goynge out of Britayne was to be come bonnet Christen
menys wyues, and not to go on pylgrimage to Rome, and so
become *byshoppes hostesses* or *protes* playfayers.

Bale. English Voyages, p. l. fol. 21.

And every little grass
Broad itself spreadeth,
Provd that this *bonny* lass
Upon it treadeth.
Dragon. The Shepherd's Sirene, fol. 231.

He had his folk fyghte hard,
With speare, mace, and sword;
And he wolde, after fyght,
None lwiner to becom dyght.
Wiber. Kyng Alexander, l. 3903.

We say, that Shore's wife hath a pretty foot,
A cherry lip, a *bonny* eye, a passing pleasing tongue;
And that the Quakers kindred are more gentle folks.
Shakespeare. King Richard III, fol. 174.

Your *bonnets*, your *beute* bright,
Your *maisy* stature, trim and tight,
Your properties dole all appear,
My senses to illude.

Philotas, in Jonson.

BONNY, in Mineralogy, is a distinct bed of ore which
has no communication with any vein. It is distinguished
from a *Squat* in shape: the *Bonny* being round, and
the *Squat* flat.

BONTIA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Dity-
namia*, order *Angiosperma*. Generic character: calyx
five-partite; corolla ringent; upper lip emarginate;
lower trifid; stigma bilobate; drupa in a bilocular
shell; cells bipartite, four-seeded.

The only species of this genus is the *B. daphnoides*,
or Barbadoes Wild Olive, a native of the West Indies.
BONVOULOIR ISLANDS, a group of islands and
reefs which belong to the archipelago of Louisiade in
the South Pacific Ocean. The French vessels that
were sent to search of La Perouse, fell in with some
of the canoes from this group, which were curiously
carved, had two masts, and a steering paddle or helm,
both at the prow and the stem. They were different
from all they had previously examined, and the people
they contained were of the middle size, shy and dis-
trustful. They differed from all the other South Sea
islanders, by not showing any predilection for iron.

BOOBY, } Junius thinks that *booby* has the
Bo'ONVUS, } same origin as the Scotch *bo'ward*;
namely, the Gr. *βοῦβων*, as heavy as an ox; or, as
Hesychius interprets, a great, senseless fellow, (from

BOOBY. *βοῦβ, an ox, and βῆπος, heaviness.* Ruddiman derives *houbard*, from the Lat. *buco*, an owl.

BOOK. The English *booby* is probably no more than an emphatic repetition of *boy*, sc. *boy, boy, boy*; a boy indeed, a mere boy, having none but boyish, childish qualities and dispositions; a simpleton. The verb, *boy'd*, is used by Beaumont and Fletcher in a manner which strongly confirms this supposition. "Baffled and boy'd," i. e. made a boy, a child, a booby; made a fool of; befoul'd.

Mis. 'Tis not thy enns,
Thou hast no reputation wounded in't;
Thine's but a general seal: 'death: I am tainted,
The dearest twin to life, my credit's murder'd,
Baff'd and boy'd.
Beaumont and Fletcher. Knight of Malta, act I. sc. 3.

In ancient Greece, she says, when Sappho writ,
By their applause the critics show'd their wit,
They tun'd their voices to her lyric string;
Though they could all do something more than sing.
But one exception to this fact we find;
That lovely Pion only was unkind.

Prior. Epilogue to Mr. Menley's Lucius.

The *booby*, when it comes to his turn, appears quite stupid and insensible. The company divert themselves with his confusion; and sneers, winks, and whispers are circulated at his expense.
Goldsmith. Citizen of the World, Letter 82.

BOOBY, in Zoology, a vulgar name of the *Pelecanus*

Banana.

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Ger. *buch*: Dutch, *boek*; Swe. *book*; A. S. *boe*, and also *boe-in*, to book. In A. S. *boe* is also a beech tree. Hence it has been presumed by Skinner, amongst others, that our ancestors wrote upon the bark of the beech tree (*fagus corticibus*, Skin.) and that the name thus originated. Wachter, supported by learned names, ascribes to it an origin similar to that of the Latin volumes, (from *volvare*, to roll,) viz. from the Ger. *bug-en*; A. S. *bug-an*; *flexere*, convolute; to bow, to bend, to fold.

To be well *booked*, in Gower is to be well read in books; learned in books, *booklearned*.

To *book* in modern usage is to write into a book.

Book is used in Composition.

In byþingunge of þis booe we may rede, and seerþe the
Hos muche lond eke of hem adde to þe partje.
R. Gloucester, p. 227.

Jus my lode gan telle, echo tek grete vilanie
Of þe Londreis alle, when scho of London went.
R. Brune, p. 216.

Wel may þe barn blisse. þat hym to book sette
That lyrynge after lectoure, saveþe hym lyf and soule.
Piers Planchman, p. 236.

And if there any sike me
Whether that it be he or she,
Now this booke, which is here
Shall hit, that I rede you hire
It is the Roman of the Rose
In which all the art of love I close.
Chaucer. The Roman of the Rose, fol. 116.

She was well kepte, she was well lofed,
She was well taught, she was well bofed;
So well she sped hie in hir youth,
That she of every wysdom couthe.
Gower, book viii. fol. 181.

As for the others which had not yet by hapiness booked themselves as soldiers, to fight under the banner of Christian captivitas, none durst company with them.
Udall. Actes, ch. v.

— Lay adorne
Thy conference with bookish morn,
and let the shrewd go frowne,
That thou maist feede yfere, upon
thy hardly purchasde praye.
Diana's Horace Epit. F. 4.

He also remembered this, that his pleasures in reading books were more frequent, while he remembered but little of yesterday's study, and to-morrow the book is new, and with its novelties gives him fresh entertainment, while the retaining brain lays the book aside, and is full already.
Taylor. Sermon xiii. fol. 212.

What needs me care for alic bookish skill,
Th blot white papers with my restless quill.
Hall. Satires, book ii. sat. 2.

The book/h! blockhead, ignorantly read,
With looks of learned lumber in his head,
With his own tongue still eulogies his ears
And always listening to himself appears.
Pope. Essay on Criticism, part I.

This Will. looks upon as the learning of a gentleman, and regards all other kinds of science as the accomplishments of one whom he calls a scholar, a bookish man, or a philosopher.
Spectator, No. 166.

But of all books, the book of God was that, in which she was most delighted and employed; and which was served, for any considerable time, out of her hands.

Atterbury. Sermon on the Death of Lady Cottes.

It is another advantage of reading, that we may review what we have read; we may consult the page again and again, and meditate on it at successive seasons in our retreat and retired hours, having the book always at hand.

Watts. Improvement of the Mind.

The number of manuscripts, far exceeding those of any other book, and their wide dispersion, afford an argument, in some measure to the senses, that the Scriptures antecede, in like manner as at this day, were more read and sought after than any other books, and that also in many different countries.

Paley's Evidences, part I. ch. ii.

Book, in Composition.

O, it is not your head bookish-men
Nor none of his degree:
But, on to-morrow ere it be none
All deemed to die ere yet.
Old Man of Portingate, in Percy.

When the sayd shippe had received in all that the companies agent will have laden, you shall make a list copie of that which is laden, reciting the parcels, the markes and numbers of every thing plainly, which you shall likewise deliver to the sayd bookkeeper to the use aforesayd.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Parer's Instructions, v. I. fol. 273.

And if thou shouldst derive and say, that wiffully thou hadst mothered thine owne mother, they are ready to bear thee in hand, and promise, that they have read many kindred book-cases and presidents, that afford means to acquit thee: provided always, that they perceive thee to be well moored.

Hallam. Ammanus, fol. 386.

DUL. You two are book-men: can you tell by your wit, what was a mouth old at Cain's birth, that's not five weekes old as yet?
Shakspeare. Lear's Labour Lost, fol. 151.

BOV. This armada is a Spaniard that keeps here in court
A phantasmie, a monarcho, and one that makes sport
To the priuer and his book-moist. *Id. Ib. fol. 130.*

And didn't y^e not kisse me, and bid mee fetch thee 30s? I put thee now to thy book-oth, deny it if thou canst?
Id. King Henry IV. Second Part, fol. 79.

I am not book-learn'd, to know that word is rogue,
But I suspect 'tis Latin for a rogue.
Dryden. Prologue, xxxi.

BOOK.

BOOK-BINDING.

Neither does it so much require *book-learning* and *scholarship*, as good natural sense, to distinguish true and false, and to discern what is well proved, and what is not.

Barnes's Theory.

These poring bookworms will run you a long detail of every injured prince and state that rose to the Roman Senate for protection, but know nothing of the four Indian Kings that were lately here.

Tatler, No. 278.

I find by my bookletter that these Papers of Criticism, with that upon Humour, have met with a more kind reception than indeed I could have hoped for from such subjects.

Spectator, No. 58.

Hence, bookworm, learn our duty here
Is active life in every sphere.
Know too, there's scarce a brute but can
Instruct vain supercilious man.

Cotton. Fable 2. The Scholar and the Cat.

Narcissus is a bean, but not an ass,
He likes your warts, but most his looking-glass;
Will he to serve you quit his favourite care,
Turn a book-potter and offend the fair!

Wither.

Wither. A Disinglar.

In greater writers one has often read
What is excuse of bookwormship is said;
"It is not ink, and letter, that we own
To be divine, but scripture sense alone;
We have the rule which the apostles made,
And no occasion for immediate aid."

Dryden. Letter 4.

BOOK-BINDING, the art of gathering and sewing together the sheets of a Book, and covering it with a back, &c. It is thus performed: the leaves are first folded with a flat piece of ivory, termed a *folding-stick*; and laid over each other in the order of the signature; they are then beaten on a stone with a hammer, to make them smooth, and open freely, and are afterwards pressed. Next, they are sewed, and glued; and the back is turned with a hammer; and the Book is fixed in a press between two boards, in order to make a groove for fixing the pasteboards. Very thick volumes are sometimes sewed upon *bands*, which are pieces of cord or packthread, six bands being allowed to a folio Book, five in a quarto, octavo, &c. This is done by drawing a thread through the middle of each sheet, and giving it a turn round each band, beginning with the first and proceeding to the last. The Books are then glued, and the bands are opened and scraped; and, the back being turned, the Book is put into the press for fixing the pasteboards, in the manner just noticed. These being applied, holes are made for fixing them to the Book, which is pressed a third time, and is then conveyed to the *cutting-press*, between two boards, the one lying even with the press, the other above it for the knife to run against. The next operation is the sprinkling of the leaves, which is done by dipping a stiff-haired brush into a coloured liquid, holding the brush in one hand, and spreading the hair with the other; by which motion the leaves are regularly sprinkled. It now remains to fix the covers, which are of leather: after being moistened in water they are cut out to the size of the Book, then smeared over the pasteboard on the outside, and doubled over the edges within side; after having first taken off the four angles, and indented and flatted the cover at the head-band. This manipulation being done, the Book is bound firmly between two boards, and set to dry. It is afterwards washed over with a little paste and water, and sprinkled with a fine brush, unless it is designed to be marbled; when the spots are to be made larger by mixing the ink with vitriol. The Book is then finished off, by glazing it twice with the

white of an egg, and by polishing it with a polishing iron, passed hot over the glazed cover.

The letters or ornaments on Books, are made with gilding tools, engraved in relief either on the points of pumebons or around little cylinders of brass: the pumebons make their impressions by being pressed flat down, and the cylinders by being rolled along by a handle, to which they are fitted on an iron axis. In order to lay on the gold, the binders glaze the parts to be gilt with a liquor made of the whites of eggs, by means of a piece of sponge; and, when dry, the pieces of gold leaf are laid on, and the tools, being previously heated in a charcoal fire, are applied. The titles of Books are usually lettered on a piece of leather, of a colour different from that of the cover of the Book itself, which is glued on before the letters are impressed: but as these lettering pieces become loose by the lapse of time, a better mode is, to have the part intended to be lettered first coloured black or blue, and the title, &c. stamped thereon.

Calf and sheep skin leather is chiefly used, and is variously coloured, according to fancy: but, for splendid or curious works, Morocco leather, of different colours, and Russia leather are usually preferred: the powerful odour of the last is caused by its being strongly impregnated with cedar oil. In general, a deep brown is the best colour for calf-binding: it is not liable to fade, and its appearance improves by age.

There are various styles of binding. Thus, in *half-binding* the leaves are most frequently uncut, the back and corners only are covered with leather; the pasteboard sides being covered with blue marbled, or other coloured paper. *Law-binding* is confined to Law Books; the leather is a whitish brown calf, and the leaves are not coloured. In *Dutch-binding* the Books are covered with vellum; and in *Italian-binding*, or binding *alla rustica*, a coarse thick paper is employed, which very soon wears out, unless it be used with the greatest care.

Books printed on *vellum*, (which however are rarely executed, in this country at least, on account of the very great expense and difficulty attending them,) ought not to be bound until a long time after the impression, when the ink and vellum are perfectly dry: and when they are bound, they ought not to be put into a case until the binding has totally lost the humidity produced by the glue which is used. Nothing attracts and retains moisture longer than parchment and vellum. In binding works of luxury, in which the integrity of the margin is of the utmost importance in the estimation of the lovers of fine Books—and especially of Bibliomaniacs—it will be found most desirable to give them Morocco or Russia backs and corners, and to leave the margin *uncut*. The appearance of such Books on the shelves of a library, will be as imposing as if the most expensive whole binding had been bestowed on them.

The art of Book-binding is unquestionably of great antiquity, though no remains of ancient binding, before the art of printing, have been transmitted to our time. Manuscript Books, and those printed many years after the invention of typography, were variously decorated in binding. Strength and durability appear to have been the first objects of attention. Sometimes the Books were covered with velvet, (of which a few instances may be seen in some national Libraries;) but most commonly

BOOK-
BINDING
—
BOOM.

the covers were of compact wood, planed to a suitable thickness, over which leather or parchment was fastened; sometimes brass ornaments were affixed to the sides, and pieces of brass were put on the corners of the Books, with the view of increasing their durability. Some of the most costly Books were covered with clear vellum, then overlaid with gold leaf, and impressed with a stamp nearly the size of the boards, and others were ornamented with various devices; and the year, in which the Book was bound, not unfrequently appeared in large figures on its covers. Of the progressive improvement in Book-binding, the public Libraries of Europe, and especially the Royal Libraries at Paris, exhibit many specimens, which cannot here be described. In England, the monks, and students in monasteries, were anciently the binders of Books. (Warton's *History of English Poetry*, ii. 244.) And it appears to have been a part of the scribe's duty to bind and clasp the Books used for the services of the church. Of their ingenuity and skill, the various missals and other devotional works preserved in public and private libraries, afford abundant evidence. One of the earliest specimens extant is a Latin manuscript, usually known by the name of *Textus Roffensis*, now preserved in the Cotton Library in the British Museum: it is adorned with a silver cover gilt, and with precious stones, and was executed in the time of the Saxons by Bilfrid, a Monk of Durham, who is said to have preeminently excelled in this kind of work. In the same national collection, (*Harl. MSS.* No. 1498.) is a very curious Book of indentures, dated July 16, in the 19th year of Henry VII., and made between him and the Abbot and Convent of Saint Peter's Westminster, for the performance of certain masses, &c. to be performed in Henry VII. chapel, then intended to be built. It is indeed a most noble and curious Book, the cover is of crimson velvet, edged with crimson silk and gold thread, and with tassels of the same material at each corner. The inside is lined with crimson damask. On each side of the cover are five hinges, made of silver, wrought and gilt: those in the middle have the arms and supporters of Henry VII., with his crown and supporters of silver gilt and enamelled; in the others, at each corner, are so many port-cullises, also gilt and enamelled. It is fastened by means of two hasps, made of silver, and splendidly enamelled with the red rose of the house of Lancaster. The counterpart of these indentures, bound and decorated in all respects like the original, is preserved in the Record Office, in the Chapter-house at Westminster. The celebrated charter, erroneously attributed to King Edgar, (*Harl. MSS.* No. 7515.) likewise in the British Museum, is splendidly bound in red morocco, and lettered *CARTA REGIS EDGARII: MARIVM BART. DOMINI*: it is placed on a green silk cushion, and covered with a large plate of glass; the whole is enclosed in a wooden box lined with green velvet.

Leane has sung the mysteries of Book-binding in a *Poem*, (1820, 8vo.) which he has illustrated with notes, explaining the mechanical parts of his art. Numerous anecdotes relative to Book-binding are related in Mr. Dibdin's *Bibliomania and Bibliographical Decameron*.

BOOM. v. Applied, as *boomble* by Chaucer, and *boom* by Dryden to the noise of the bittern. See to *BOW*, and *BITTERN*.

To boom is also applied to the noise and the roar of the waves.

Philomel chants it whilst it bleeds,
The bittern booms it in the reeds;
And reynard cut'ring the back yard,
The Capitall cry is heard.

Cotton. *Night Quatrains*.

With careless hazard and fatigue opposed,
Dismay and anguish ev'ry heart possess;
Far, whilst with sweeping inundation o'er
The sea-beat ship the bounding waters roar,
Displead'd beneath her capacious womb,
They rage their ancient station to resume.

Falconer. *The Shipwreck*.

BOOM, in *Naval Architecture*, is the beam or pole extended at the bottom of a sail, and takes its name from the particular sail to which it is applied. The Boom of a harbour is an iron chain thrown across its mouth.

BOON, *arf.* Fr. *bon, bonne*. A boom blade or companion, a Fr. *bon compaignon*. *Bonne* (i. e.) *lepidus, facetus et hilaris socius*. Skinner. A pleasant, witty, merry companion.

The Barons were all boom, i. e. in good state or condition; and therefore ready, well prepared.

Je eric wit it soon, in him was no de'oute,
Je barons were alle boom, to mak je byre assaute.
R. Bruner, 292.

Leutyn ageyn je kyng & David were alle boom,
To majestat forth je sette, & setteyn je tresson.
Id. p. 249.

And bod hem all ben boom, beggers and oþere
To wendex w' hem to Westmynstre.
Piers Plouman, p. 33.

For we tomorra here all the day
Shall make us merry as we may;
And make us soon again the night.
Barbaro, in Ellis.

A boom companion, to his liquor given,
Come thither with his neighbours to be shiven.
Uncertain Authors. The Shift, in Ellis.

My darlinge goudie, my leasest gaste,
my solace and my glee,
He is the boom companion,
its he that chawes vp me.
Draaf's Horace. Satire 1.

This *The Chancelor* was as far from a Puritan or Presbyterian, as the east is from the west; for he was a boom companion, was of Harry Marten's gang, was of the natural religion, and loved to enjoy the comfort and importance of this life without any regard of laying up for a woe day, which at his last he wanted.
Wood. Athens Green. li. fol. 264.

BOON, n. A. S. *bon*; Swe. *bon*. In *Luke*, i. 13. The Greek *ἐὐχρη*, Lat. *deprecatio*, or in the A. S. version rendered *beaz*. It appears, Skinner thinks, to be from the Lat. *bonus*; and is always applied to some good or benefit either asked or granted.

Je kyng ne hulde þat bute a tutei, he granteð hys boze.
R. Gloucester, p. 116.

Je knyghtes wel þarmed wende hem out anon,
And, þora boze of Seyn Wolden, & þora God's grace,
Hit slowe & ouercome yf þousend in þe place.
Id. 386.

Wherefore I come to seekle out care,
beseeching him of courteste,
To cut the threud which cannot weare,
by pangis of such perillousite.
And bot be grantit this boone of mine,
thus must I lise and euer pine.
Gautsgr. Dan Bartholomew of Bath.

BOOM.
—
BOON.

BOON.
BOOPS.

Assisted by the former *boons*
Peruse, my muse, to tell
How by the Norman conquest here
Another world befell.

Warner. *Albion's England*, book v.

And now when Eljeh finds himself treading on his last earth
he profers a manuscrit boone to his faithful servant, Aske what
I shall do for thee before I am taken from thee.

Hall. *Cont. The Rapture of Eljeh*, v. l. fol. 227.

Most spoil the boons that nature's pleas'd impart,
By too much variety, or by want of art.

Fonten. *Epistle to Mr. Lambert*.

He that freely offers a rich boon is no less to be accounted a
benefactor and liberal, although his gift be refused, than if it
were accepted.

Barnes. *Sermon* 40. vol. iii.

A treasuring voice; but 'tis the praise of thine
That whom it teaches it makes prompt to learn,
And with the boon gives talents for its use.

Cowper. *The Task*, book v.

If you mean to please any people, you must give them the boons
which they ask; not what you may think better for them, but
of a kind totally different.

Burke. *On the Conciliation with America*.

BOOPS, from the Greek *βοα*, an Ox, and *οψ*, an eye.
Cuv. In *Zoology*, a genus of animals belonging to the
family *Sporovidae*, order *Acanthopterygia*, class *Pisces*.
Generic character: jaws but slightly extensible, armed
with a single row of hild or pointed cutting teeth;
eyes very large; body oblong, compressed, and covered
with large scales.

This genus is separated by Cuvier from the Linnæan
genus *Sporus*, and includes those species which have
cutting teeth in a single row, whilst the genus *Sporus*
is restricted by him to those which have the heads of
the molar teeth rounded; the eyes of the fish belong-
ing to this genus are very large, whence the generic
name. They are natives of the Italian seas, and are
herbivorous.

B. vulgaris, Cuv.; *Sporus Boops*, Lin. Lacép.; *Bog*
of the Italians. The Bog is about a foot long, it has
the upper teeth bifid and the lower pointed; the colour
of the back of the fish varies according to the aspect
in which it is seen; looking down upon it, it appears
of an olive colour, looking sideways it is yellow; the
lateral line is not very distinct, but is made up of
several smaller lines. This fish was believed by Gesner
to have the power of uttering a cry, whence it got the
name of *Box*, a corruption of *βοα*, from the Greek
βοα, I cry; but no one believes this story now. It
is taken in great numbers in the Italian seas, and is
much esteemed.

B. melanurus, Cuv.; *Spor. Melanurus*, Lin.; *Spor.*
Oblata, Lacép.; *Black-tailed Boops*. Middle teeth bi-
cuspid, lateral teeth pointed; colour silvery grey,
with a brown stripe along the body, with a black
patch on the trunk, and a black circle round
the tail. They are very wary fish, and though fre-
quently taken in the Italian seas in great numbers, are taken
with difficulty.

B. salpa, Cuv.; *Spor. Salpa*, Lin. Lacép.; *Goldfin*
of the English. This fish is about the size of a carp,
the upper teeth are bifid, the lower pointed; the body
striped with eleven golden bands from head to tail;
the intermediate spaces above the lines on the back of
a dusky green, and below them of a silvery colour.
They are found in abundance on the Genoese coast,
but are considered very coarse eating.

For further account see COMPARATIVE ANATOMY AND

ZOOLOGY. Linnæi *Systema Naturæ* a Gmelin; Lacé-
pede, *Histoire des Poissons*; Cuvier *Régne Animal*.

BOOR, Dutch, boer; Ger. *bauer*. In A. S.
Bo'ORIN, } it is only found in Composition as
Bo'ORINHLI, } gebure, a countryman, a tiller of the
land, from the A. S. *byran*; Dutch, *boewen*; Ger. *bauern*,
habitere, colere, incolere. See the example from Spelman.

Our Saxons likewise did term them, like the Dutchmen,
boers, that is, such as live by tith or grazing, and by works of
husbandry. Spelman. *On Fruits and Trees*, ch. vii. fol. 14.

Nere to the shore that bord'ed on the rocks

No merry waltz was seen to feed his booke,

No lusty waltz heard thither drove his knee,

No boorish hog-herd fed his rooting swine.

Brown. *Britannia's Pastorals*, book ii. sc. 1.

But though they make the greatest appearance in the field, and
cry the loudest, the boor o' it they are but a sort of French
Huguenots, or Dutch boers, brought over in herds, but not
naturalized.

A healthful body with such limbs I'd bear

As should be graceful, well-proportion'd, just,

And neither weak, nor hoarsely robust.

Penton. *Mertins*, book x. Epig. xlii.

There sit, lov'd and lost in corling clouds,

Of Indian fume, and guzzling deep, the boer,

The lachry, and the groan.

Cowper. *The Task*, book iv.

The hoar'd driver leaning o'er his team

Vociferous, and impatient of delay.

M. D. book i.

BOORS, a general appellation by which the peasants
of Russia are distinguished from the other classes of
society in that Empire. In enumerations of the people,
ukases, and other public documents, they are divided
into the two classes of free Boors and vassal Boors. The
former form the link between the burghers and the
vassal peasantry. They cannot be alienated or sold, and
are left in the undisputed possession of their property,
and of what they earn, provided they pay their taxes, or
perform their tasks of labour to the state, or the lords
of the soil. They have also the privilege of educating
their children as they please, and are indeed free from
all control but that of the sovereign, and the laws.
The foreign colonists, who have settled in the empire
as husbandmen, belong to this class, as well as the
single house owners, who possess houses and lands as
free property, for which they neither perform feudal
service, nor give any portion of their produce, but are
compelled to supply recruits for the army, to pay the
poll tax and abrock, and are expressly prohibited from
purchasing in villages, and from possessing vassals.
The Cossacs, Tatars, Kalmucs, and all the other
nomadic tribes, who inhabit the steppes, and have a
kind of real heritable property in the soil over which
they roam, properly belong to this class. The disbanded
soldiers who return to their residence in the country,
and such of the vassal Boors as have either purchased
or by any other means acquired their manumission,
are also included in the same rank. The vassal Boors
are the most abject slaves: as they are not only totally
disqualified for possessing property, but both them-
selves and their families are entirely at the disposal of
their lords, by whom they may be exchanged or sold
like any other property. There is, however, in Little
Russia an intermediate class, which are attached to the
land as fixed property, separate from which they can
neither be alienated nor sold. The Russian peasants
may be divided into three classes—Crown Boors, Mine
Boors, and Private Boors.

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BOOR. There is not only a difference of condition or of servitude, hardship and poverty in these several classes, but even the degree of these varies in the same class, according to circumstances. Some of the Crown Boors are considered as absolute property, others are attached to the mines or the soil, and have no power to remove, while a considerable portion of them are merely tasked with a certain quantity of work, or are obliged to pay a certain portion of the produce of their labour. The condition of the Crown Boors. In general, is very superior to that of the other classes; as they usually pay to government as annual obrok or rent of about five rubles each; and being certain that this will requit them from all further demands, they are induced to exert themselves for improving their lands, and bettering their condition. By this means, many of them raise themselves to such comfortable circumstances, that they might forget the relation in which they stand to the other classes of society, were it not that the Crown possesses, and sometimes exercises, the power of granting their alienation. In the laws and ukases of Russia, the Crown Boors are distinguished by different appellations, either from their employments, or some other circumstances. Eight classes of these are mentioned, 1. Empire Boors, or such as neither belong to the Court, the nobility, nor the monasteries, but are burghers of the Empire; 2. Imperial Boors, who belong either to the Emperor personally or to the Court; 3. Boors of the back plough, who inhabit the northern part of Russia, as far as Archangel; 4. Post Boors, who in stead of the customary obrok are obliged to keep post horses, and forward such travellers as are furnished with a certain order from government; 5. Court Boors, whose services contribute to the support of the Imperial Court; 6. Monastery Boors, who were formerly attached to the monasteries, but now in several parts of the empire, are under the Kameral-hofs; 7. Economy Boors, who, on being alienated from the monasteries, and made subordinate to some particular College of Economy, which has since been abolished, but the Boors still retain their former name; 8. Peltry Boors, who pay their annual obrok or tribute in peltry or furs. All the Crown Boors are distinguished by one very important privilege from every other class included under that name. They are allowed to purchase from noblemen either villages or lands, with the vassals belonging to them.

Mine Boors. This class is followed in the order of importance by the Mine Boors, who are unalienably attached to particular mines, and may be transferred with them to different masters.

Private Boors. The third general class comprises all those who belong to the noblesse, and are consequently considered as private property. Their condition must, of course, depend in great measure upon the civility or liberality, the humanity or cruelty, the care or caprice, of their masters. Some of them, however, are comparatively happy; for when their lords are liberal and kind, and exact only a moderate obrok, their industry and confidence increase in proportion, and they enjoy many of the comforts of life; but others, whose tyrants are needy and cruel, experience all the different shades of misery attached to real slavery. In such cases the obrok is regulated by the means the Boor has of paying it, which then becomes a direct tax upon his industry, and all he can acquire is exhausted in supplying the demands of his rapacious and merciless

master. In addition to the obrok, he may demand the labours of three days in the week, and even of every day, provided he supplies a certain quantity of food and raiment. Nor are the males alone subject to this bondage; the women and children, as soon as the latter reach a certain age, are made to contribute their share of servitude. The master is obliged to supply the peasant with a hut and a small portion of land, the allotment of which is usually settled by the Starosta, or elder of the village; but the tithe of the produce of this, as well as a portion of all his other earnings or gains, by whatever means, and from whatever quarter, also reverts to the lord, even to a share in the pittance which the hand of charity may administer to the cravings of want. So wretched is the condition of these miserable beings in some places, that the only property they are allowed to possess, is the food which their tyrants either cannot or will not eat, as the bark of trees, chaff, and other refuse, with grass, water and fish oil. No peasant can leave his village or master's family on any pretence whatever without a passport, which he must shew to the Starosta of every place through which he passes. They cannot, however, on any account be sold out of Russia, nor to any except noblemen, or those who hold a certain rank in the army, except by an evasion of the law; but all the nobles can let them to hire, and take what part they please of the wages they earn.

Dr. Clarke, from a personal inspection of the subject, draws a touching picture of the hardships to which this class of the Russian population are exposed by the unfeeling conduct of their tyrannical masters, many of whom he considers as scarcely raised above the confines of savage life. He sums up his sketch in these emphatic terms. "Traversing the provinces south of Moscow, the land appears as the garden of Eden, a fine soil, covered with corn, and apparently smiling in plenty. Enter the cottage of the poor labourer, surrounded by all these riches, and you find him dying of hunger, or pining from bad food, and in want of the common necessities of life. Extensive pastures, covered with cattle, afford no milk for him. In autumn the harvest yields no bread for his children. The lord claims all the produce. Can there be a more affecting sight than a Russian family having got in an abundant harvest, in want of the common stores to support them, through the rigour of their long and inclement winter!" Amidst all this hardship and degeneracy, however, there are many instances of exemplary punishment having been inflicted by the Russian law on the superior for wanton cruelty to his slave.

Under such a system of tyrannical rule, and hopeless wretchedness, where the comforts of the cottage are sacrificed to the voluptuousness of the palace, Russia has not wanted Monarchs who have felt desirous of relieving at least, a part of this load of woe. The Empress Catherine often expressed her anxiety on this subject, and was desirous of abolishing serfdom throughout her dominions; but the state of society evidently did not admit of such a measure with advantage to any party. She, therefore, not only on all occasions, recommended the greatest gentleness and humanity, but instituted many wholesome regulations for ameliorating the condition of the Boors, and restraining the abuses of those to whom they were subject. To accomplish these benevolent purposes,

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she established a tribunal for the peasants, relieved those of the mines from much of their oppressive servitude, and appointed overseers to prevent every species of violence. Alexander, too, though he has not given them freedom in any province except Courland, has done much towards improving their condition upon the most rational principles; by encouraging the diffusion of useful knowledge, accompanied with the more elevating and cheering truths of divine Revelation, which can alone raise them from the wretchedness into which they have sunk, and prepare them for that liberty in future, which they are still too low in the scale of mental existence to enjoy with advantage at present. Beyond this, however, he has added an important step in practical freedom, by removing the disqualification of a peasant to engage in any business or carry on any manufacture on his own account. This insuperable impediment to the exercise of genius was removed by an Imperial ukase, dated 28th December 1818, (old style) by which they are not only allowed to engage in the active scenes of life on their own account, but encouragement is held out to all who avail themselves of this privilege.

In Russia a nobleman estimates the value of his possessions by the number of vassals it contains; just in the same way that a West India planter values his estate from the number of hogheads of sugar it will produce. Both there, and in most parts of Poland, when a person is about to take a farm, his first inquiry does not relate to the quantity or quality of the land of which it is composed, but how many vassals or Boors does it contain? Is the government of St. Petersburg, when mortgage contracts are entered into, the vassals are generally estimated at forty or fifty rubles a piece; but in the sale of estates, the usual price is from 200 to 300 rubles. In other parts of the empire, the price is often considerably less, though it generally exceeds 100 rubles. The dress of the male peasant in winter is universally a jacket made of a sheep-skin with the wool inwards, a square crowned red cap edged with black wool, "which," Dr. Clarke says, "with a long black board, sandals made of buck, and legs thickly bandaged in woollen, complete the dress." Such of our readers as wish for further information on this subject, may consult Tooke's *View of the Russian Empire*; and Clarke's *Travels*, vol. i.

BOOT, s. } A. S. *botan* or *botra*; Dutch, *boe-*
boot, s. } *ten*; Ger. *boten*; Sw. *boen*. To
BoOTLESS, } superadd, to substitute, to supply,
BoOTLESSLY, } to atone for, to compensate with,
BoOT'rr. } remedy with, to make amends with,
to add something more in order to make up a deficiency in something else. See Tooke, i. 309.

And more generally; to compensate, to reward, to bestow or confer some benefit or advantage upon, to serve or be of service to. To boot is the infinitive, and is equivalent to—in addition. Boot and booty are the same; viz. acquisition, gain, profit, advantage; the latter applied to that which is acquired or gained from an enemy; as plunder, pillage. To play booty, is to play apparently in the gain or advantage of another.

If so be that they would yere gricbe poisoned and dugged clothing to the poore peple, it is not convenient to were for his estate, no sufficient to bote his necessitee, to kepe him fro the disempowerment of the firmament.

Chaucer. *The Prioress Tale*, v. ii. p. 318.

The cause yknowe, and of his harm the rois,
Anon he gawe to the dke man his bois.

Chaucer. *Prologue*, v. 423.

Nor that I say sacresen hire honour,
For she herselfe is honour and rote
Of bountee, next hire sowe, and noles late.

Id. *The Prioress Tale*, v. 1394.

(Of Pandarus) also what may this be
That thou dispardest it, thus careless,
What, looth nat thy lady, besedicke,
Now woot thou so that thou art graciously
Such soill is not alway besidene.

Id. *Tristram*, book i. fol. 186.

But methinks or he farther went
A fryr darte me thought he sent
And threwe it through mine herte rote
In hym fonde I none other boote.

Gower. *Conf. Am.* book i. fol. 8.

Lyke as the larks within the Marlins foute
With piteous tunes doth chirp her yelden ley,
sing I now, saying no other boote.

Faustina Anctor. *The Lover's speech*, &c.

(As Nell saith) if thou percase
from one eline wouldst be gone,
And thereby happe into a worse,
that were a bootless case.

Dread's *Memoir*. *Salvo* 2.

A man's braveries is refreshed long before he comes to drink-
ness; for when he arrives thither, he hath but changed his
braviness, and taken a crime to boot.

Taylor. *Sermon* 16. fol. 156.

What boots it at one gate to make defence,
And at another to let in the foe
Edeminally vanquish?

Milton. *Samson Agonistes*, v. 560.

And as soon as they [Romulus and Remus] grew once to some
bignesse, it was no boot to keepe them within doors, nor to set
them idle to tend the cattle, for they would use to hunt abroad
in the forest.

Holland. *Lucius*, fol. 5.

Without the one parts of their army went a foraging and boot-
ing the other part stayed with Martheia to safeguard the
country of Asia. Stow. *Memoirable Antiquities*. *Amasene*.

Seeing he would not have those about him who were cowardly
affected, what boot was it to keep among his soldiers men sus-
pected?

Holland. *Pitarch*, fol. 1009.

Knowing it bootless to grieve at things past, and having learned
by experience, that all safety in extremities consisteth in taking
of time.

Sir Fran. Drake *Revised*, fol. 60.

Which when the soldier finds his hopes in vain,
So rich a booty found to forsake,

To put himself and prize out of pain,
He on the sudden swabs him, and doth swear,
Would't he were his ransom, they should take it there.

Drayton. *The Battle of Agincourt*, fol. 28.

They saw the city open lay.

As easy and a bootless prey.

Spect. *The Plague of Athens*.

Witcom the toil,
The blood of aces, bootless to secure,
Beneath an empire's yoke, a stubborn idle,
Disputed hard, and never quite subdued.

Thomson. *Lobster*, part iv.

Boor, s. } Fr. *boier*, to pull on boots, or put
Boor, s. } boots on. Cotg. Skinner prefers
Bo'orcatcher. } the A. S. *abutan*, about, because
boots go round or about the legs. It is more probably
from A. S. *botan*; Dutch, *boeten*, to boot, to superadd,
to supply, to add something more in order to make up
a deficiency in something less.

The boot of a coach is something superadded to the
coach, to convey additional luggage, &c.

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Boots for the legs are an additional covering or protection for the legs.

*His boots souple, his hoar in gret estat,
Now certainly he was a layre prelat.*

Chaucer. The Prologue, v. 203.

Either of them haying an hatcher in their hands, and boots with pykes turned up.

Hell. King Henry VIII.

In the morning's following Charles came boot and spurred about vill. of the clocke, and asked if hye horse was saddleid.

Id. Id.

My selfe have seene one named Athanasius, do wonderful strange matters in the open shew and face of the world, namely, to walke his stations upon the stage with a cuirasse of lead weighing 500 pound, booted besides with a paire of buskins or greives about his legges that came to as much in weight.

Holland. Plinie, l. p. 166.

And because y^e days came on, we ordered a hundred speeres to abyde there to kepe our horses and boots, and the remnant of vs passed furthe forby the Frenche bushment.

Frasier. Cromwell, v. li. C. 23.

Brow. Oh sir, his lackey, for all the world caparison'd like the horse: with a linnen stock on the leg, and a kersey boot-hose on the other, gartered with a red and blew lise.

Shakespeare. Tempest of the Shrove, fol. 219.

The corner (being young) took some affrightment, and running away so furiously, that one of them tore all his belly open upon the corner of a beer-cart; my nephew (who in this mean while adventured to leap out) acemeth to have hung on one of the pins of the boot.

Reliquie Muttonier, p. 417.

So he was put to the torture, which in Scotland they call the boots; for they put a pair of iron boots close on the leg, and drive wedges between these and the leg. The common torture was only to drive these in the calf of the leg; but I have been told they were sometimes driven upon the shin bone.

Barnet. Own Times, Anno, 1666.

The smith, the sadler's journeyman, the cook at the inn, the ostler, and the boot-catcher, ought all, by your means, to partake of your master's generosity; thus his fame will reach from one country to another.

Suif. Discourses to Servants.

*Go on, brave youth, till in some future age
Whips shall become the senatorial badge;
Till England see her thronging senators
Meet all at Westminster, in boots and spurs.*

Warton. Newmarket.

*However, both muleish, and well booted folks
Came safe to the mountain, and cut down its oaks.*

Byron. Epist. 3.

BOOTES, from *βοῶν*, an ox, and *ᾠδὴν*, I drive. A northern constellation which the Ancients called by various other names. *Amazs, Arctophylax, Arctos, Bubulcus, Bubulus, Canis latrans, Clamator, Icarus, Lycos, Philometus, Thergis, Vociferator.* By the Arabians it has been named *Arnoch*, by the English *Charles's* wain. Ptolemy assigns to this constellation twenty-three stars, Tycho twenty-eight, Bayer thirty-five, Flamsteed fifty-four. The brightest of these, *Arcturus*, a star of the first magnitude, was placed by the ancients on the breast of *Bootes*, as is the following passages from Latin writers, and is one which succeeds from *Arctus*.

Arcturusque rapidi medio sub pectore secum.
Manilius, l. 318.

*— Lacus Arcturi ascribitur illic
Aurea quæ summus adtingens cingula sulcus.*
Acras, 271.

By modern Astronomers *Arcturus* is placed on the skirt of his coat. Weigellus has transformed him into the three Swedish crowns: Schiller into St. Sylvester: and Schickhard into Nimrod.

Aratus (*Phænomena*, 91.) derives the name of *Bootes* from the appearance which that constellation presents of driving *Arctos* round the pole.

Ἐξέσθην δ' Ἐλκεα φέρεται διὰ τὴν ἐλκεῖαν
Ἀρκατοφύλαξ, τὸν δ' ἰστέρεν διὰ τὴν ἐλκεῖαν
Οἶνον, ἄρκατοφύλαξ ἐπὶ τὴν ἐλκεῖαν Ἀρκατο
καὶ πάλιν τὸν ἀρκατοφύλαξ ἐπὶ τὴν ἐλκεῖαν
Ἐξ ἄλλων Ἀρκατοφύλαξ ἐπὶ τὴν ἐλκεῖαν Ἀρκατοφύλαξ.

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This, for no good reason as far as we can see, is considered erroneous by Hyginus. (*Poet. astr. li. 2.*)

According to one of the mythological legends, *Bootes* was an Athenian by name *Icarus*, the father of *Erigone*. Having received some wine-skins from *Bacchus*, he placed them in a woggoe, (whence some have derived his name,) and driving about distributed them among the shepherds. The wild behaviour of these when intoxicated terrified their companions, and thinking that *Icarus* had given them poison, they tore him piecemeal. His daughter *Erigone* hung herself from grief for the loss of her father. She was transferred in the sign *Virgo*, *Icarus* to *Bootes*, and his dog *Mera* to *Canicula*. The more received story of the frail *Callisto* and her transformation is prettily related by *Ovid*, *Fast. li. 153*.

On the *Farsese* globe *Bootes* appears in the act of driving *Arctus*, (which here is completely destroyed by time and accident,) dressed in the habit of a countryman, a short tunic girt about his legs, arms, and breast bare, and the *podam pastoralis* in his right hand.

BOOTAN, **BŪTAN**, or **BĒTAN**, called by some writers the Country of the *Doh Rāh*, is the country intervening between Bengal and Tibet. It is bounded on the north and east by the latter, from which it is separated by a branch of the *Himalāya* Alps and the *Brahma-putra* river; on the south by *Ashām*, *Bijol* and *Bengal*; and on the west by the little state of *Sikkim*. It is about 350 miles from east to west, and 90 from north to south; but its eastern boundaries are very imperfectly known. It forms a portion of the declivity of that stupendous Alpine chain, of which *Tibet* occupies the table land; and it has therefore all the variety of feature in which mountainous regions abound. On the confines of *Bengal* the traveller into *Bŷtas* crosses a plain twenty-five miles wide, covered with a rank vegetation, and full of stagnant pools, supplied by the waters oozing down from the neighbouring mountains. The atmosphere of such a district under a tropical sun, cannot but be in the highest degree unhealthy; and these almost impervious forests were long left to the undisputed possession of elephants, rhinoceroses, tigers, hyenas, and beasts of prey. Beyond this belt of flat well-wooded border territory, the mountains rise in all their majesty; at first covered with verdure or forests to their very summit, interspersed with fertile well-watered valleys, and filled with populous villages in the midst of corn-fields and orchards, at very different elevations. But as the traveller proceeds, the height of the mountains rapidly increases, and he soon finds himself, though scarcely beyond the tropic, in the neighbourhood of perpetual snow.

Is a country so circumstanced, the climate must vary at almost every step; and there are villages which feel all the vehemence of a tropical sun, while others within sight of them, on the heights above, are at the same time experiencing the severity of a northern winter. Rock and stone abound in the mountainous regions, and lime stone is the description of rock

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BOOTAN. most prevalent; but the geology of Bútán is yet little known, and offers a wide field for the researches of future naturalists. The plains on the confines of Bengal are probably alluvial; and much more fertile than the declivities in the higher country. These plains, as was mentioned above, are covered with large forests and a rank vegetation of plants strictly tropical; while the hilly tracts produce the trees and shrubs even of northern Europe, and almost within the limit of Bengal, we find strawberries, raspberries, blackberries, the ash, birch, maple, yew, and different species of fir. The oak alone has not yet been observed; and it is possible that the precise medium between the extremes of heat and cold, most suitable to that tree, may never be found in these tropico-alpine regions. The fruits and vegetables are equally various, and within the space of a few miles they have oranges, lemons, apricots, walnuts, and turnips of peculiar excellence. The natives are not far advanced in arts and civilisation, but are industrious in the cultivation of their fields. The sides of the mountains are shelved into horizontal beds wherever soil enough can be collected for agricultural purposes; and the hollow trunks of trees are used as channels to convey water to spots which require irrigation. The field-labour, as is usual in savage or half-civilized countries, is left principally to the women, who usually thresh the grain as well as gather it in, and seem to disregard the toil and extremes of heat and cold to which they are exposed. A large and handsome kind of monkey is found abundantly in the southern forests; and a small horse or pony much esteemed in Bengal, is a native of the mountains. It is called Tanyan (Tāng han, from Tāng-ha-t'ia, the name given by the B'hotás to this part of the Himalaya range,) and is usually about thirteen hands high. It is remarkable for strength and neatness of make. These animals have generally a high spirit, and are excellent for struggling against difficult roads; but it is probably the fruit of their rides when they prove obstinate and ungovernable; faults which are often ascribed to them.

Produce.
Vegetables.

Animals.

Natives.

The B'hotás, or natives of the Himalaya, of whom the inhabitants of Bútán Proper form one branch, are tall, athletic, and active; have dark complexions, but some colour in their cheeks, while their broad faces, high cheek bones, black hair, narrow pointed eyes, whole contour of face, and deficiency of beard, show that they must have an admixture of Chinese and Tartar race. Their whole air and gait form the strongest contrast to that of the indolent effeminate natives of Bengal. Such a people is born for war. They are more ferocious than brave, and were long the terror of their southern neighbours; for perfidy and cruelty are distinguishing characters of their warfare. Their arms are the bow and arrow, a straight or curved sword, or hanger, bad matchlocks, serviceable only in dry weather, and small guns for the walls of their forts. They are dexterous swordsmen, and excellent archers, the more formidable on account of the poison in which they steep their arrows. The plant from whence this poison is extracted is not yet known to Europeans. Arts and commerce are not likely to flourish in such a country. Almost the only house in the whole territory which has more than one story, is the Rájá's palace at Tásiedon. But necessity, which as the proverb says, is the parent of invention, has made the B'hotás skilful in the construction of bridges,

so indispensable in a country of mountain torrents; BOOTAN. and the ingenious contrivance of swinging bridges on iron chains, seems to have originated with the natives of Bútán. Woollen cloths, an article absolutely requisite in the upland regions, animal food, and the habitual use of tea and spirits, distinguish the B'hotás from the Bengalese, equally with their features and character. Their mode of preparing tea makes it a very unpalatable dish to Europeans. Bohea tea, together with some astringent herbs, is mixed up into a mess with water, flour, butter, and salt, and is then well beaten up and boiled. Their cups are licked clean by the drinker as soon as emptied, and are afterwards wrapped up in a piece of scarlet silk for the use of the next person who may want them.

Trade.

The Sovereign, called Déb Rájá, is the only merchant in his dominions; and he sends an annual caravan to the Rang-púr division of Bengal, carrying coarse woollen cloths, cows' tails from Tibet, bees wax, walnuts, ivory, musk, gold dust, silver in ingots, together with silks, tea, paper and knives from China. The horses, which carry these goods, are also themselves articles destined for sale or barter. Finer woollens of English manufacture, cotton cloths, indigo, dried fish, hogs, coral, frankincense, sandal wood, cloves, nutmegs, copper, tin, gunpowder, otter-skins, and rhinoceros-hides and horns form the returns: the whole value rarely exceeding 30,000 rupees (about £4,000). The presents sent by the Deb Rájá to the Bengal Government in 1779, seemed to indicate a close intercourse with China; and it is probable that the influence of that court has contributed to increase the jealousy of the B'hotás chief, and check the little commerce carried on between him and his southern neighbours. The máryani, a coin of base silver, struck in Cúch Behár, worth about ten-pence, is the only one current in Bútán.

The doctrine of Budd'h is the prevailing religion of this country, and the sect of Saçyn Sing'ha, (the Xaca or Xaca Muni of older writers,) is that which most nr all the B'hotás follow. On *muni pami òn* are sacred words, derived from Sanscrit, held in the greatest veneration, and inscribed by them on rocks, or marked by stones on the sides of hills. The Government is, properly speaking hierarchical; for the Deb Rájá is only a deputy of the D'herna Rájá, who is supposed to be an incarnation of the Divinity too exalted to take a part in human affairs. The passes from the lowlands into the mountains are placed under the command of officers named Súbabs or Sháblas, who generally occupy forts near the higher country during the hot and rainy season. The plain country is governed by hereditary chiefs, who pay a fixed revenue to the Rájá, or by agents, who collect a land tax on his account. The river Títá or nr Títshá, is the common boundary of the British and B'hotás possessions on the south-western side of Bútán; but beyond the village of Gúpá-ganj, the boundary is ill defined, and much confusion arises from an intermixture of territory.

The places in Bútán most deserving of notice, are

Tásiedon, in lat. 27° 5' N. and long. 89° 40' E. Tásiedon. 106 miles from Cúch Behár. It is the Capital, and is situated in a fertile valley on the banks of the Chincheb or Gadád'há, which descends through a narrow mountain pass, falling in mighty cataracts from cliff to cliff, till it enters the low country a few miles to

BOOTAN- the east of Bakshidwār. It joins the Brahms-putra not far from Rangamati.

BOOTH.

The climate of Taisiddon is remarkably healthy, and it is the residence of the Deb Rājā. His palace is a square building near the centre of the valley. The citadel, in the fourth story of which the Rājā takes up his abode, consists of seven stories, each more than fifteen feet high. From the centre of them a square turret rises which supports a canopy of gilt copper, supposed to be placed over an image of the Mahā Muni, that "first of holy sages," Budd'hā or Gautama. Brazen idols and paper are manufactured in large quantities at Taisiddon. The latter is formed from the bark of a tree called deah (*Morus papyrifera*?) not found in Bengal.

Boonakha.

Pōnāk'hā, in lat. 97° 55' N. and long. 89° 54' E. the winter residence of the Deb Rājā, is considered as the warmest place in the country. Its palace, or castle, resembles that described above, which is well delineated in Turner's *Embassy to Tibet*.

Baro.

Barō, in lat. 97° 43' N. and long. 89° 34' E. is the residence of a Provincial Governor, and is the most frequented market in the whole country. Its castle is one of the strongest in the Deb Rājā's territories. The town is famed for its manufactures of idols, swords, daggers, and arrow-heads.

Chaka.

Near Chaka, in lat. 97° 16' N. and long. 89° 34' E. there is a remarkable chain bridge over the Chin-ohed; its antiquity must be considerable, as it is believed to be the work of a demi-god. Strawberries and other English plants are common near this place; but that fruit is seldom eaten by the natives.

Baxedwar.

Bakshidwār is a remarkable pass from the belt of low land on the borders of Cōch Behār. It is situated in lat. 96° 58' N. and long. 89° 38' E. The village is singularly placed in a nook among lofty precipices, on a ledge of rock open only to the south. The houses are scarcely visible till the cavity in which they are placed has been entered, and the place is by nature almost impregnable.

Dellam-cotta.

Dālimcō'h, commanding the principal defile by which Būtān can be entered from Bengal, is considered by the Deb Rājā as a key to his country. It was taken in 1773 by a detachment under the gallant Captain Jones, who lost his life in that hazardous enterprise; the boldness of which so terrified the Rājā, that he immediately applied to the Tishū Lāmā to intercede with the British Government in his behalf, and a pacification shortly after ensued.

(*Asiatic Researches*, vol. i.; Turner's *Embassy to Tibet*; Georgi's *Alphabetum Tibetanicum*; Hamilton's *Hindustan and East India Gazetteer*.)

BOOTH, Dutch, *boeden* an abode. *Beijden*: A. S. *bidan*, to abide, *manere*, *morare*; or more immediately from the D. *bowen*, to build, to construct. The examples sufficiently shew the application of the word.

Booth, as house made of bowen. Tyndall. *Werkes*, fol. 11.

And Jacob took his journey towards Seoth, and bylt him an house, and made *boethes* for his cattle.

Bible, 1551. Gen. ch. xxxiii.

And whanne Jhesus passide fro thannes he sight a man Mathew bi name stytynge in a sol-bote, and he wode to him, see thou me, and he rose and folowide him. *Wiclyf. Mathew*, ch. ix.

To behold these sights and shewes, such a number of people resorted from all parts, as most of the strangers either within the streets of the city or in the high ways without, were faine to abide within *boethes* pitched of purpose.

Holland. Sustennis, fol. 17.

And even they also make no certaine place of abode and habitation, but are called *Scimites*, of their tabernacles and *boethes* which they make of laire cloths, and encamp under them wings and where they list. *Holland. Pittis*, l. fol. 139.

Boethes sudden hide the Thames, long strones appear,
And numerous games proclaim the crowded fair.
Gay. Trivia, book 8.

Does not the sweat of the mason and carpenter, who toil in order to partake the sweat of the peasant, flow as plentifully and as sublimely, in the construction and repair of the majestic edifices of religion, as in the painted *boethes* and worldly aims of vice and luxury? *Burke. On the Revolution in France*.

BO'OTY,
BO'OTING, or } See Boor above.
BO'OTTING.

Where mighty power, doth overrule the right,
Where honour, doth foster ancient grudge,
Where bloody sword, makes every bosom prize,
Where banqueting, is cramped comely ease.
Gascoigne. The Steel Glas.

These after council talk he gave them a person of Saint George and had them adventure (of which they were called adventures) and farther had them that if they got any *boite* they should over bring it to tharney, and thei should be payd to the vittarnut. *Hall. King Henry VIII*.

Straight, captive kingly are held in sight
With playnsaid arms behind:
The wagon, coche, horsefeller, large,
To followe are asunder:
The captives *boites* must be seen,
All things to please the eye.
Draest. Horace's Epitaph, G. 4. 6.

No more could he endure coarcesness: for if sometime he gave his men leave to go a *boeing*, his meaning was, that whatsoever they got should be bestowed in furnishing of arms. *North. Fitzherbert*, fol. 927.

The next, whose fate drew on, was Sir James Desmond; who, on the fourth of August in the above-mentioned year (1840), having made an inland jump into Muckerry, and taken a great body from Sir Cormac Mac Tuiga, sheriff of Cork & the said sheriff making head against him, recovered the booty, wounded Sir James mortally, and took him prisoner. *O'Leary. Life of Raleigh*, xiv.

I have not this argument in the best light, that the ladies may not think that I write *boethy*. *Dryden*.

If it be indeed an incendiary letter, what if you and I, Sir, go there; and, when the writer comes to be paid for his expected *boethy*, seize him? *Goldsmit. The Good Nurse's Men*.

BOPEEP, *Lusus puerilis*, says Skinner, the sport of children; or perhaps of parent and child, hiding and peeping.

He saith that ellen we make the adgell a byer, thatwyde he is not here, and also that eke we make as though Charytes boide In hys ascension did not poe vpe in the cloute into heave from the carthe, but only lyde bytyme in the cloute, and played to *pepe*, and layed beneath will. *Sir Thomas More. Works*, fol. 941.

The woman wantonness, shee comes with being traine,
Filde in hir pocket plases to *pepe*, and beauty in hir traine.
Gascoigne. Flowers.

(They) for sodaine ley did weep,
And I for sorrow singe:
That such a King should play to *pepe*,
And yet the foole among.
Shakespeare. Lear, fol. 348.

Your ancient coarsness were wont
To make her from her sphere dismount,
And to their immolation stoop;
They would not to pore through telescope,
Or idly play at *bo-peep* with her.
Boswell. Boswellian, part II. can. 3.

BOOTE.

BOPEEP.

BOR-
DELL

Just so, in life, he runs about,
Plays at *de-pro*, now in, now out,
But hints an mortal creature.
R. Moore. *Ode to Garrick.*

BOPYRUS, in *Zoology*, a genus of the class *Arachnides*, order *Tetracera*, family *Asclotia* of Latreille.

The animals of this genus (*Monoculi* of Linnaeus) are parasitic, living by suction on different marine Crustacea. They differ from the other genera of the order, by the absence of antennae, of eyes, and of mandibles. The body is oval, flat, pointed at the posterior extremity, almost membranaceous, with a kind of border underneath which supports the feet. Of these there are seven on each side, very small, arched, and without joints. Lamarck places this genus amongst his *Episcoriers*.

BORACIC ACID, in *Mineralogy*, is found in a native state in the waters of several lakes in Tuscany, and in a concrete state in the island of Lipari, accompanied by sulphur.

BORACITE, a mineral found near Lunenburg, in Saxony, possessing peculiar electrical properties.

BORLAGO, in *Botany*, (Angl. *Borago*) a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: calyx five-lobed; corolla rotate, having at its orifice five obtuse emarginate teeth. Hooker, *Flor. Scot.*

This genus of the natural tribe *Asperifolia* contains seven species, the most remarkable of which is the *B. officinalis*, or Common Borage. This plant has been employed in medicine as a refrigerant, and is one of the ingredients of the beverage called *cold tunkard*. It grows wild in this country, but is not originally a native, having been brought from Aleppo.

BORAK, AL, *The brilliant*, the name given by Mohammedans to the animal, something between a mule and an ass, which carried their Prophet on his nocturnal journey (*al Mevra*) from Jerusalem to Heaven. The night on which he performed this excursion is called *Leilat al Mevra*, the night of the Ascension, and is a fruitful subject for superstitious legends.

BORASSUS, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Dioecia*, order *Hexandria*. Generic character: male flower, calyx of three leaves; corolla salver-shaped, limb three-partite; female flower, calyx eight or nine leaves, imbricate; corolla none; stamens eight; monadelphous; style none; drupe of three kernels.

A genus of the Palm tribe, containing one species, a native of the East Indies.

BORAX, in *Mineralogy*, a compound of Boracic acid and soda, which occurs in some of the lakes of Tibet, and is there called *Tinkal*; it is brought to Europe in an impure state, and is, when purified, used in soldering metals, and as a flux for the reduction of metallic ores.

BORBONIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Dioecia*, order *Dicandria*. Generic character: stigma emarginate; calyx acuminate-spinous; legume mucronate.

A genus of leguminous plants, allied to the *Spartium* or *Broom*, containing eight species, natives of South Africa.

BORDELL, Ger. *bordehl*; Dutch, *bordeel*; Fr. *Bo'rdello*, *bordeau*; It. *bordeilo*; Sp. *borde*, a *Bo'rdelle*, a brothel-house. Menage thinks the Old French *bordeau* is compounded of *bord* and *eau*; because such places were heretofore *au bord de l'eau*. Wachter says, that *bordeil*, *lupanar*, is the diminutive

BOR-
DELL
BORDER

of the A. S. *bord*, a house; and properly signifies *domuscula*, a small house. Domuscula, he considers to be so called, because the places for luxurious indulgences among the ancients, were *tents* or *booths* stationed on the banks of rivers. This fact, he observes, Meaenag has proved from Cicero, *Orat. x.* in *Verrem*, and Suetonius, in *Nerone*.

And the same shall the man tell plainly, with all the circumstances, and whether he hath sinned with common *bordel* women or not, or doth his shame in holy times or none.

Chaucer. *The Prioress's Tale*, v. li. p. 377.

And be by same *Bordels* high,
Whiche afterwarde, whan that he might,
A waster was, and all his rent
In wyne and *bordels* he dyspent.

Geoffrey. *Conf. Am.* book v. fol. 69.

One *Leocin* it berde telle,
Whiche maister of the *bordel* was,
And had hym go a redie pas
To fetchen hir: and forth he went,
And Thaise out of his barge he hent,
And to the *bordeler* hir solde.

Id. *ib.* book viii. fol. 182.

But Tybarius, Nero, Caligula, Heliogabalus, & others resemble monsters, exhausted and consumed infinite treasures in *bordels* houses, and places, where abominations were used.

Sir Thomas Eliot. *The Governour*, fol. 132.

From the *bordelle*, it might come as well:
The spittle: or pick-hetch.
Ben Jonson. *Every Man in his Humour*, act i. sc. 2.

BORDER, v. Fr. *border*; Dutch, *boorden*, from *Bo'rden*, n. } *board*, (q. v. and also aboard,) in its
Bo'rdenka. } consequential usage: to approach,
to accost, or accost. See the example from the Book of Chronicles.

To be or come near upon, close to, close to the edge or confines of; also to surround with an edge or border.

And first, at the chief of the hall, is the emperor's throne, full high, where he sitteth at the mete: and that is of fyn precious stones, *bordured* alle aboute with pure gold and precious stones and grete perles.
Sir J. Mandeville. *Travels*, cap. 20.

In the outermost hemme or border of these clothes, menne reide ywonne thevyn, a Grekish A. that signifieth the life action, and chouse that letter, in the hirst *bordure*, a Grekish L. that signifieth the life contemplative.

Chaucer. *Berriour*, book i. fol. 211.

And then there was apoyntment made betwene the emperours of Constantinople and of Rome and the places assigned how fure the borders of either empire should reach.

Tyndall. *Works*, fol. 345.

In the same yere, Kyng Henry, with a stryge hoste, yode to Scotlande, & made so croul warre upon Wrytham, kyng of that londe, y^e lastly he was taken, and dyd in the sayd Henry's prison, in yeadlinge vato kyn y^e cytie of Carlill, the castell of Dalburgh, the newe Castell upon Tyne, with dyverse other holdys and great parte of Northberland, the whiche he hadde wyone from the *bordures*.

Folgan, ch. 236.

And the Lord styrred up agaynst Jehova y^e spirit of y^e Philistines & y^e Arabians y^e *borded* on y^e blacke moor.

Bible, 1581. 2 Chron. ch. xxi.

They *bordured* upon his countrey, and were wont to invade y^e same upon every occasion.

Brand. *Quintus Curtius*, fol. 12.

About which lodgings, tow'nds the upper face,
Ran a fine *bordure* circularly led,
As equal 'twixt the high't at point end the base,
That as a zone the waist ingirded.

Dryden. *The Barren Wars*, fol. 71.

BORDER. There were no laws to hinder men to their obedience : but the commandments of princes were instead of laws, whose customs were rather to defend than enlarge the borders of their kingdoms.

BORE.

In some of Seneca's *kyrie* of *Lybion*, he *bordered* to the country of *Egypt*, having assembled a mighty presence in his title, entered into the ample country of *Egypt*.

Nicola. Thacides, fol. 36.

But all that pass'd without was seen,
As if our face nor tree was plac'd between,
'Twas *border'd* with a field; and some was plain
With grain, and some was sow'd with rising grain.
Dryden. The Flower and the Leaf.

Now even the excess of knowledge and wisdom, especially if attended with pride, as too often it is, is very dangerous, and does many times *border* upon distraction and run into madness.

Tillotson. Sermon 41.

It is most advisable, when we are in the borders of death to provide for that state, which lies just beyond it.

Burrow. Sermon 17. vol. III.

Raleigh said, if he thought the company he had with him were sufficient to take that town: the King thought they were, and proffer'd to assist him with all his borderers, if he would leave him a guard of fifty men upon his departure.

Oldys. Life of Raleigh, lxxx.

Why to view
Would you thus cruelly those scenes unfold,
Which, without pain and sorrow to behold,
Must speak me something more or less than man;
That friends may pardon, but I never can?
Look back! a thought which borders on despair,
Which human nature must, yet cannot bear.
Churchill. The Conference.

They that dwell
Along the banks of Don's and Volga's streams;
And borderers of the Caspian, who knew
That ancient path to India's elixir, which fill'd
With prudent affluence the Arabian state.
Dyer. The Flower, book II.

BORDRAGINGS, perhaps merely raging or ravaging the border.

Who having oft in battle vanquish'd
Those spoiltful Fets, and warning Easterlings,
Longtime in peace his realm established,
Yet oft annoy'd with sundry *borderings*,
Of neighbour Scots, and foraine scatterlings.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book II. can. II.

BORDURE, in *Heraldry*, an ordinary not given originally as a mark of honour, but as a distinction between different families of the same house. It is a partition line of an equal width, running round the inside of the field, of which it occupies one-fifth. It always gives place to a Chief, Quarter and Canton, running under the first, and terminating when it reaches the second. If one coat having a *Bordure* is empaled with another, the *Bordure* ought to cease with that to which it belongs. It may be borne plain or indented, and may be charged.

BORE, *v.* } A. E. *bor-inn*; Ger. *boren*; Dutch,
BORE, *n.* } *booren*; Swed. *boara*. Wachter and
BOREA. } Skinner think the Gr. *Βορέα*, *transfigere*, whence the Latin *forare*, is the parent of this word.

To pierce or penetrate through, to make a hole or cavity through, to perforate. Met. to tense by ceaseless repetition — like the unvarying continued action of a *borer*.

Perhaps the noun *ore* is applied to the sudden and abrupt influx of the tide into a river or strait; from the force or violence with which it penetrates, pierces, works its way through all obstructions.

Lo sir ye make ymaginacions I can not tell you what. But here is a wharfe and it is round as the world is, and we shal not neede to ymagin an hole *borred* throuwe, for it hath an hole *borred* through inderede.

Sir Thomas More. Works, fol. 628.

Darrest thou drawe out Lennath with an angle, or hynde his tongue with a snare, canst thou put a ryng in the nose of him, or bore his chafers throuwe with a snail.

Bible, 1551. Job, ch. xii.

The dreadfull blow quite through his target drowe,
And *borred* through his brumplate strong and thicke,
The tender skin it in his bosom rowe.
The purple blood out-streamed from the quicke.
Faust. Godfrey of Boulogne, book II. st. 79.

A peace as well restorat, as ever yet was wrought,
The haurent peace for breuch and here, that ever yet was bought.
Gascogne. The complaint of the Greene Knight.

Buc. I read in's looks
Matter against me, and his eye rent'll
Me as his subject object, at this instant
He *bore* me some tricks.
Shakespeare. Henry VIII. fol. 206.

This said, a worke not worthy him, he set to: of both frets,
He *bor'd* the nerves through, from the heele, to th' ankle; and then knit

Both to his chariot, with a thong of white leather; by his hand
Trailing the center.

Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book xxii. fol. 306.

(Unworthy of himself and of the dead)
The nervous ancles *bor'd*, his feet he bound
With thongs inserted through the double wound;
These *bor'd* up high behind the rolling wale,
His graceful head was trail'd along the plain.
Pope. Homer's Iliad.

DA. I saw a Dutch-man breathe his pate once
For calling him pot-gun, he made his head
Have a *bore* in it like a musket.
Wielser. The Dutcheesse of Malfoy, act III. sc. 3.

Some are celebrated for a happy dexterity in tipping the lion upon them; which is perform'd by squeezing the nose flat to the face, and boring out the eyes with their fingers.

Spectator, No. 324.

Our careful monarch stands a person by
His new-cut razor's firmness to explore;
The strength of bag-*corn'd* powder loves to try,
And ball and carriage sorts for every bore.
Dryden. Annus Mirabilis, st. 149.

Not such his crying, who with shining face
Sweats in the crowded theatre, and queen'd
And *bor'd* with elbow-points through both his sides,
Out-scolds the ranting actor on the stage.
Greene. The Tush, book iv.

Another contrivance, equally mechanical, and equally clear, is the *ore* or *borer* fixed at the tails of various species of flies; and with which they pierce, in some cases, plants; in others, wood; in others, the skin and flesh of animals; in others, the coat of the chrysalis of insects of a different species from their own; and in others, even lime, mortar, and stone.

Psley. Theology, Of Insects.

BORR, } The past tense and past participle of the
} verb, to bore.

For he was *borne* at Rome, & of his lord's blood.
R. Gloucester, p. 99.

Gregorie saith in his aprias,
It helpeth nought a man to *bore*,
If God's service were *valore*.
Greene. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 93.

And be that wol him pris of his genterie,
For he was *borne* of a gentill house,
And had his elders noble and vertuous,
And nill himselfe doo no gentill dedes,
Ne follow his gentill ancestor, that ded is,
He n' is gentill, he he duk or erl;
For rittins sill dedes make a cherl.
Chaucer. The Wyf of Bathes Tale, v. 1632.

BORE.

BORE.—
BOREAS.

Today has thine three his troubles plight
To live and die of him for other,
As though he were his own brother.
Cheever. *The Pardoner's Tale*, v. 12635.

Therefore whence Jesus was borne to Bethlehem of Juda in the
days of King Herod, Lo astronomers came from the east to
Jerusalem.

Wiclif. *Matthew*, ch. ii.

Whē Jesus was borne at Bethlehem in Jude, in the tyme of
Herode the kyng: beholde there came wise men fro the east to
Jerusalem.

Bible, 1551.

Aristotle, we greet you well. Lettyngye you wyttē, that we
honnor a sonne borne, for the which we gyve due thanks unto God
not for that he is borne only, but also for as much as it happeneth
hym to be borne you lyvinge.

Sir Thomas Elyot. *The Governour*, fol. 27.

We may therefore now well consider him born to instruct us by
his excellent doctrine, and to guide us by his perfect example;
born to merit God's mercy and favour toward us by an entire submis-
sion to God's pleasure; in the whole conduct of his life, and
in the final renunciation of it; born to rescue and sanctify our
nature, to support and strengthen us in obedience to God's
commandments, to succour us in temptation, to comfort us in
distress by his grace; born to rear himself from the grave for
confirming our faith, and ensuring our hopes of salvation; born
to ascend up above all the heavens to God's right hand, there
effectually to intercede for us, thence liberally to dispense all
heavenly blessings to us.

Barnes. *Sermon* 43. vol. iii.

BOREAL, Lat. borealis, from boreas, the name given
to the north wind, ἀπὸ τοῦ βοῆ, from its bellowing,
roaring noise. See Vossius.

The earls of Morche and Warwyche determined first to trye to
London, as the chief key, and common spectacle to the whole
realme, thinking there as theyr themselves of the east and west
parte of the kingdome, as King Henry & his faction nestered and
strengthened him and his allies, in the north regions and boreal
playge.

Hall. *King Henry VI.*

BOREAS, in *Ancient Mythology*, the God of the
North Wind. His parentage is variously stated; by
some he is believed to be the son of Astræus and
Aurora; (Hesiod, *Theog.* 379.) by others of the
river Strymon; his abode was in Thrace. One
of his greatest exploits was the rape of Orithyia,
daughter of the Athenian Erechtheus. The story is
told by Ovid in a style more elevated than is cus-
tomary to him. (*Metam.* vi.) By her he had two
winged boys, Zethes and Calais, who are numbered
by Apollonius among the Argonauts. Cleopatra also
was, by the same mother: a Boreas, who by her mar-
riage with Phineus, obtained such unhappy reputation.
Her legend is to be found in the Scholia upon the
Antigone of Supplices, (398.)

ἢ σπέρμα πὺν ἀρχαγομένην
ἀνατ' Ἐρεχθεΐδην,
τῆλεκάρου εἰν Ἀστραὶ
πρῶτον θεῶν ἡλίου ἐν παρθένο
βορέην ἄκρον ἡρώδοτος ἐστὶ πάρος
θεὸν πατρὶ ἀλλὰ κού' ἔκρινε
Μοῖραι παραινέουσιν ἔσχατον.

Besides Orithyia Boreas ran away with another bride,
Chloris, the daughter of Arcturus, (although in justice
to the northern God, it must be mentioned, that Ovid
(*Fast.* v. 212.) attributes this feat to the milder
Zephyrus;) and also having taken a fancy to the mares
of Dardanus, he changed himself into a horse for their
sakes. The produce was twelve foals of super-
natural speed.

On account of his connection with Orithyia, the
Athenians particularly worshipped Boreas. During
the expedition of Xerxes they were instructed by an
oracle to invoke their sea law; and they interpreted
it of this Deity, and performed sacrifices to him ac-
cordingly, deceiving him that he would destroy the
barbarians as he had done once before off Athens. (Her.
vii. 189.) In consequence of the assistance given to
them on those occasions, on the rebuilding of Athens,
they consecrated a temple to Boreas, on the Ilissus.
This God also was thought to have prevented the
capture of Megalopolis by Agis, by blowing down
the works with which he attempted the siege. (Paus.
anias, *Arcadic.* xxvii. ad finem.) On the Temple of
the Winds at Athens, he is represented with his robe
before his mouth; and Lucian has strikingly described
his portrait as given by Zeuxis. He is likening the
philosopher Thyracley to this picture, ἀλλὰ τί τοῦτο;
ἢ θρασυελπίς ἃ φιλόσοφος εἶναι δαίτις; ἢ μὴν οὐκ
ἄλλω: ἱερειάσας γὰρ τὸν πάρος, καὶ τὸν ἄρτιον
ἀνατίνας, καὶ βραδυτέρων τι πρὸς αὐτὸν, ἔρχεται,
πταίνων βλάπτων, ἀνασπασθῆναι τὴν ἐν τῷ μετώπῳ
ἐκμύον, Ἀνατορίαν τιν, ἢ Τάινον, ἀνεὶ ἢ Ζεῦσι ἔμψωρε.
Timon, ad finem.

BORGIAH, a name given to the Mamluks, from the
Arabic *Borge* a tower. The Sultan Kelau, who im-
ported these slaves from Circassia, distributed them in the
towers of his palace for education.

BORGO, an old seaport in the Russian dominions,
on the Gulf of Finland, and at the mouth of the
river of the same name. The harbour is not good,
but some foreign trade is carried on. It is the
See of a Bishop, and has a good Academy. It was
twice captured from the Swedes, by the Russians,
during the eighteenth century, and was finally ceded to
them, with the rest of the province, in 1809; and
was the place where the Emperor Alexander received
the oath of fidelity of the States. Lat. 60° 23' N.,
and long. 25° 40' E.

BOGGO A SAINT DONNINGO, a town and Bishop's
See of Italy, in the states of Parma. It is situated on
the Stirone, about twelve miles north-west of Parma,
and owes its origin to St. Donningo, who was beheaded
there in 304. It contains a cathedral, four parish
churches, several convents, and a college.

BORJA, a town of Spain, in the kingdom of Arragon,
situated near Monte Cayo, in one of the most agree-
able parts of that province. It is the Capital of the
district of the same name; and its environs abound
with wine, flax, and wool. This town gave name to
the family of Borja, from which sprang the notorious
Pope, Alexander VI. It is about thirty-five miles
nearly north-west of Saragossa.

BORING MACHINE, is the same given to any
engine used for boring either cannon, cylinders for
steam engines, or hydraulic presses, wooden pipes,
&c. &c. In some cases the cast is made in the solid
metal, and the whole of the bore is produced by the
machine; in others the cast is made hollow at first, and
the borer is only employed to give an uniformity and
finish to the inside of the tube. In the older machines
for boring iron, or metal cylinders, a horizontal axis
was made to turn slowly round by a water wheel or
other first mover, with a borer fixed at the end; the
cylinder itself having been fastened down upon a
carriage sliding in a direction parallel to its axis, and
drawn forward towards the borer by the descent of a

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weight applied for that purpose; but this method is now generally abandoned, and the operation performed in a different way.

Machine for Boring Brass Ordnance in the Royal Arsenal, Woolwich.—We have given a plan and elevation of this machine in plate XVII. On a solid bed of masonry, laid at a considerable depth in the earth, is rested a heavy beam of timber, which is securely screwed down to the masonry by means of the nuts and screws A A; the bolts pass through the stone work, and are there retained by a stout iron bar, which passes through hollow square holes at their lower extremities, which reaches the whole length of the frame. A similar beam of timber lies on the other side of the bed, and a cross beam at the end K. D D D are heavy and very solid pieces of timber screw-bolted to the beams B B, and to which is again screw-bolted the principal upper frame C C, of which the plan is shown in fig. 2. The screws and nuts being represented in both figures by E E E, &c.

G G is the Boring Iron, and R the rack by which it is driven when urged by the wheel W. The Boring Iron G G, is kept in its place, first, laterally by means of the cheeks I I, I I, &c. which are adjustable, and are ultimately fixed in their places by means of the nuts and screws I I I, &c. by this means the direct motion of the bar is preserved. Secondly, this iron is kept down to its proper bearing on its bed by the cross brass bars F F, F F, F F, which are adjustable, as regards their pressure, by the nuts and screws F F F, &c. In this way the direction of the borer is insured, and every tendency to its chalking wholly removed.

K K is a masonry frame screw-bolted to the cross beam or bed, mentioned above, and in this is rested the muzzle of the gun, the centre of the frame, as shown in the elevation of it fig. 3, being adjustable, and whereby the true centre of the gun is produced: the other extremity of the gun is exhibited in fig. 4: it is attached at this place to the principal axis of the mill, by means of a square head left behind the button M, which is inserted into the square hollow end of the axis, like a key. In this way motion being given to the mill, the gun rotates on its axis, and the borer being brought to its bearing, and kept to it by means of the wheel W and rack R, the operation of Boring commences, and may be continued at pleasure. In the particular machine in question the rotary motion is produced by a horse wheel; it is obvious, however, that it might be communicated by means of a steam engine, or water wheel, or in short by any other first mover whatever.

The wheel W, which is used to urge forward the Boring Iron, is worked by hand, by means of handles, seen in the figure to the direction of the radii, thus resembling the wheel of the rudder in large vessels: to the axis of the wheel is attached an endless screw S, which works the wheel W of sixteen teeth, fig. 3, and to this is attached the pinion P of four teeth, which works in the rack, and by which the borer is urged slowly and steadily forward. But in case it is necessary to raise the borer back, as for removing the chips, &c. the motion is produced by means of the handle A, fig. 2, at right angles to the plane of the radii.

The steeling of the end of the Boring Iron fig. 7 is semicylindrical, and is attached to the end of the Boring Iron by means of a screw; it may, therefore, be removed at any time to sharpen, or for any other

purpose, without disturbing any part of the adjustments, its form being as we have said semicylindrical, its lower round surface serves to burnish the bore as the matter is cut away by the sharp edge.

Fig. 6, is an adjustable cutter, for forming the outside of the gun while the operation of Boring is proceeding; it is brought forward by means of a handle and winch A, on which is an endless screw, working in a toothed wheel fixed to the extremity of the screw N, and the cutter is regulated, as to its pressure, by means of the screw S. This part of the machine is not, however, commonly made use of, a fixed rest being found more convenient.

A different Boring apparatus is shown in fig. II, plate XV.

Machine for Boring Cylinders.—A perspective view of this engine is given in fig. 1, plate XVIII, as in action in Boring a cylinder for a steam engine. C C are two solid oak ground sills, firmly bolted down parallel to each other to sleepers let into the ground; at each end of these a vertical iron frame D D is erected to support the gudgeon at the end of a long cylindrical axis F F; this is made to revolve by the first mover, which is the present instance is water. The cylinder N N, to be bored, is fixed immovably over this bar, and exactly concentric with it. A piece of cast iron M M, N N, (figs. 2, 3, and 4) called a cutter head, slides upon the axis, into which are fixed the knives or steeling A A A, by which the Boring is performed. This cutter head is moved along the bar by means of the machinery described below, being thus forced through the cylinder while it is also revolving on its axis and cutting down the asperities of the interior surface of the bore.

The cylinder itself is held down upon an adjustable framing, which is readily adapted to receive it. Pieces of iron G G are bolted down to the ground sills, having grooves through them to receive bolts, which fasten down two horizontal pieces of cast iron H H, at right angles to them. These horizontal pieces support four upright standards I I, which include the diameter of the cylinders N N; this being supported upon the blocks d d below, and held fast by iron bands c c, drawn down by the screws in the top of the standards I I. The cylinder is adjusted to be concentric with the axis F F, and held firmly in its place by wedges driven under the blocks and the standards.

The mechanism by which the cutters are advanced may be explained by referring to figs. 2, 3, and 4, from an inspection of which, it will be seen that the axis F F is in fact a tube of cast iron. It is divided by a longitudinal aperture e e (fig. 4) on each side: at the ends of it is left a complete tube to keep the two halves together. The cutter head M M, N N, consists of two parts, viz. of a tube M M fitted upon the axis F, with the greatest accuracy, and of a cast iron ring N N fixed upon M M by four wedges. On this circumference are eight notches to receive the cutters or steelings A A, which are also held in and adjusted by wedges. The slider M is kept from slipping round with the axis, by means of two short iron bars g g, which are put through the axis and received into notches cut in the ends of the sliders M M. These bars have holes in the middle of them to permit a bolt at the end of the toothed rack N to pass through. A key is put through the end of the bolt, which at

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the same time prevents the rack from being drawn back, and holds the cross bar *g g* in their places. The rack is worked by the teeth of the pinion *P*, and is kept to its place by the roller *Q*. The axis of the pinion and roller is attached to a standard *D D*, as shewn in the perspective view of the machine fig. 1. The pinion is turned round by a lever put upon the square end of the axis, and loaded with the weight *R*, that it may have a constant tendency to draw the cutter through the cylinder. This lever is capable of being put on the square end of the axis either way, so as to force the rack back into the cylinder if necessary.

In some machines of this kind, a different method is employed for drawing the cutter through the cylinder. It consists of four small wheels, one of which is fixed at the right hand extremity *E*, of the bar *F E*, (fig. 4.) Another pinion is fixed to the extremity of an axis analogous to the rack *O*, having at its other extremity a small screw which works in an interior screw fixed to the cutter *M M* at *g*, (fig. 3.) Below the second pinion is another, containing the same number of teeth, and fixed on a horizontal axis parallel to *F F*. At the other end of the axis is a fourth pinion, which is driven by the first pinion at the end of the hollow axis *F F*. The first pinion has twenty-six teeth, and the fourth thirty; the other two may have any number at pleasure, provided only they are equal. As the axis *F F* revolves, the first pinion at its extremity drives the fourth, which by means of the third fixed on the same axis with it gives motion to the second. The second pinion being fixed on an axis within *F F*, unscrews the screw at the other extremity, and of course makes the cutter advance along the cylinder. The screw has eight threads in an inch, and sixty turns of the axis are required to cut one inch.

Boring for Water.—The practice of Boring for water, and the frequent success that has lately attended the operation, in producing a great supply without the actual sinking of a well, render the subject one of great importance; we conceive therefore that our readers will be gratified with the following description of the process, for which we are indebted to the *London Journal of Science*, No. xxxiii.

The situation of the intended well being determined on, a circular hole is generally dug in the ground, about six or eight feet deep, and five or six feet wide. In the centre of this hole, the Boring is carried on by two workmen, assisted by a labourer above, as shewn in plate XVIII.

The handle, fig. 5, having a female screw in the bottom of its iron shank, a wooden bar or rail passing through the socket of the shank, and a ring at top, is the general agent to which all the Boring implements are to be attached. A chisel, fig. 6, is first employed, and connected to this handle by its screw at top. If the ground is tolerably soft, the weight of the two workmen bearing upon the cross-bar and occasionally forcing it round, will soon cause the chisel to penetrate; but if the ground is hard or strong, the workmen strike the chisel down with repeated blows, so as to peck their way, often changing their situation by walking round, which breaks the stones, or other hard substances, that may happen to obstruct its progress.

The labour is very considerably reduced, by means of an elastic wooden pole, placed horizontally over the well, from which a chain is brought down, and attached to the ring of the handle. This pole is

usually made fast at one end as a fulcrum, by being set into a heap of heavy loose stones; at the other end the labourer gives it a slight up and down vibrating motion, corresponding to the heaving motion of the workmen below, by which means the elasticity of the pole in rising, lifts the handle and pecker, and thereby very considerably diminishes the labour of the workmen.

When the hole has been thus opened by a chisel, as far as its length will permit, the chisel is withdrawn, and a sort of cylindrical auger, fig. 7, attached to the handle, fig. 5, for the purpose of drawing up the dirt or broken stones, which have been disturbed by the chisel. A section of this auger is shown in fig. 8, by which the internal valve will be seen. The auger being introduced into the hole, and turned round by the workmen; the dirt or broken stones will pass through the aperture at bottom, (shewn at fig. 9,) and fill the cylinder, which is then drawn up, and discharged at the top of the auger, the valve preventing its escape at bottom.

In order to penetrate deeper into the ground, an iron rod, as *a*, fig. 10, is now to be attached to the chisel, fig. 6, by screwing on to its upper end, and the rod is also fastened to the handle, fig. 5, by screwing into its socket. The chisel having thus become lengthened, by the addition of the rod, it is again introduced into the hole, and the operation of pecking or forcing it down, is carried on by the workmen as before. When the ground has been thus perforated, as far as the chisel and its rod will reach, they must be withdrawn, in order again to introduce the auger, fig. 7, to collect and bring up the rubbish, which is done by attaching it to the iron rod, in place of the chisel. Thus as the hole becomes deepened, other lengths of iron rods are added, by connecting them together, as *a b*, fig. 11. The necessity of frequently withdrawing the rods from the hole, in order to collect the mud, stones, or rubbish, and the great friction produced by the rubbing of the tools against its sides, as well as the lengths of the rods augmenting in the progress of the operation, sometimes to the extent of several hundred feet, render it extremely inconvenient, if not impossible, to raise them by hand. A tripodal standard is therefore generally constructed, by three scaffolding poles tied together, over the hole, as shewn in the plate, from the centre of which a wheel and axle, or a pair of pulley blocks are suspended, for the purpose of hauling up the rods, and from which hangs the fork, fig. 12. This fork is to be brought down under the shoulder, near the top of each rod, and made fast to it by passing a pin through two little holes in the claws. The rods are thus drawn up, about seven feet at a time, which is the usual distance between each joint, and at every haul a fork, fig. 13, is laid horizontally over the hole, with the shoulders of the lower rod resting between its claws, by which means the rods are prevented from sinking down into the bore again, while the upper length is unscrewed and removed. In attaching and detaching these lengths of rod, a wrench, fig. 14, is employed, by which they are turned round, and the screws forced up to their firm bearing.

The boring is sometimes performed for the first sixty or a hundred feet, by a chisel of two and a half inches wide, and cleared out by a grange of two and a quarter diameter, and then the hole is widened by a tool, such as shewn at fig. 15. This is merely a

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chisel, as fig. 6, four inches wide, but with a guide *as*, put on at its lower part, for the purpose of keeping it in a perpendicular direction; the lower part is not intended to peck, but to pass down the hole previously made, while the sides of the chisel operate in enlarging the hole to four inches. The process, however, is generally performed at one operation, by a chisel of four loebes wide, as fig. 6, and a gouge of three inches and three quarters, as fig. 7.

It is obvious, that placing and displacing the lengths of rod, which is done every time that the anger is required to be introduced or withdrawn, must of itself be extremely troublesome, independent of the labour of boring, but yet the operation proceeds when no unpropitious circumstances attend it, with a facility almost incredible. Sometimes, however, rocks intercept the way, which require great labour to penetrate; but this is always effected by pecking, which slowly pulverises the stone. The most unpleasant circumstance attendant upon this business, is the occasional breaking of a rod into the hole, which sometimes creates a delay of many days, and an incalculable labour in drawing up the lower portion.

When the water is obtained in such quantities and of such quality as may be required, the hole is dressed or finished by passing down it the diamond chisel, fig. 16; this is to make the sides smooth previous to putting in the pipe. This chisel is attached to rods and to the handle, as before described, and in its descent the workmen continually walk round, by which the hole is made smooth and cylindrical. In the progress of the boring, frequent veins of water are passed through, but as these are small streams, and perhaps impregnated with mineral substances, the operation is carried on until an aperture is made into a main spring, which will sometimes flow up to the surface of the earth. This must of course depend upon the level of its source, which, if in a neighbouring hill, will frequently cause the water to rise up and produce a continued fountain. But if the altitude of the distant spring happens to be below the level of the surface of the ground where the boring is effected, it sometimes happens that a well of considerable capacity is obliged to be dug down to that level, in order to form a reservoir, into which the water may flow, and from whence it must be raised by a pump; while, in the former instance, a continued fountain may be obtained. Hence, it will always be a matter of doubt, in level countries, whether water can be procured which will flow near to or over the surface; if this cannot be effected, the process of boring will be of little or no advantage, except as an experiment to ascertain the fact.

In order to keep the water pure and uncontaminated with mineral springs, the hole is cased for a considerable depth with a metallic pipe, about a quarter of an inch smaller than the bore. This is generally made of tin, (though sometimes of copper or lead) in convenient lengths; and as each length is let down, it is held by a shoulder resting in a fork, while another length is soldered to it; by which means a continued pipe is carried through the bore as far as may be found necessary, to exclude land-springs, and to prevent loose earth or sand from falling in and choking the aperture.

BORKUM, an island off the coast of East Friesland, situated between the mouths of the Ems, and belong-

ing to Hanover. The whole circuit of the island is about twelve miles, but the middle of it is so low that it is overflowed at high tides, and then it forms two distinct islands. Most of the inhabitants derive their subsistence from the surrounding ocean; and such is the estimation in which they are held, that many of them are engaged either as masters of Dutch and Hamburgh vessels, or as harpooners in the northern whaler-fishery. Rearing of cattle is followed by another class; while the proprietors of the soil derive considerable gains from shipwrecks, as it is an established custom, that one-third of the materials saved belongs to the owner of the land on which they are secured.

BORMIO, a country in the northern part of Italy, bordering upon the confines of Tyrol and the country of the Grisons, and now included in the Austrian Empire. It lies amidst the ancient Rhetian Alps, and consists chiefly of a valley, surrounded on all sides by lofty, and almost inaccessible mountains. It is connected with the valley of the Valteline by the narrow passage called the Serna, which has apparently been formed by the course of the river Adda through it. The access to the valley of Bormio from all other parts is always difficult, and in winter generally impracticable. It once formed a part of the Valteline, from which it was separated about the close of the twelfth century, when it became a distinct country. After various wars and revolutions it was conquered by the Grisons in 1512; and in the new division of Switzerland, which followed the French conquest, it, as well as the cantons of Valtelino and Chiavenna, formed part of the Cisalpine Republic, and subsequently of the Kingdom of Italy. But when the French influence in these regions was overthrown, the country of Bormio, with the two others were, by the general treaty signed at the Congress of Vienna, on the 9th of June 1815, awarded to Austria, and included in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, which now constitutes the southern portion of that empire. The elevation of the country, with the encompassing girdle of Alpine ridges, renders the climate cool and often keen, but the air is generally pure and salubrious. Much of the territory is fertile; the mountains yield large quantities of timber, and pasture for cattle, while the valleys are productive in several kinds of grain. The rearing of cattle, however, seems to be the object for which the country is best adapted, as both corn and other articles of provision are imported from the adjacent districts. Iron is one of the native products; the honey of Bormio is much esteemed for its singular purity; these with cattle and cheese constitute the chief exports. The whole population comprises about 14,000 or 15,000 individuals, who are rigid Catholics. The Bormios are a simple hardy race of mountaineers, agreeing in most particulars with the Swiss and Tyrolese.

BORMIO, the capital of the preceding country, is pleasantly situated at the foot of Mount Braglio, near the confluence of the rivers Fredolfo and Adda. The town is small, and badly built; but there is a Chapter, consisting of an Archbishop and ten Canons; the Jesuits had also an establishment here, which was founded in 1619. The celebrated warm baths of Saint Martin Melius, in the valley of Prensaglia, are only about half a league from Bormio, which is thirty miles south-east of Coire, the Bishop of which See exercises jurisdiction over the spiritual affairs of this secluded valley.

BORKUM
BORMIO

BORNEO.

BORNEO.

General description

BORNEO, the largest island in the Indian Archipelago, and next to New Holland, the largest in the world, is the chief of the group called the Sunda Islands. This island extends from 7° 7' N. to 4° 13' S. latitude, and from 106° 45' to 118° 25' E. longitude; measuring 900 miles at its greatest length, 700 at its greatest breadth, and 3000 in circumference. An acid fruit, indigenous in this island, has given rise to the name of Pulo Kalamantan, by which the Malays have denominated it. Borneo, or rather Burni, was only the Capital of one of the three kingdoms into which this island is divided, and being one of the first and most flourishing places visited by the early European navigators, its name was improperly transferred to the whole island.

Like most islands of any considerable extent, it is formed by a central mass of mountains sloping gradually down to the sea, except to the north and north-west, where Kinei Baulu, or St. Peter's Mount, in lat. 6° N. is one of the highest mountains known. Along the western coast the land gradually sinks into hills and declivities; but on the south and east, it becomes a dead flat, in some places moist and swampy. The heat is tempered by sea breezes and continual showers, so as to be scarcely oppressive. The wet and stormy season lasts from September to April, but showers are common during the remainder of the year. The monsoon blows from the north-east on the northerly shores from October to April, and from the south-west during the remainder of the year. On the southern side of the island they are exactly the reverse blowing from the west in the former, and from the east during the latter. Under the line the winds are always variable. The low lands near the sea are inundated in the rainy season, and the soil enriched by their deposit is peculiarly fertile. The quantity of fresh water brought down, and the rapidity of the streams is then so great, that the saltiness of the sea is very sensibly diminished at the distance of six or seven miles from their mouths. Almost all the many rivers which fertilize and enrich this vast island, are said to have their origin in a large lake near the mountain of Kinei Baulu. That appears to be undoubtedly the case with respect to the river of Benjar-masing, which falls into the sea after a course of nearly 1500 miles. At low water the bar at its mouth has only nine feet water. The largest river of the island is that of Borneo Proper. It has three fathoms upon the bar at low water. Its southern branch has been well surveyed; but its northern arm leading to the Morat country is little known. It is said to rise in Kinei Baulu. In the Kingdom of Sukadana there are five large and navigable rivers, several of which rise from the same mountain. They are the Sukadana, Lava, Pogoro, Pontiana and Sambas. They are all obstructed by bars at their mouths, which will not allow the passage of vessels drawing more than fourteen feet. Kinabatangan, which flows into the Sulu Sea, is said to be navigable further than the Benjar-masing; Kuran, Pasir, and several more on the eastern side of the island, are also navigable for vessels of large burthen. There are several good harbours; Sandakan is one of the finest in the world.

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Tambien, near Cape Ussing, is well calculated for careening and building ships. Pulo Laut, Punningan, Maludu and several more in the Straits of Macassar afford good shelter and anchorage.

The aboriginal inhabitants still occupy the interior of the island, and are divided into various tribes, speaking different dialects, and distinguished by manners, customs and religion from the Malayan colonies who have possessed themselves of the coast. About Pontiana and Sambas they are called *Dayers*; at Benjar-masing, *Bigis*; at Burni, *Moruts*; and on the northern side of the island, *Orang Idas*. Their origin and history is as difficult to develop as that of the Monocobes of the Malayan peninsula; the Rejangs and Battas of Sumatra, or the Tagalans of the Philippines. The Moruts and Orang Idas are fairer and more robust, the Dayer darker than the Malays. They appear to be sunk in the lowest state of barbarism, and are afflicted with a cutaneous disorder, which together with the colours with which they stain themselves, give them the appearance of being tattooed. They are said to believe in a Supreme Being; to offer sacrifices from a principle of gratitude; not to allow of polygamy, and to burn their dead. They are not acquainted with the art of writing, and are hardly removed beyond the first state of civilisation, living by the chase, with little idea of agriculture or commerce. They are said to be courageous and dangerous enemies; shooting their poisoned arrows through a hollow tube, and preserving the skulls of their vanquished foes as trophies. They barter with their more civilized neighbours on the coast, camphor gold, diamonds, birds-nests (*Hirundo esculenta*), wax, and cattle for salt, (an article held by them in the highest estimation,) China-ware, brazen utensils, bracelets, coarse blue and white cloths, tobacco, parangs, hardware, &c. Some tribes are said to pull out their front teeth and substitute others of gold in their stead. Their ferocity, according to the Malays, is unbounded; and as they have been driven by those intruders into their fastnesses, a mutual jealousy and hatred has arisen, which renders either a very bad evidence of the character of the other. The Portuguese missionaries found them very tractable, and drew a very different picture of their characteristic qualities.

The Malayan inhabitants of the coast, said to have migrated from Malacca, Johor, &c. in the fourteenth century, are like the Malays everywhere else, the most atrocious race of beings on the earth.

Borneo appears to have been long divided into three Divisions. distinct kingdoms: 1. Burni or Borneo Proper, from Tanjong Dato in lat. 3° 15' N. to Kamukungin in the Straits of Macassar, 1° 15' N. 2. Sukadana (Sukaduna, an earthly paradise) from Tanjong Dato to Tanjong Sambar, formerly belonging to the Sultan of Bantam; and 3. Benjar-masing (from Bender-masing, the usual port,) which comprehended the rest of the island.

Borneo Proper is one of the most ancient States in the island. It occupies a considerable portion of the coast. It is bounded on the north by Maludu, and on the south by several petty States which separate it from Pontiana. Its eastern limits are probably the first

BORNEO. range of hills. Its soil is extremely fertile; and camphor, for which the island is celebrated, is produced in this part of it in the greatest abundance. The inhabitants are a colony of Malays, and the Government a feudal despotism similar to those established in Sumatra and Java. The Capital, called **Burnai** or **Borneo**, is built, like Venice, on a swamp, and like it, has canals in every street. The houses are built on stages and accessible only by ladders. The river is navigable to a considerable distance above the town; but its entrance is obstructed by a bar which has no more than seventeen feet of water at low tides. The commerce is almost exclusively in the hands of the Chinese, who often avail themselves of the excellent timber afforded by the neighbouring mountains, and build the junks which carry their goods to China. The English have a factory at **Burnai**, and still carry on a small trade in piece-goods. Descending along the western coast, we come to those States which belonged to **Sukadana**, of which the first is **Sambas**. Its Capital **Sembas** is thirty miles from the coast, on a navigable river in a marshy soil, and built on an artificial foundation, like the town of Borneo. Its Sovereign and inhabitants had addicted themselves to piracy, and became a scourge to all their neighbours; so that the Rajah of Pontiana, an old ally of the Dutch, applied to the English, then in possession of Batavia, for assistance; and in 1813 the Rajah of **Sambas** was driven into the interior, his Capital taken by storm, and his piracies repressed. **Mampava**, a little to the south of **Sambas**, nineteen or twenty miles from the sea, is the principal market for opium on this coast. The mouth of the river on the bank of which it stands, is obstructed by a bar and some small islands; vessels however of some burthen can pass when the tide is not peculiarly low. **Pontiana** or **Pontianak**. **Pontiana** is the most powerful State on this side of Borneo. Its Capital is placed on the river **Lava**, and its prosperity is owing to the wisdom and integrity of a Prince who made the protection of his subjects his sole object. The mountainous region to the east of this Kingdom is considered as the most abundant in diamonds of any part of Borneo. **Landac**, a territory on the northern side of the **Lava**, has a Capital singularly placed on the projecting brow of a hill, which is only accessible by a long flight of steps, and nearly enclosed by two rivers, so choked up with rocks as to be unnavigable. This Kingdom and **Sukadana** were ceded by the King of **Bantam** to the Dutch in 1778, and they kept possession of those districts and the intervening country, till the events of the late war ruined the commerce and power in the eastern Archipelago. **Sukadana**, the next territory on the western coast, was anciently the most powerful State in this part of the island. It was attacked and entirely destroyed by the Dutch in 1786; but it has been since rebuilt. It does not appear to have been frequented by Europeans of late. An interval of more than two degrees of latitude and five of longitude intervening between **Sukadana** and the next State, is a complete blank in one of the most modern and accurate maps of these seas—that attached to Mr. Crawford's work: so imperfectly are even the coasts of this vast island yet known! **Banjar-masing**, near the southernmost point of Borneo, thus comes immediately after **Sukadana**, though at so great a distance from it. Like the Principalities already mentioned, it is placed upon a large and deep river, of which the navigation, like that of

its sister streams, is obstructed by a bar at its mouth with not more than thirteen feet of water at the highest tides. There is an anchorage for ships however at **Tambangu** (the **Tamboreno** of the old writers,) near the river's mouth. The population was estimated at nearly 9000 in 1780; many of the inhabitants being foreigners, particularly Chinese, who carry on a considerable trade with all the Indian islands. **Martapura** or **Bumi-kin-chaos**, fifty or sixty miles up the river, is the residence of the Sultan; it was built in 1774 on a spot selected on account of the excellent hunting in its neighborhood. This part of Borneo is celebrated for its gold, diamonds, pepper and iron, and has long been frequented by the Dutch. In the beginning of the last century the English also had a very flourishing establishment at **Banjar-masing**, which rivalled the factory at **Calcutta** itself. But an attack from the natives compelled the Company's servants to abandon it. This appears to have arisen from their own imprudent and unjustifiable conduct: and the hostility of the Indian Islanders has no doubt been frequently occasioned by aggressions on the part of the European settlers; but nevertheless Mr. Crawford seems to have been led by his antipathy against monopolies, to overlook the caprice and dishonesty inseparable from ignorance and despotism, and to ascribe all the errors to one party and none to the other. (*Hist. of Ind. Archipelago*, l. iii. lii. 139.)

These States are distinguished from the rest by animal and vegetable productions of greater utility; a more fertile soil and more civilized inhabitants. Rice is generally abundant, and is the great article of food on which the inhabitants subsist: many fruits of distinguished excellence either not found, or not coming to perfection elsewhere, are peculiar to this tract of country, as will be shown in the account of **SUMATRA** and **JAVA**. The inhabitants of these coasts of Borneo, all belong to the tawny race so widely diffused over the Indian and Pacific Oceans, generally known under the name of **Malaya**. A moderate height, tawny complexion, lank hair, deficiency of beard and hollow cheeks distinguish them from the Negro race, the apparent aborigines, whose woolly hair, thick lips, low stature and jetty skin bring them very near to the African Negroes, to whom at first sight they bear a perfect resemblance. Colonies from **Java** had in fact possessed themselves of the southern and western coasts of Borneo, at a period antecedent to the earliest era to which their history ascends.

Crossing the south-eastern extremity of the island, **Pasir**, and advancing along the eastern coast we come to **Pasir**, of which the Capital is nearly fifty miles from the sea. The river on which it stands is not so large as those already mentioned, and its climate and inhabitants have an equally bad reputation; the one being rendered unhealthy by marshes and stagnant pools, the others being famous for fraud and duplicity. This territory is low and closely wooded, and would be uninhabitable were it not cooled by the eastern monsoon. It was probably peopled by colonies from the opposite side of the Straits of **Macassar**, by which it is separated from **Celebes**, and belongs to the second natural division of the Archipelago. Here rice ceases to be the staple article of food, and **sago** begins to supply its place. This is the only State in that division of which we have any detailed account; for of **Cotilama**, which extends to the confines of **Tirun**, little more than the name seems known to Europeans. With this State,

Cotilama.

BORNEO. which begins near Tabellar Point, in lat. 3° 30' N. that part of the island commences which is included in the fourth natural division proposed by Mr. Crawford. It contains the States of Tiram, Mangidoro, Palau, and Maludu.

Tiram. Tiram, not less valuable than the preceding provinces, has eight towns; of which the principal are the seaports of Kuran and Sihuku, ceded to the English government by the Sulos. Their inhabitants are chiefly Bugis, and the articles of commerce similar to those mentioned above. The people of Tapean-durian, one of the towns in this province, are said to be very ferocious. Here the clove and nutmeg begin to be indigenous, though inferior in quality to the produce of the southern and eastern islands; rice is more cultivated than sago; and the natives, perhaps a colony from Mindanao, are more civilized than their northern and eastern neighbours.

Maludu Bay. The Bay of Maludu, on the northern coast, is thirty miles long and five or six broad, and there are no coral reefs or other dangers except on the larboard shore. Its principal towns are Songy Bassar and Bunkaka. The Copis or Ceylon oysters in the bay, the ratans upon the rivers, the forests of pines upon the neighbouring mountains, and the turtle called pakayan by the Malays, abounding on this coast, would render this bay the seat of a very flourishing commerce under an enlightened Government. Camphor, wax, tortoise-shell and birds-nests are also very abundant, and all kinds of provisions including rice and sugar-cane are extremely cheap. But of all the regions in the world the most productive of camphor is the province of

Paitan. Paitan, where there are everywhere vast forests of the *Dryobalanops Camphora* (*At. Res. xii. 535. 4to. Calc. ed.*) producing samples unequalled in size and transparency. Sugut is the most remarkable of the four principal places in this province.

Labuk. Labuk, a neighbouring province, has three towns of some note, and besides the productions just enumerated, affords clove-bark.

Sandakan. Sandakan is supposed to be the finest harbour in the world; but most of the towns on its shores are inhabited by coolies from the Sulo Islands, whose business is the collection of the edible birds-nests, (*Hirundo esculenta*.) They are very jealous of foreign interference, and make no scruple to cut off any ships which they can master.

Mangidoro. The province of Mangidoro is watered by the great river Kinabatangan, navigable for a considerable distance, and having several towns of Orang Idan on its banks. This country is said to produce 100 pikals of birds, abundance of *tripang* or *tripang*, (sea slug or *Holothurion*;) and it possesses the celebrated pearl-oyster-banks called Tawi-tawi.

Biajuks, Dayaks, Haraforas. The interior of the island, as has been already observed, though a blank on the map, is occupied by ranges of mountains, and inhabited by the Biajuks, or Biajus, also called Dayaks; the Idans, Moruts and Haraforas. The former were earlier colonists of the same race as that now possessed of the coasts, and many of them are engaged in the fishery of *tripang*, while others are employed in agriculture, or in collecting gold from the rivers. The latter are savages of the Negro race in the most abject state of barbarism. Their cannibalism seems now established beyond all doubt, and the most indispensable qualification by which a man can recommend himself

to the relations of the woman whom he wishes to marry, is the head of an enemy cut off by his own hand. Many other customs equally barbarous are described; such as human sacrifices in honour of the Gods and of the deceased, at funerals: but these accounts have been obtained by too circuitous a route, to be received without great hesitation. The deities of the Biajus are called Dewata, which renders it probable that their religion, like that of Bali, may have been derived from the Brahmans, and that their bloody rites may be connected with the worship of the Goddess Kali, to whom human sacrifices are said to be still offered clandestinely in Bengal.

The dialects used by these different tribes, with the exception of those spoken by the Negroes, are all branches of the Polynesian language so widely diffused over the islands of the Indian and Pacific Oceans: and ample vocabularies of them are given in the works of Mr. Crawford and Sir Thomas Stamford Raffles.

Among the vegetable productions peculiar to Borneo, Vegetable we may notice the *Samari*, a large handsome tree bearing an oblong nut, the kernel of which besides being extremely palatable, abounds in an excellent oil fit for all culinary purposes. The sagopalm (*Metrargylon Sagu*) is not extensively cultivated in this island, although it is indigenous; and it appears to require all the violence of the eastern monsoon to bring it to its utmost perfection. The sageira of the Portuguese, (converted into Sagwire by some English writers,) is the *Gomuti* of the natives, and *Borassus Gomutus* of modern botanists; but it is not the plant which produces the genuine sago. It is a native of Borneo as well as the other islands in these seas. The western coast is probably the eastern extremity of the country producing the plant from which the insipidated juice called *guta gambir* is collected. *Gatah gambir*, or *gambir-gum* is the native name of this resinous substance; and the plant (*Nauclia Gambir*, Linnaean *Trens. ix. 218.*) is described by Rumphius under the name of *Ficus uncatas*. The leaves are boiled to the consistence of a syrup which when cooled forms the substance in question. It is used for tanning leather in China, and for mastication by the islanders themselves. On the south-eastern coast the *Cuyar pati* (*Melaleuca Leucadendron*) flourishes; and this is the western limit of that fragrant plant, of which the leaves furnish a well known essential oil. One variety of the *Durian* tree (*Durio Zibethicus*), bearing a fruit larger than a man's head, is mentioned by Rumphius as peculiar to Borneo. That singular fruit, esteemed by the natives of these islands as the best possessed by man, has so offensive a smell as to excite nothing but disgust in strangers. Its fruit bears some resemblance to the bread fruit, but is larger and covered with strong spines, a peculiarity indicated by its Malay name *Durian*. Its seeds are enclosed in a rich white pulp, which is the eatable part of the fruit. Though highly nutritious, it never cloy the appetite; and the seeds enclosed in it, when roasted, have the flavour of chestnuts. Among the articles produced in peculiar abundance and excellence by the forests of Borneo, the *Ratan* (*Colanum Rotang*), ought to be named; for though universally met with in these regions, it is found nowhere else in so perfect a state. The tree which yields the best and most esteemed camphor, is also peculiar to this island and Sumatra. Mr. Colebrooke, who gave in the *Asiatic Researches*, vol. xii. the first scientific descrip-

BORNEO. tion of it, has named it *Dryobalanops Camphora*. It belongs to a different family of plants from the laurel tribe, to which it was formerly ascribed, and is a native of plains not far distant from the coast; nor has it ever been observed beyond the third degree of northern latitude. The camphor is found like *agalochum*, in a concrete state in the veins and fissures of the wood; so that the tree must be cut down in order to procure it. It is held in little estimation by the natives, and has no name originally derived from their languages; for *capur*, *cafar* and *capars* are either pure or corrupted Sanscrit words, and *Barus*, the other term by which they denote it, is the name of the principal market for it in Sumatra. It sells for four times as much as that from Japan, the produce of the *Laurus Camphora*; but it does not appear to be intrinsically deserving of so extraordinary a preference. The Chinese are the purchasers who ascribe so high a value to the Malayan camphor. They usually give £4. 4s. for a pound avoirdupois. By other nations the Japanese camphor is as much esteemed as the Malayan. These are the principal vegetable productions which may be considered as peculiar to Borneo; for those which are found in other parts of the Archipelago, will be more conveniently noticed in the accounts of SUMATRA and JAVA, with the exception of one tree only, the celebrated poison Upas, or "poison tree of Java," concerning which such tremendous tales were invented by a surgeon named Försch, and adorned by the poetic imagination of Dr. Darwin. This, the *Anchor* (*Torieria Anchor*), is found in most if not in all of these islands, and the effect of its poisonous juice is soon destroyed by exposure to the atmosphere: and even if the poisoned weapon is quickly withdrawn from the wound, the consequences are not fatal. But when time is allowed for the absorption of the poison, such is its effect that an animal as large as a buffalo is killed in about two hours. The bark of the *Anchor* is perfectly harmless, and is used as an article of dress by the poorer natives; so completely destitute of foundation were the incredible statements of Försch!

Minerals. Gold.

The minerals of Borneo are not less remarkable or valuable than its vegetable productions. Gold, though found in most of the northern and western islands of the Indian Archipelago, is no where so abundant as in

this. Its veins and beds have been little explored, and by far the greater part brought into the market is an alluvial deposit, obtained by washing and sifting the sand of rivers or the mud of their banks. The principal mining operations are carried on, as in the tin mines of Banca, by Chinese colonists. The high lands between the rivers of Pontiana and Sambas, are the territory where the most extensive mines are found, and Montradak, a village two days journey from the coast, is the place from which they are denominated. It is an alluvial tract, intersected by numerous streams, and occupied by a population of 36,000 Chinese, who are nearly independent of the Rajah of Sambas, their liege lord, to whom they pay an annual tribute of about £900. The labourers are paid by monthly wages and their board. An experienced man of capacity and integrity receives twenty-four Spanish dollars a year. They labour very nearly twelve hours in the twenty-four. "The mines," as Mr. Crawford was informed by persons engaged in working them, "are longitudinal excavations following the course of the mineral stratum." The ore is seldom more than five or six feet below the surface, and the veins are usually ten feet and forty feet wide, "making fifteen or sixteen feet a common depth for the whole mine." The access is made by means of the trunk of a forest tree, into which steps are cut. "The ore is extracted and brought up by manual labour with spades and baskets." The largest mines are cleared of water by the Chinese wheel, the same as that used in Egypt, and so well represented in Norden's plates; and the ore is washed in a trough lined with the bark of trees, and supplied with running water from a neighbouring stream. The largest produce of a mine worked by 300 labourers for thirty-five days, is about 390 hangkals, = 5554 oz. troy; the smallest amounts to 140 hangkals, = 243 oz. troy. The charges on such a mine for that time amount to 2104.78 Spanish dollars: its produce may be estimated at 2000 hangkals of gold dust, worth 4848.00 Spanish dollars; and the gross profit for the same time will be 2473.92, = £1000. 16s.

The annexed Table will give an adequate idea of the quality and value of the ore extracted from the different mines in Borneo.

Name of the mine.	In 100 parts of the gold dust.		In 100 parts of the metal.			Estimated surface in carats.	Value of gold dust per oz.
	Dross.	Metal.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.		
Ombak	3.75	96.25	88.19	8.51	3.30	21.17	£. s. d. 3 12 12
Sanga	4.96	95.04	90.97	3.65	5.38	21.83	3 13 5
Lara	3.83	96.17	86.11	8.90	7.99	20.67	3 10 42
Benjar-laut	2.66	97.34	90.45	4.34	5.21	21.71	3 14 9
Pontiana	14.05	85.95	82.99	16.14	0.87	19.92	3 0 72
Sambas	9.00	91.00	83.68	16.32	16.32	20.03	3 4 82
Montradak	12.02	87.98	84.09	15.91	15.91	20.18	3 2 102

The natives are entirely ignorant of the art of assaying gold, but Telinga settlers from the Coromandel coast are employed for that purpose, and use a scale divided into ten parts. Packets sealed with their signet often pass in currency, for the quantity and value

marked upon them, without examination. Silver, as the price of gold is here more fluctuating, is in greater estimation as money, and regulates the rate of its value. The annual produce of the mines in the territory of Sambas has been rated at 88,361 oz. of pure gold, =

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£375,538. The quantity raised in the whole of the island we have no means of calculating; but it is plain that no regions of the earth have yet been discovered producing that precious metal in any thing like the same proportion. Bengal and China are the principal markets for the gold from the Indian islands.

At Mampava there are said to be very rich copper-mines, and at Pulo Boegorog near Borneo Proper, plenty of lead-stone is found. A country called Sarawan, at about sixty miles to the north of Sambas, contains an extensive district abounding in veins of tin as rich as those of Banca. They were formerly worked, but have been abandoned in consequence of the bad policy and tyranny of the Government. There is a very valuable iron-mine in the province of Matan, and the metal it affords is free from any impurity and equal to the best Swedish iron.

The only gems hitherto brought from the Indian Archipelago are diamonds, and Borneo is the only part of it in which they are found. There are indeed no countries in the world except that island, Hindostan, and Brazil, in which beds of diamonds are known to exist. The territories of Pontiana and Banjar-masing, and particularly of Borneo, are the districts which furnish them, and these are precisely those districts in which gold is most abundant. In order to form a mine, a perpendicular shaft is first sunk, the stratum containing diamonds is then followed horizontally, the superincumbent earth being lifted propped up to the imminent risk of the workmen. The first stratum, one or two fathoms in depth, consists of yellowish clay; the second of sand and pebbles; the third of crumbling sand stone, and the fourth of very hard stones, probably quartz. The miners are Dayaks, the uncivilized aboriginal natives of the island; and the Bugis of Celebes, the great carriers of the Indo-Chinese Seas, are the merchants who deal in the produce of these mines. The natives of the Archipelago itself, and of central or western Asia, are the principal purchasers, for the Chinese do not value these stones. It is remarkable that *padi* a rough, and *intan* a cut diamond, are both original terms of the great Polynesian language, and the latter is common to all its different dialects. It may be thence inferred that the art of cutting this stone is an original invention of the natives of this region; and it is equally worthy of observation, that the art is at present known only to the less civilized inhabitants of the country near the mines, while the more civilized tribes are wholly ignorant of it, and no sort of precious stone except this is ever polished by them. A kind of *table-cut* is the only one approved by the natives of those islands. The Prince of Matan, a petty State on the western coast, is in possession of one of the largest diamonds known. It was found in the mines of Landac about a century ago, is still in its rough state, and weighs 367 carats; therefore, if polished, its weight would be 183½ carats, 11½ smaller than the Emperor of Russia's and 46½ larger than the Pitt diamond, and its real value is £260,375.

The whole coast from Cape Unising as far as Baselan, is one bed of pearl-oysters, principally the *Nahrein* or mother-of-pearl shell species, called *tipi* by the Malays; and in Maluda Bay there is an extensive bed of the Ceylon oyster, called *kapi* by these islanders. This part of Borneo has been ceded to the English Government, but has hitherto been almost entirely neglected.

Among the animal productions of Borneo which are

peculiarly deserving of notice is the *tripang awala*, called by some writers *scallop*, by others sea snail or sea slug, a translation of the Portuguese appellation, *bicho de mar*. It is a kind of *holothurion* found on coral rocks at the depth of four or five fathoms; and it is so much in request among the Chinese as to form the most considerable export, with the exception of pepper, from the Indian islands to China; but as it is procured in the greatest perfection farther to the eastward, a more particular account of it will come more properly under the head of NEW GUINEA.

The Malays on the coast excel in gold and silver filagree, and can manufacture gunpowder, cast brass cannon, and run iron into shot. They also make, repair, and clean their arms.

The Malay Government is one that inspires nothing but distrust. The chiefs are not wholly independent of the more distinguished vassals whose power they dread, while these on the other hand, expect nothing but rapacity from such a Government: and murder, rapine and conflagration, every outrage destructive of the peace of society, are openly tolerated.

Pangaran Assan in Sanbar, Borneo Proper and Tampasuk; and Pasir, are ports strictly speaking piratical; and since 1800 no less than twelve ships have been attacked, and their crews have been in most instances either murdered or sold as slaves, by the Sovereigns to whom these ports belong.

Matan, belonging to the Rajah of Sukadana, has risen from the ruins of that city, destroyed by the Dutch about 1795. The Sultan of Pontiana, who assisted in the reestablishment of the Rajah of Matan, was to receive his kingdom and the large diamond, as a dowry for his daughter when she was married to the Sultan's grandson. The population of Matan is about 10,000 Dayaks.

There are no places of any importance between Matan and Pontiana. North of Tanjong Dato, in the territory of Borneo Proper, is the town of Calaca; it is the mart of the Sedang country, productive of much grain and many other valuable articles.

Kimawo, in lat. 5° 30' N. was ceded to the English by the Sultan of Sulu. The beautiful hills at the foot of which it stands, are inhabited by 35,000 Orang Idan. The river is almost choked up at its entrance; but there are four seaports in the province, which carry on a considerable trade with Borneo Proper.

Kinli Baulu, a very mountainous province, has eleven seaport towns, of which Tampasuk, fifteen miles from St. Peter's Mount, is the most considerable. It is at present a complete nest of pirates. The whole province is extremely fertile, and contains more of the aboriginal inhabitants than perhaps all the rest of the island put together. Besides the gold mines of Tampasuk mentioned above, there is also abundance of rock crystal, called water-diamonds by the natives. (Among the older authorities, Pigafetta and Dampier's *Voyages* may be mentioned. Hamilton's *Account of the East Indies*; Beechman's *Voyage to Borneo*; Valentyn's great work *On the Dutch Settlements in the East Indies*; *Beschreibung von Indien*. The modern authorities are Sir T. S. Raffles's *Account of Java*; Leyden's *Description of Borneo*; Hamilton's *East India Gazetteer*; *Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica*; *Transactions of the Batavian Society*; Forrest's *Voyages*, and, particularly, Crawford's *History of the Indian Archipelago*; but the most extensive and accurate, as

BORNEO

Malayan
piratical
ports.

Matan.

Calaca.

Kimawo.

Kinli
Baulu.

BORNBO. well as the most modern account of Bornoe, is contained in the report drawn up in 1812 by Mr. Hunt for
BORNNO.

Sir T. S. Raffles, and inserted in the *Malayan Miscellany*, vol. i. No. 8. Bencoolen, 1820.)
BORNBO.

BORNHOLM, the most eastern of the Danish islands in the Baltic Sea. It is situated about the fifteenth degree of east longitude, 100 miles from the nearest point of Zealand, and forty from the shores of Sweden. Its length is thirty miles, and breadth twenty. Many parts of it appear to be a complete bed of stone, but others are fertile, as both grain and sheep are among the chief exports of the island. It contains but one town, Rønne, or Rønsey, and about 100 villages spread over its surface, which, with numerous farm houses render it very populous; the whole being supposed to contain nearly 30,000 individuals. The inhabitants near the shore are generally engaged either

in the salmon fishery of the island, or derive their support in some way from the surrounding ocean, while those of the interior are principally occupied in agriculture, the marble and stone quarries, the coal-pits and vitriol works. The people of this island are noted for a peculiar method of curing salmon, great quantities of which are annually sent to Copenhagen; they are also the proprietors of the soil, and are considered as remarkably jealous of their privileges. Bornholm is under the government of a commander, who is appointed by the crown, and was taken possession of by the British, in 1809, after an obstinate resistance by the Danes, but was afterwards restored.

B O R N O U.

BORNNO, or Bawnú, (sometimes called by the Arabs Berr Núh, i. e. the land of Noah,) a large and powerful state in the interior of Africa, bounded on the north by Canem, on the east by Bagirmi, on the south by Lekvang, Tzelkba, Kalo and Saikheh, and on the west by Cané or Canod. It appears to lie between the parallels of 10° and 20° north latitude, and 12° and 22° east longitude, but its position can at present be only imperfectly conjectured. The Mussulman Negroes consider it as one of the four great monarchies of the world; and it is worthy of remark that this opinion was mentioned to Lucas at Tripoli, and to Bowdich at Ashanti. The climate, like that of all tropical countries, is divided into the rainy and dry season. The former commences about the middle of April, when southerly and south-easterly winds bring a deluge of rain and very severe thunder storms. This state of the atmosphere continues, with short intervals, when the wind veers round to the north or west, till the latter end of October; the dry season then commences, and the heat becomes moderate with some degree of cold in the mornings and evenings. This country appears, like that near the Cape of Good Hope, to consist of mountainous ranges separated by barren plains of sand, which require irrigation to make them productive. It is probable that there is a deficiency of water, for we hear of only one stream of any magnitude, the Halem Chád or Tsád, which flows, according to the most probable account, from south-west to north-east, and is three or four miles distant from the Capital. This is probably the river Jád mentioned by Berekhardt as falling into the Shari which traverses Bagirmi. It is there called Gambaero as Captain Lyoo was informed. A beautiful virgin was formerly thrown into it every year. It overflows its banks in the rainy season like the Nile, and a canal between it and the Capital, then conveys a part of its waters into some public reservoirs; it then assumes the appearance of a large lake; hence the discordant accounts given by different travellers. The houses are also supplied from wells. The soil near the stream is a rich black mould, highly fertile. Clay is found in other districts, and the mountains abound in stone. Iron is the only ore which they afford. Two

kinds of natron, white and red, are found in a desert very far off. The animal and vegetable productions are such as might be expected in tropical countries; and some parts of the country are covered with wood. Date palms (*Phoenix Dactylifera*), and *Démo* (*Cucifera Pectinaria Thebaica*), are found in abundance. The *Saldi* is a large plant, and lofty tree, the fruit of which yields an oil useful for curing rheumatic pains. The *Zutrah*, *Engim*, *Mitkh*, *Alé*, *Menduloh* and *Kerraghe* are also large trees of which we know nothing more than the names. The *Kedehnah* is another which bears an eatable fruit, from the kernel of which an oil is extracted commonly used by the natives as a substitute for olive oil. This is perhaps the *Elaeodendrum Argan*, or *Balanites Egyptiaca*. Many trees, such as *Sil Michadé*, *Sil Bi*, &c. produce an edible gum. The *Henad* (*Lawsonia inermis*), is also common, and its leaves are used as in Egypt and Arabia, for the purpose of giving a scarlet tinge to the fingers, hair, &c.

The grain of Bornou are the *kamb* and *kamfal*, (two species of *Sorghum*;) perhaps the *durrah* and *dokha* of Nubia and Arabia. Reeds, fit for writing, grow wild, and some sorts of beans, as well as tobacco, are cultivated. A tree, the name of which is unknown, and a low spreading plant called *Lundi*, afford edible roots much used by the natives. The former is boiled; the latter sliced and dried in the sun; it may then be kept for a couple of years. The desert of Mandera, four or five days distant from Birni, produces a plant called *Gang*, said to be a most powerful aphrodisiac. Dr. Seetzen conjectures that it is some species of *Fungus*.

The domestic animals are the same as those met with in Egypt; but in the woods there are many of the monkey tribe, (*Fil*), particularly the *Simia hamadryas*, and another differing from it only in its colour which is a dusky red. It is called in the Berráwa language *Fil issem*, the red monkey, and is said to be very mischievous; sometimes attacking women when unprotected. There are many camelopards (*Ziráfah*) in the woods, on the young shoots of which they browse. To the account of Berrú given to Lucas, this animal is mentioned and fairly described under the name of *sarapat*, a slight corruption of the Arabic

BORNOU. word *sirfuk*, whence the French have borrowed the word *girafe*; and yet the compiler of "the Proceedings of the African Association," has gravely given Sheikh Mohammed's descriptions, as if the animal had ever been heard of before! Lions are common in the deserts, but not in the inhabited country. There are also wild dogs and foxes; and the flesh of the latter is said to be eaten by some of the natives. Sheep, goats, oxen, buffaloes, hippopotami, horses and camels abound, as well as several kinds of antelopes; and the horns of the *Gemshe*, a kind of chamois, are used in war instead of trumpets.

Birds. Ostriches are very common, and are hunted for their flesh and feathers. The *Matsubudi*, is represented as a bird of incomparable beauty. It is apparently a water fowl, as it feeds on fish, and is said to be larger than a goose; it has large fine eyes, and a most majestic gait. Can it be one of Flamingo tribe? The *Aligdam*, an inhabitant of the desert, approaches the ostrich in size, and has eggs of a dark green colour, smaller and more slender than those of the ostrich. It is said to feed on carrion, fish, and honey, and to have the power of flying; but these particulars are of doubtful authority. The *Mimro* is a small bird, kept in cages, and the *Gerung-gere* appears to belong to the heron tribe. The vulture, called *Heddeyoh*, in Egypt, is common, as are owls called *Boneh*; there are also small birds, named *Melch* and *Targim*, which make themselves hanging nests of the twigs of trees. These nests have a very small aperture, and are called *Pantzi-tankus*.

Serpents. Serpents, scorpions, and other insects common in hot climates, are very numerous. *Locusts* also abound, and the species called *sijo* is fried in butter and eaten. The Guinea worm, (*Yona Melisera*), is extremely common. It makes its appearance on all parts of the body, but particularly on the legs; a caustic is applied after the worm has been extracted. The natives do not appear to have any notion of keeping Bees for the sake of their honey; but collect from hollow trees, that made by wild Bees, and call it, as well as almost all other sweets, *mamm*. Among the manufactures, with which the Bernawas; (i. e. the people of Borné) are acquainted, one of the most remarkable is salt. It is obtained from the ashes of a thorny plant, which are boiled and purified; and is much superior to the rock salt imported from Effand (*Afauf*) which is rather bitter. They cultivate tobacco, though they never smoke its leaves, but use them for chewing, and manufacture them into snuff; they are steeped in a solution of catron before they are dried. It is remarkable, that none but the Christians, Mogrebians, and merchants at Birni, none is short but foreigners, are in the habit of smoking tobacco. The Ngoro, a kind of nut, is imported from Caneco and Effand; it is called *Ngura* by the Mallawa or people of Malla, (*Mali* or *Melli*), and the natives of Guber, and is the *Cala* of the western coast; scarcely any of the tropical productions of Africa, are more universally esteemed by the natives. Whips are made out of the hide of the ox and hippopotamus; candles from tallow, (*kési*), and wax. Two kinds of fermented liquor are in use: the one extracted from dates, the other from *durrah* or *mayz*. The first, called *anderah*, is made by steeping dates in water, then adding meal, and squeezing the whole through a cloth; the liquor thus procured is used after it has stood two or three days. The second is called *Sah*, and is extremely intoxicating. Coffee is also

used by the people of Borné. They are not wholly unacquainted with the art of making musical instruments, and have lutes with five horse-hair strings, and wooden trumpets. The use of flint and steel is known to them; but the mode of kindling a flame, by rubbing one stick held perpendicularly upon another placed in a horizontal position, seems to be that which they commonly adopt. Rings of silver, gold and brass, sewing and packing needles; embroidered quilts, and silk and cotton cloths are also manufactured in this country; but their ignorance of the plough, the flail, the simplest kind of mill, and many of the commonest vegetables of the tropical regions, shows how backward they are in point of civilisation. The poorer classes live in huts made of clay, and roofed with rushes; but the houses of the rich and great, are built of brick or stone. The Sultan's palace occupies a vast area, as the outer enclosure comprehends dwelling places for all his numerous attendants.

The natives, if a Pilgrim named Abdallah, whom Dr. Seetzen met at Cairo, may be taken as a sample, are tall, well-formed, and muscular, with the negro complexion and features, but thinner lips than is usual in those from the western countries. He appeared to have an excellent memory, and good abilities; but a disposition to exaggerate, so that considerable deductions must be made from the more flattering parts of his narrative. He was a native of Affadch, a town which he represented as the Capital of a distinct province, though only a few miles distant from Birni, and in fact within sight of it. He could read and write a little, and affirmed that he was nearly related to the Sultan; but his pretensions to skill in magic, &c. rendered his testimony respecting his rank and family very suspicious. He spoke Arabic readily, and called his own language *Amaic Affadch*; he mentioned also the languages of Birni, *Mjaleh* and *Kalfe*, which appeared to be dialects nearly related to each other, but different from his own language, and imperfectly understood by him.

According to his representation the kingdom of Borné contains the following towns, *Kiaach* as large as *Jiseh*, the suburb of Cairo; *Bugurwé* as large as *Bulak*; *Bremengvch*, which is obliged to furnish the Sultan's stable with sweet meats; and *Karak el beddel-mah* (*bédél-demah*) a city of refuge for murderers. In the province of *Affadch*, Abdallah's native country, he named twelve towns, possessing mosques, bazars, &c.

The provinces of the empire appear to be *Affadch*, *Marri*, *Mjodeh*, *Mblakvch*, *Labbkan*, *Métége*, *Bitiri*, *Belála*. The tributary states, *Bugirm*, *Waddi* or *Mobbe*, *Dár Fúr*, *Kordofá*, *Sheudi*, *Senkar*, &c. to the East and *Effand* (*Afauf*) *Jéin*, *Kishrah*, *Mánderah* and *Méseneh* to the west. The latter reminds us of Massinah mentioned by Park and Mollien. Abdallah persevered in affirming, that Cairo could bear no comparison to Birni; that it was more than one day's journey to go from one end of it to the other; that to look for a child lost there, was quite idle, &c.; and other similar absurdities, from which the only rational inference is, that this city is one of the largest which the Negroes possess. It is surrounded by a strong wall of stone and mortar, having stairs on the inside and several gates. There are now, indeed, two cities called Birni, five days journey distant from each other; the one called Birni-kadim or the old; the other Birni-jedid, or the new Birni; the latter is to the eastward

BORNOU. Account given by a native pilgrim.

Towns. Provinces and tributary states.

BORNOU. of the former, and was built to avoid the incursions of the Fálálá. Innumerable mosques, provided with lofty minarets; the Janic or chief mosque having no less than seven; houses of stone several stories high, constructed and furnished just like those in Egypt; schools, colleges, &c. indicate a degree of civilisation far superior to that of Dár Fúr and the other Negro kingdoms yet seen by Europeans. The cottages are either quadrangular or circular, and have flat roofs, except those of the Bedwias, of which the roofs are conical. There are many schools, and a sort of college attached to the principal mosque, in which Arithmetic and other branches of learning, as well as Divinity, are taught.

The Sultan goes every Friday to prayers in the great mosque, and then distributes large sums in alms to the poor; provisions are also distributed to them; and strangers, who present themselves to his Majesty, on that occasion, are treated with the greatest condescension and liberality. Once a year he rides out through a part of the city, into the open country, arrayed in all his pomp, and accompanied by his courtiers in their most splendid attire. The multitudes on this occasion, are such as to grind to powder the trunks of trees over which they pass! The name of the Prince who reigned about twenty years ago, was Ahmed, ibn Hassan, ibn Mahmud, ibn Abd-er-rah Man ibn Taber. The Sultans from whom he derived his patronymics all followed each other in regular succession; but allowing twenty-five years for each reign, the first could not have flourished earlier than about the beginning of the last century; yet we know from Leo Africanus, that this Empire was existing at least four hundred years ago. The taxes levied by the Sultan are paid by the poor in kind; by the rich in gold, or in male and female slaves. The ministers of religion, the learned and pilgrims, are exempt from taxation. A contribution for the maintenance of the poor is paid in the month of Ramadan, it is called Siccak (coin) by the Arabs, and *Ungumurekhi*, by the Bernáwa.

Inhabitants. The inhabitants are principally Mohammedans, and they circumcise both sexes. There are also Christians who are not slaves; they do not circumcise their chil-

dren, but they observe certain festivals, though they have no churches. There are no Jews, but many Negro and Abyssinian slaves. The latter are well drubbed, till they cry out *Lá iláh illalláh wa Mohámmad resú alláh!* and then they are considered as orthodox Musulmen. Several French slaves were possessed by the Sultan, some of whom were allowed to wear the European dress. They had been employed by him in the establishment of a cannon foundry; and we may suppose, in the management of his artillery, as Abdallah added, that he never trusted the use of cannons to any of his vassals and great men. This report of a cannon foundry at Berná, improbable as it may appear, was confirmed by the testimony of a native of Bagirmi, who described the process by which cannons are cast. It is however contradicted by Captain Lyon's informants. Gold and silver money is coined by the Sultan, and Spanish and Imperial dollars, together with Venetian sceddini are current; but not cauries, (*Cyprus moneta*), which are only used as ornaments for the women's dress. This account of the coin current in Berná, is also at variance with the information received by Captain Lyon, and is perhaps false. Several tribes of Bedwias, who speak Arabic, and are frequently in a state of rebellion, occupy different portions of this country. Their occupations and character, resemble those of their more eastern brethren. There are many Negro slaves from a southern and very hot country, called Banda. (The Feudah of Lyon, p. 148.) They have remarkably white and sharp teeth, for they file their front teeth to a point; they also bore holes in their lips, and stick pieces of ivory in them; gold ear and nose rings form the remainder of their decorations.

(See Leo Africanus; Marmol's *Africa*; the *Publications of the African Association*. Burckhardt's *Travels in Nubia*, and Vater's *Wörter Sammlung*, an Appendix to Adelung's *Mithridates*, vol. iv., in which there are vocabularies of the Bernáwa language. See also *Communications*, from which the greater part of this article has been drawn, in Von Zach's *Monatliche Correspondenz*, vol. xxii. p. 969. 338. Lyon's *Travels in Africa*, 123—130. 141. 152—161

BORNOU.
BOR-
ROUGH.

BORODINO, a village of Russia, situated near the banks of the river Moskva, and about ninety miles west of the city of Moscow, has been noted since the year 1812, for the destructive engagement which took place there between the French and Russians. In September of that year, the latter having collected their forces near this place, to the number of more than 100,000 men, determined to risk a general battle with their invaders. This commenced early in the morning of the 9th of that month, and was obstinately contested by both parties during the greater part of the day; in which the French pushed forward, regardless of loss, and carried several of the Russian batteries, which the latter made the most valiant but unsuccessful attempts to regain. They therefore retired from the contest towards Moscow, with the loss of about 30,000 men, but without being pursued. The intrepid Prince Bagration fell in this conflict. The loss of the French was not much if at all, less than that

of the Russians; and Marshals Murat, Ney, and Eugene Beauharnois, greatly distinguished themselves on this occasion.

BORONIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Octandria*, order *Monogynia*. Generic character: calyx four partite; petals four; anthers pedicellate, below the apex of the filaments; style from the apex of the germen, very short; stigma capitate; capsules four, coalescing; seeds arillate. The *B. pinnata*, the only species described in the *Hortus Kewensis*, is a native of New South Wales. Smith's *Tracts*, 390. tom. iv.; Andrews's *Repository*, 58.

BOROUGH, Goth. *beirgan*; A. S. *beorgan*, *birgan*, *byrgan*: to bar, to defend, to fortify.

A *Barg* or *Borough* meant formerly a fortified town. See Tooke, ii. 183. And Verstegan says, "all places that in old time had among our ancestors the name of *Bourroughs*, were places one way or other fenced or fortified." *Restitution of Decayed Intelligence*, ch. vii.

BO-
ROUGH.

Was she four hundred yer, and four score, & protesten
After yet þe derg of Rouse first was mad iche ween
R. Gloucester, p. 47.

Hit is aȝt senly forsoþ, to cȝte as in heroun
bet uncess of regnouris, for eny kynne gaffes
be franchised for a free man, and have fals come.

Piers Plouman, p. 43.

Wherefore by secret means they apoynted a daye of assemble
amonge theymyselfe, & soleyaly well arrayd entred y^e towne of
Brugis, and slawe therein dyvers of y^e celys seruantes, and some
of the borough ministers of the sayde towne, such as they suspected
to be of counceyll of the leuyngs of the sayde towne.

Felton. Card. F. p. 436. June, 1322.

The sayd thinge therefore built there a *borow*, by the which he
also erected a pallasce for hymselfe, making the *burgesses* there as
free as any other *burgesses* of y^e realm were.

Stow, Ann. 1107. Henry I.

Now the thing that terrified us, was the full moon shining
all night long, and the fat levelled and plaine fields not able to
afford us, if we had been distressed and got to our shiffo, any
borough to shelter us.

Holland. Antiquary, fol. 114.

The *borow*masters some told me, that he would go to Amster-
dam with his lading of stockfish, who gave me a barrel of strong
beere, and brought it in aboard our ship hymselfe.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Stephan Borough, v. l. fol. 295.

No office-clerks with busy face,
To make fools wonder as they pass,
Whisper dull nothings in his ear,
'Bout some rogue *borough*-manager there.

Copier. The Retreat of Amittapas, Epistle 1.

Besides the derivations given above, the pro-
foundly learned author of the *Institutes* observes,
that "of Boroughs, some be walled, and some not;"
and he says, that the word *Borow* signified a *pledge*,
and that the word was "taken, in former times, for
those companies of ten families, which were one
another's pledge." Whatever may have been the
primitive signification of the word "Borough," it
seems early to have been restricted to those towns
which sent Burgesses to Parliament; and in its yet
earlier usage, it may possibly be referred to a period
anterior to the distinctive institution of cities; whence
we read in the old authorities, that "every city is a
Borough, but every Borough is not a city." "It is
to wit," says Littleton, § 164, "that the ancient towns
called Boroughs, be the most ancient towns that be
within England; for the towns that now be cities or
counties, in old times were Boroughs, and called
Boroughs, for of such old towns called Boroughs,
came the Burgesses of the Parliament, &c. &c." And
Lord Coke, in commenting on this passage, says that
they were "ancient towns held of the King, or of
some other Lord, and sending Burgesses to the Par-
liament." This privilege, or, as to former days it
was considered, this costly duty, was, it is probable,
originally imposed on the largest and wealthiest towns,
or on those which had placed themselves under the
cleanship of some Baroo. (See Hume, vol. 1. Appen-
dix I. p. 205. 8vo edition.) The common termination
of many of our names of places, *bury*, (as Salisbury,
Tewkesbury, &c.) was of equivalent signification,
and marks those places as having, at some time,
enjoyed the privileges and rank of Boroughs. The
establishment of Corporations was considerably sub-
sequent in the period at which Boroughs were first
known in this country, as a distinct class of towns,
though prior to their sending Burgesses to Parliament;
being clearly later, though it may not be quite so
clear how much later than the Norman conquest. It

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appears, indeed, that the Conqueror himself gave a
charter to the City of London; (stat. Merton, 1235,
cap. 6.) but this, as is remarked by the historian
whom we have already cited, (Hume, vol. II. Appen-
dix II. p. 114, 8vo edition) "was not a letter patent,
creating a Corporation, but a letter of protection, and
a declaration that the citizens should not be treated as
slaves." The Parliament convened by the Earl of
Leicester, in the reign of Henry the Third, A. D. 1265,
was the first in which Representatives were summoned
from the Boroughs; the less democratical spirit of
former reign, having considered that order of men
as too mean to take part in the national councils.
(Rymer, I. 802.)

The number of Boroughs in England and Wales,
including cities and cinque ports, from which Repre-
sentatives are sent, is 315. Boroughs possess their
privileges although they may not be incorporated.

BOROUGHBRIDGE, a borough in the west riding
of the county of York, which returns two Members
to Parliament. It is situated on the river Ure. Here
in 1241, Edward II. defeated the Earl of Lancaster;
who having been taken prisoner, was beheaded at
Pontefract a few days after the battle. Population in
1821, 860. Distant 217 miles north from London,
17 north-west from York.

BOROUGH ENGLISH, a custom in certain manors
and boroughs, regulating the descent of lands, whereby
they are inherited by the youngest, instead of the
eldest son. The name, according to Glanville, (lib.
7. cap. 3. to 9. cited by Co. Litt. 110) was given, because
the custom originated in England. Like the custom
of "Gavelkind" it was of Saxon birth, but was re-
cognised and retained under the Anglo-Norman law.
It yet prevails in some manors, and is one of those
customs of which it is technically said "the law takes
notice,"—that is, when proof shall have been adduced
that certain lands are subject to the custom of Borough
English, the law will adjudge the right therein accord-
ingly, without calling on the youngest son to prove
what that custom is. It is said by some of the autho-
rities, that the reason of the custom was the greater
need of provision in which the youngest child would
stand at the death of his father, than his elder
brethren; and it may be considered as a remnant of
the pastoral state of our British and German ances-
tors. See 2 Black. Com. 83. From the same feeling
may be derived another rule of the custom of Borough
English, by which the widow took as dower the whole,
and not a third only of her husband's lands.

BORRACHIO, a word used by Dryden and Can-
greve, to express a drunkard. It is corrupted from
the Spanish *Borracho*, drunk, which is made from
Borracha, a leathern bottle.

BOTRELL, n. s. Mr. Tyrwhit derives it from the
Bo'raet, adj. of Fr. *botreus*, which Cotgrave says,
is a thick coarse cloth of a brown russet, or dark
mingled colour. It appears to have been also applied to
those who wore such coarse garments; also to laymen.

This is to say, if I be gay, sirs shewre,
I will none out, my borel for to shewre.
Sirs sile fool, what helpeth there to sile?

Chaucer. The Wif of Bathes, Prologue, v. 5930.

For, sirs and dame, trusteth me right wel,
Our orisons ben more effectel,
And more we seen of Cristes secree thinges,
Than borel folk, although that they be knyghtes.

Id. The Songman's Tale, v. 7451.

BO.
ROUGH.
BORREL

BORREL
—
**BORROW-
STOW-
NESS.**

Thus I which am a *borrell* clerk,
Purpose for to write a booke
After the pill and pole, because thy wred,
Longe time in oblie daies pasted.
Gower, Conf. Am. Prolegon, fol. l.

Had they themselves but light to see the ropes,
And snares of hell which for their feete are drest,
Because thy pill and pole, because thy wred,
Because they count more than *borrell* men.
Gaucygue. The Fruits of Warre.

BORROMEAN ISLANDS, the name of two small, but celebrated islands, situated in the Lago Maggiore. This lake lies near the south-east termination of the Alps, in Northern Italy, and is nearly fifty miles long, and five or six broad. It has long been noted for its picturesque beauty, and the two islands of Isola Bella and Isola Madre, occupy a part of its most western bay, and received their present appellation from the family of Borromeo, to whom they formerly belonged. These islands derive their celebrity entirely from the artificial decorations they have received, and which has rendered them the admiration of all visitors since the middle of the seventeenth century. Previously to that period, they were little more than barren rocks, but about that time, Vitalliano, Count Borromeo, Master General of the Ordinance to the King of Spain, ordered them to be covered with earth from the opposite banks of the lake, and to be converted into gardens. Isola Bella rises in ten successive terraces, to the height of 130 feet above the level of the water, each regularly decreasing in size, till the series ends at a platform, paved with marble, and surrounded with a balustrade. The whole is environed with gigantic statues of gods, goddesses, and other figures. The walls are covered with the most delicious fruit trees, and evergreens, some of which are natives of more southern climes. A handsome palace stands near the western extremity of this island, the base of which rests upon arches formed into grottoes, and washed by the waters of the lake. This palace is also enriched with the most costly ornaments, chiefly in marble and shell work. At the southern angles of the garden, there stands two round towers with lofty chambers, richly ornamented with similar materials, and encompassed with groves of orange trees, laurels, lofty cypresses, and odoriferous plants. Isola Madre is the larger island, and consists of seven terraces, which, from the base being broader, and higher above the water, do not appear so elevated as the former, though the summit is about the same height. Its palace, gardens, groves, and summer houses, do not remarkably differ from those of Isola Bella. From the size of the islands, all the decorations are necessarily upon a limited scale; but most of them have been considered as perfect models of their kind.

These islands, after passing from the family of Borromeo, came into the possession of the Emperor of Germany, and were afterwards granted, by the Empress Maria Theresa, to the King of Sardinia, for assistance she had received from him.

BORROWSTOWNNESS, a considerable seaport and Borough of a Barony of Scotland, situated on the south bank of the Forth, in the county of Linlithgow, and about eighteen miles west of Edinburgh. The town stands on a point of land projecting into the river, which is between three and four miles broad, and seems well adapted by nature for a harbour.

The town is old, and but indifferently built; but was for many years the seat of considerable trade. Early in the eighteenth century, the Custom house was transferred from Blackness to this place, where it still remains. After this it became the chief port in which the Glasgow merchants carried on their trade with the eastern part of the country; but since the opening of the canal, which connects the Forth and Clyde, a great part of this has been transferred to Grangemouth, where it enters the former river. The pier, basin and harbour, cover about two acres of ground, and are of easy access; the last is esteemed the best in the whole river, and at spring tides, the depth of water is from sixteen to eighteen feet. Soap and salt are made here in considerable quantities, and a few ships are annually fitted out for the Greenland whale-fishery. Coals, salt, and soap, are the chief exports; while grain, timber, hemp, flax, colonial produce, and some other articles, are imported. A manufacture of earthenware was also introduced in 1784. The trade of this town, and especially the whale-fishery, has increased since 1811; and the population of the whole parish, including the village of Kinnell, was at the last census, 3018. The collieries in its vicinity have been worked for centuries, and extend far under the river.

BORROW, *v.* A. S. *borrgan*; Dutch, *borghen*; Bo'kaow, *n.* Ger. *bergen*, to guard, to secure. See **BOACORN**. A borrow was formerly used for what we now call a security, any person or thing by which repayment is secured; and by which the lender is defended or guarded from the loss of his loan. Tooke, ii. 185. My faith to borrow; Saint John to borrow; Mr. Tyrwhit interprets,—my faith for a pledge; Saint John for a security.

To borrow, in mercantile concerns, is to take or receive the money, or other property of another, upon a promise or pledge, or security given to repay or return it.

To take or receive without such a pledge;—a gruff term for—to steal, to thieve.

And *borwede* of hym berppe an hundred housend marc,
To weode wif to þe holy lond, & þat was wonderl marc.
R. Gloucester, p. 323.

To bind him gode borrows, and muf condut al so.
Id. p. 497.

Nien xere, mis myn huke, lasted so grette sorrows,
þe bishop clerkes take, þar lyves for to borrows.
R. Brune, p. 76.

þow broughtest me borrows, my biddynge to fulfille
To lyve on me and lorge me, all þy lye tyme.
Piers Plouman, p. 16.

This Palamon answered, I grant it thes.
And thus they two departed til a morwe,
When echo of hem hath laid his faith to borow.
Chaucer, The Knights Tale, v. 1322.

Maugre this had thou must for indigence
Or stole, or begge, or borow thy dispence.
Id. The Man of Lawes Tale, v. 4224.

For which this marchant is to Paris gose
To borow of certain frendes that he had
A certain frankme, and oon with him he ladde.
Id. The Shipman's Tale, v. 13263.

But loketh, for non negligence or sloth,
Ye taria us here no longer than to morwe.
Nay, quod this clerk, have here my faith to borow.
Id. The Prioest's Tale, v. 11544.

BORROW.

Then was he for the time in loye
 Till that he shulde go to Troye;
 Bot she made morchell sorrowe
 And he his trooth leyd to sorrowe
 To come, and if that he live maie
 Againe, within a month daie.

Gower. Conf. Am. book iv. fol. 67.

That other (Prodigality) all his owne and more,
 Aye the wise manner live,
 Yreth and dispendeth here and there,
 So that hym retheth neuer where,
 While he maie borrowe, he will dispende,
 Tyll at last he milke, I weede.

Id. ib. book v. fol. 137.

For ye shall understande that at those dayes, by licence
 granted unto the Jewes of the hyage, they might take by varye of
 every man that of the Jewes wold borrowe money, it d for a li. for a
 weeks lendryng, & so of gretter & of smaller sūmes after that rate.

Folgan. Henry III. Anno, 1263.

And she (our lady) was borrowe, sayd Robyn,
 Betwene a knight and me,
 Of a lytell money that I hym lent,
 Under the grene wode tree;

•

The Monk swore a full grette othe,
 With a sory chere,
 Of the borrowe that thou speakest to me,
 Herde I never ere.

Ritson. A Lytell Geste of Robyn Hode.

Concerning merchandise, & chapmen, the lease borrowyng
 were among them, the better should the common wealth be.

Tyndale. Werkes, fol. 215.

And not onely lette them crye and consaynt out with them al
 the rown, but lest them also so great substance of theirs, that
 the Hebrewes as the Scripture saith in their going with that
 plentiful borrowyng, spoiled the Egyptianes.

See Thomas More. Werkes, fol. 1295.

So that trane thyngs make an hundred, and five made a letho
 or wapestake, of which tenne, each one was bound for another,
 and the eldest or best of them, whom they called the Tythingman
 or *Borsider*, that is, the eldest pledge, became surety for all the
 rest.

Spencer on Ireland.

And now she wishes she could borrow Egan's tongue as well as
 his garments, that she might securely deceive all the senses of
 him, which had suffered himself more dangerously deceived with
 his affection.

Hall. Cont. Of Jacob and Esau.

As for his pennygick oration, he was in penning it ten years,
 and by the report of some, fifteen, which he is thought to have
 translated and borrowed out of Gorgius the Leonine and Lysias.

Holland. Plutarch, fol. 736.

As I have seen some infants of the sword

Will knowe, and practis'd borrowers on their word,
 Give thanks by strength, and whispering to the eare,
 For what they straight would to the world forwarde.

Ben Jonson. Epistle to Sir E. Sacrville.

Fear not, ye gentle tribes, 'tis not the knife
 Of horrid slaughter that is o'er you war'd;
 No, 'tis the tender swale's well guided shears,
 Who having now, to pay his annual care,
 Borrow'd your fleece, to you a cumbersome load,
 Will send you bounding to your hills again.

Thomson. Summer.

There is a poorer creature in the world than this, and he is a
 borrower of snuff; a fellow that keeps no box of his own, but is
 always asking odds for a pinch.

Tatler, No. 35.

Besides, as the English and Norman languages were con-
 currently used by our ancestors for several centuries together, the
 two idioms have naturally assimilated, and mutually borrowed
 from each other.

Hicciotens. Conventories, lib. p. 315.

Upon hiring or borrowing, the hirer or borrower, at the same
 time that he acquires a property in the thing lent, may also
 become indebted to the lender, upon his contract to restore the
 money borrowed, to pay the price or premiums of the loan, the
 hire of the horse, or the like.

Id. ib. p. 464.

BORSORDER or BORSOD, a County of Hungary,
 lying on the west bank of the Theiss, and intersected
 by the forty-eighth parallel of latitude. It is bounded
 on the north by the Counties of Gomor and Torna,
 and includes an area of sixty-five German, or about
 1380 English square miles. The climate is excellent,
 and it is one of the most fertile districts in the King-
 dom, producing abundance of corn and wine. The
 forests are also valuable, and the rearing of cattle is
 prosecuted with such success, that thousands are
 annually exported. According to Professor Senno-
 witz's estimate in 1813, Borsorder contained twelve
 market towns, and 167 villages. The place in which
 the Comitatus assemble is Miskolc, a market town
 with a population of about 13,500 inhabitants. The
 people in the whole Comitatus amounted to 137,340.
 Besides being rich in vegetable products, it contains
 several iron forges and furnaces, and has a warm
 bath at Tapoltza.

BORYA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Diercis*,
 order *Diandria*. Generic character: *male flower*, calyx
 of four leaves; corolla none; stamina two or three;
female flower, calyx of four leaves, unequal; corolla
 none; stigma capitate; berry one-seeded.

This genus contains four species, natives of different
 parts of America. Michaux, *Flora Boreali-Americana*,
 Paris, 1803.

BOS, from the Greek *βοῦς*, an Ox, Ray, Lin., Illig.,
 Cuv. Ox, Pea. in Zoology, a genus of animals belong-
 ing to the family *Caricoria*, order *Ruminantia*, class
Mammalia. Generic character: horns bending out
 laterally, and forwards, upwards or downwards;
 muzzle large; no upper incisor nor any canine teeth;
 skin of the neck pendulous; limbs large and unweildy.

Amongst the variety of animals which have been
 provided by the bountiful hand of nature to supply the
 wants of man, there are none, perhaps, on which
 the necessities of life so much depend as on those
 which compose this genus. From them we are supplied
 with milk, butter, tallow, hides, and a variety of other
 articles too numerous to be detailed here. In the early
 ages of the world, they formed the greater part
 of patriarchal wealth, and they are still considered as
 the great staple commodity of many countries. This has
 led to great attention in the improvement of the breed
 in such species as have been domesticated; on which
 point nearly as much pains have been taken as in the
 breeding of Horses; the consequence of this is, that
 the farmer can now almost to a certainty, rear such
 breeds of cattle as are best suited to the soil on which
 they are to be grazed; and such as shall be more par-
 ticularly adapted for the dairy or the market, as he
 may think fit. If the animal be intended for the
 market, he will choose such as are barrel-chested, as
 they are called, because he knows that they will be
 fattened with little difficulty; whilst on the contrary,
 Cows intended for the dairy, will be required to be
 such as are flat-sided, or narrow-chested, which are
 fattened with difficulty, and therefore give more
 milk in consequence of the nonripenment taken by the
 animal not being so readily converted into fat. But
 the further consideration of this subject must be left
 to the Agriculturist, suffice it to say, that Oxen and
 Horses present, perhaps, the most beautiful example
 of the providence of nature in adapting the size of the
 animal to the fertility or barrenness of the soil on
 which it is destined to live, which may be well seen

BORSOR-
 DER.
 —
 BOS.

BOS.

in contrasting the cattle of Devonshire and the southern counties, where pasture is plentiful, with the little stunted animals which graze on the sterile hills of Scotland.

The animals which form this genus live in herds; the female generally goes with young between nine and twelve months, and after she has calved, hides her offspring in some unfrequented spot, to which she repairs two or three times a day to suckle it; should it accidentally be discovered, the cries of the young animal soon bring the herd, which quickly oblige the intruder to retire.

It may be noticed here, that the Ox tribe have been frequently the subject of idolatrous worship; the calves of the Israelites are a well-known example, which they are believed to have borrowed from the Egyptians, who worshipped the God Apis under the figure of an Ox. The Hindoos also hold it in great veneration, and from religious motives will not destroy it.

B. Taurus, Lin.; *le Bœuf Ordinaire*, Buff.; the *Bull*, Pen. From this species it is believed, that our domestic animals are derived, and that the trivial points in which they differ, are depending upon accident, or the state in which they live: their specific character consists in having the forehead longer than its breadth, and the horns placed at the extremities of a prominent line, which divides the forehead from the occiput; they are also provided with a dewlap, which is a very loose and pendulous portion of the skin of the neck. These animals are found in all parts of the world, under very trifling differences, depending upon local circumstances.

The wild species are to be found in small numbers in Poland, the Carpathian Mountains, Lithuania and about Mount Caucasus.

The tame species, from which all the improved breeds have originally been formed, are natives of Poland and Holstein, and are the finest and largest. The smallest cattle are to be found in Scotland, and very frequently both males and females have no horns. There were formerly in the woods of Drumlennig, Dumfriesshire, North Britain, some very remarkable wild cattle, perfectly white except the muzzle and ears, which were black; they were shot by order of the Duke of Queensberry, to whom they belonged, and sold in Dumfries market for beef! Some of the same breed, however, still remain in Lord Tankerville's park at Chillingham, in Northumberland; they are very shy, swift, and savage. These animals bear the name of *Biontes Jubati*, from a story told of them by an old Scottish writer, who described them as having "manes like Lions;" this, however, is not now the case, and it is a great doubt whether they ever had them, though Pennant says, he cannot but give credit to it.

The history of the varieties of the domestic cattle belongs to the Agriculturist, and to the article on *AGRICULTURE*, the reader must be referred for information, as to which animal is best suited for the purpose for which it may be required.

B. Uru, Gmel.; *Illic*; *Zuli* of the Poles; *B. Asiaticus*, Gmel.; *B. Bison*, Lin.; the *Bison*. This animal is considered the largest quadruped next to the Rhinoceros, and is very wild. It is distinguished by a prominent and very broad forehead; the horns are attached below the occipital crest; the head and neck

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of the male are covered with a kind of woolly hair, which is very long under the throat; and it has a pair of ribs more than the other species. This animal is found in Asia and Europe.

It is very probable that the animal exhibited in London within the last three years, under the name of *Bonassus*, belonged to this species; it was of a dark brown colour, the head, neck, throat, and the chest about half way down, were covered with the same kind of long woolly hair; the belly, back, and hind quarters of the animal appeared as if shorn, in consequence of the hair on those parts being short as in other oxen; the horns were short and thick; the animal was very savage, and was said to be brought from America. Cuvier has made two species of them, calling the latter *le Bison d'Amérique*, but he confesses, that the two animals have not been sufficiently compared.

These animals are remarkably swift, so as easily to escape from the Indians. They are hunted in various parts of America in different modes. In Canada the hunters light up the dry grass round a considerable extent of land, and as it consumes, close in their ranks till the frightened animals are easily destroyed. In Louisiana they get as close to the animal as possible, by riding against the wind, and then ham-stringing him; whilst in South America he is fairly hunted down.

They defend themselves against the attack of ravenous animals by placing the weakest in the middle, and forming a large circle, present a strong array of horns against their enemy.

B. Bubalus, Lin.; *Cuv.*; *le Buffle*, Buff.; *Buffalo*, Pen. This animal very much resembles the common Ox; it is however distinguished from it by having the head smaller and ears larger; the horns very large, straight some way from their base and bending outwards, compressed, and having a sharp edge in front; the limbs are very long, and there is no dewlap to the neck; their skin is generally brown, and the fur very short; eyes white. They are found wild in India and Africa, more particularly near the Cape of Good Hope, where they are said to be very vicious and treacherous animals: they are fond of marshy districts, wallowing in the mud, and they swim well. The French naturalists do not believe that they were known to the ancients, but Pennant considers them to be the same animals described by Aristotle under the name *βίον ὄνος*. They are very common in Italy, and are said to have been introduced into that country in the sixth century; they are used there, as well as in Africa and India, both for the dairy and for labour; their flesh is very coarse, but the hide is exceedingly strong and tough, so as not to be penetrated by a common bullet. It is a very curious circumstance that the Cow refuses to breed with the Buffalo, though their general form is so similar, whilst she is not averse to the Bison, which differs in many points. The Abyssinian Buffaloes are much larger than those of the Cape, and from the skin being very naked, have some similarity in appearance to the Elephant, whence they have got the name of *Tour-Elephant*.

Pennant mentions three varieties of the Buffalo, the *B. Kemundus* or *Naked Buffalo*, the *B. Anoa*, and the *B. Gavaera*. The principal difference of which seems to consist in size. The *B. Anoa* of Keir also seems to belong to this species, but the account given of it is very loose.

B. Grunniens, Pall., Lin.; *le Vache de Tartarie*,

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—
BOS-
CAWEN'S
ISLAND.

Buff; *Grunting Ox*, Peo. About the size of a small Cow; the horns, or the authority of Mr. Bogle, (see *Philosophical Transactions*, vol. 68.) are short, slender, rounded, upright and bending, with very sharp points; a long silvery mane extends from the head nearly to the tail, and the hair is generally very long so as to conceal nearly half the legs; the tail is remarkable for its length and breadth, being sometimes six feet long, of a silky texture and silvery colour; the head and body black. They are natives of Thibet and Tartary, and are domesticated. Their voice is very remarkable, bearing a great similarity to the grunting of a hog, whence they have derived their specific name. The tail is used in Turkey for standards; it is employed also to ornament the ears of Elephants, and the Chinese wear it, when dyed red, to adorn their bonnets.

B. Moschatus, Gmel.; *Musk Ox*, Pen. The horns of this animal are set very close together at their base, where they are so much expanded as nearly to cover the whole forehead; they then bend downwards and inwards, and turn again upwards and outwards at their points which are very sharp. Pennant says that the horns of the female are nine inches distant from each other, and placed exactly on the sides of the head, and not by any means so long as those of the Ox; they are short-legged, and the tail remarkably short; the animal is covered with very long hairs of a very dark brown or black colour, but beneath them the body is very generally covered with fine wool. The animal gives out a musky odour, but its flesh is very good. It is found in the northern parts of America, and said only to be met with between lat. 66° and 73° north. The Esquimaux make use of its skin for blankets, and fasten the top of their bonnets, to defend their faces from the Mosquitoes.

B. Caffer, Sparrman; *Cape Ox*, Peo. This animal is much larger than the English Ox; it has the horns very large at their base, flattened, and so near each other as only to leave a small triangular space of the forehead uncovered; the horns then bend downwards and outwards, remount outwards and terminate in a point; the throat and dewlap are covered with long black hairs, and a long mane of the same kind extends from between the horns along a great part of the back; the body is covered with short black hairs; the root of the tail is almost naked, but the remainder full of long black hair. They are found in Guinea, and in the interior of Africa north of the Cape of Good Hope; they are remarkably savage animals and lurk in the woods, whence they sallies on either man or beast which may be so unwary as to approach them, trampling them to death, and tearing the body to pieces with their horns and teeth. Their skin is very tough and in great request for making harness.

See Linnæi *Systema Naturæ*; Cuvier *Règne Animal*; Shaw's *General Zoology*; Pennant's *History of Quadrupeds*.

BOSCAWEN'S ISLAND, the name of an island in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by Le Maire and Schouten in 1616. It is about three miles in diameter, of a high conical form, and both fertile and populous. The native name is Kootah, but its first discoverers called it Cocoa Island, from the quantity and superiority of that fruit. Captain Wallis fell in with it again on the 13th of August 1767, and gave it its present name. La Perouse was also there in 1787. Its latitude is 15° 55' S. and longitude 173° 48' W.

BOSCIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Tetrandria*, order *Trigynia*. Generic character: calyx four-entate; corolla of four petals; capsule four-locular.

This genus contains one species, a native of the Cape of Good Hope. Thunberg's *Prodröm*, 32.

BOSCO, or *Boasco*, a small town of Piedmont, in the district of Alessandria, situated in the midst of a wood, between the rivers Bormida and Orba. It is noted as the birth place of Pope Pius V. who was born there towards the close of the fifteenth century. The French were driven from this town by the Austrians on the 4th of November 1799. The population is less than 3000, and it stands about five miles south-east of Alessandria.

BOSOM, *v.*

BOSOM, *v.*

BOSOM-FRIEND,

BOSOM-PARTNER,

BOSOM-INTERTEST,

BOSOM-LOVER,

BOSOM-RECAPT,

BOSOM-VICE,

BOSOM-COHEAT,

BOSOM-SLAVE,

BOSOM-HARBOR.

A. S. bosne; Dutch, boesem; Ger. busen.

Julius; from bos, bosca, I feed, I nourish. Skinner; from the Fr. poser, for reposer, to rest, to lean upon; because infants rest and repose upon the bosom. Wichter.

Those, whose ears are accustomed to the change of letters, will easily understand that *bosm* may arise from *ferm*, and this *ferm*, from *fassen*, *fatten*, to seize, to embrace. In this uncertainty a new attempt to trace the word may be allowed.

In *A. S.* we have *bug-ma*, to bow; *bugsum*, *bulsum*. Hence perhaps *bosm*.

In *Dutch*, *booghen*, to bow; *boogzen*. Hence perhaps *bosm*.

In *Ger. beugen*, to bow; *beug-nam*. And hence perhaps *bosm*.

In confirmation—it may be remarked, that the Latin *sinus* and the Greek *σινος*, are the *bosom*, and also a bay or bow.

Bosom then may be so called from its form or shape; bowing, bending, curving, arching. It is also applied to that within or beneath the *bosom*; as the heart,—the feelings or passions, the affections, the desires of the heart. To *bosom*; to store, to treasure up in the *bosom*, to sent or fix deeply.

The *bosom* of the deep; the bending surface of the deep. A *bosom friend*; a friend of our affections; a friend affectionately beloved. And so of the other compounds.

*O servant traitor, false of holy bow,
Like to the nether in bosom all's entrewe,
God shelds us all from your acquaintance!*
Chaucer. The Merchantes Tale, v. 3659.

No man sh'ld euer God, so bit the oon begotten son; that is in the bosom of the fadir, he hath teild out.

Wiclif. John, ch. i.

No man hath sene God at any time. The onely begotten sonne whiche is in the bosome of the father, he hath declared him.

Bible, 1551.

*My fits are lyke the frewe ettelick fits,
Which one daye shakes within and burnes without,
The next day beate within the bosomes stils,
And shivering coole the bodye once about.*
Geoffrey. The Paston of a Lant.

Thou wilt the wyllie brule, that night is bent
To fowle suspect and vper of fell distrust,
Parwade that here something of him was ment,
And jealous coales unto his bosome thrust.

Turberville. To the Ruyling Rente, &c.

BOSCIA.
—
BOSOM.

BOSOM.
BOSEA.

RSC. I am doubtful, that you have been conjunct
And bosom'd with her, as far as we will bear.
Shakespeare. Lear, act v. sc. 1.

——— Bosom up my counsel,
You'll find it wholesome.
Id. King Henry VIII. fol. 206.

——— If you can pace your wisdom
In that good path that I would wish it go,
And you shall have your bosom to this wretch,
Grace of the Duke, reumes to your heart
And general house.
Id. Measure for Measure, fol. 78.

BRAN. I shall, in best of love,
Regard the bosom-partner of my lord.
Ford. Love's Sacrifice, act I. sc. 1.

Now with your swords their traitors bosoms lance,
And with their blood wash out that ancient stain,
And make our earth drunk with the English gore,
Which both of ours oft sacrificed before.
Id. Merchant of Venice, fol. 176.

KING. No more that Thane of Cawdor shall deceive
Our bosom-entrust: I give pronounce his present death,
And with his former title greet Macbeth.
Shakespeare. Macbeth, fol. 132.

There must be some like proportion
Of instruments, of manners, and of spirit;
Which makes me think that this Anthony
Being the bosom-lover of my lord,
Must needs be like my lord.
Id. Merchant of Venice, fol. 176.

The fourth privilege of friendship is that which is here specified
in the text, a communication of secrets. A bosom-secret and a bosom-friend are usually put together.

South. Sermons, v. li. p. 63.

As long as they do what they have no great temptation to alter
them in doing; or omit that sin to which they are under no
strong bias; they foolishly imagine that inclination and bias to
another sin will be excuse enough for their daring, and bosom-
sies.
Headly. Of Acceptance. Sermon 7.

I do not think my sister so to seek,
Or so unprincipled in virtue's book,
And the sweet grace that goodness bosoms ever,
As that the single want of light and noise
Could stir the constant wood of her calm thoughts.
Milton. Comus, l. 368.

And such a gift, a reversion to design'd
As suits the council of a god to find;
A pleasing bosom-cherish, a specimen ill,
Which felt the curse, yet cures still to feel.
Parrell. The Rise of Women.

Let eastern tyrants, from the light of heaven
Recluse their bosom-slaves, meanly possess'd
Of a mere, lifeless, violated form.
Thomson. Spring.

Fain would I sing (much yet our song remains)
What sweet delicious o'er his bosom stole,
When the great shepherd of the Maccus plains
His deep majestic melody 'gan roll.
Beattie. The Minstrel, book ii.

There is a certain pleasure in giving vent to one's grief; especially
when we pour out our sorrow in the bosom of a friend, who
will approve, or, at least, pardon our tears.

McLach. Play. Letter 16, book viii.

Are there (still more amazing!) who resist
The rising thought? who smother, in its birth,
The glorious truth? who struggle to be brutes?
Who through this bosom-barrier burst their way,
And, with reverend ambition, strive to sink?
Young. The Complaint, Night 5.

BOSEA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Pentandria*, order *Digynia*. Generic character: calyx of five leaves; corolla none; berry one-seeded.

The only species of this genus is the *B. Yarrowora*, or Golden-rod Tree, a native of the Canary Islands.

BOSKE, written by R. Brunne and Chaucer, *boske*. BOSKE.
See BUCK.

The comel which shall come this way to win the elide, must
come marching over land a good way upon a sandie bank or bay,
where the sea lyeth on the one side, and a groun or bank of wood
on the other side.
Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. The state of the West India, lib. fol. 550.

In the dawning of the next day, we might plainly discern that
it was a head flat to our sight, and full of bosage, which made it
show the more dark.
Bacon. New Atlantis, fol. 1.

CEA. Hail, many-coloured messenger
Who with each rod and thy black bowe do't crowne
My loske acres, and my wushub'd downe,
Rich scarp to my proud earth.
Shakespeare. Tempest, fol. 14.

KING. How bloodily the sunne begins to peere
Above yon dusky hill! the day looks pale
At his distemperance.
Id. King Henry IV. First Part, fol. 69.

CON. I know each lane, and every alley green,
Diole or bushy dell of this wild wood,
And every dusky bourse from side to side,
My daily walks and ancient neighbourhood.
Milton. Comus, l. 313.

BOSS, v. "Boss, Fr. from *puss*, which is formed
Boss, n. { from *pōss*, *quies*, *inflo*—*pōss*, *puss*,
Bossed, { *bassa*, *bussa*, *bosse*. From *puss*, the Latins
Bossy. { formed *pussula*, *pustula* (a *pustula*). Thus
Menage. Kilian has *bosse*, *bokeler*, *unio*. Wachter ex-
plains *bossula*, *globus et conis luteri*; but adds that the
proper meaning is *trudere, impellere, propulsare*. Skinner
varies little from Menage; and adds that *boss* is *res*
quæ extumescens; any thing rising up. A boss is
Any thing rising or raised up, swollen, projecting,
thrusting or pushing forth.

Mr. Gifford, in a note on B. Jonson's *Time Finedicate*,
observes that "boss (The boss of Billingsgate) is an head
or reservoir of water. It frequently occurs in Stowe.
"The bosses of water at Belinague, by Powles Wharfe,
and by St. Giles without Cripplegate, were made in the
year 1423." *Survey of London.*

A broche she bare upon hire low coliers,
As brode as is the base of a boke-herre.
Chaucer. The Miller's Tale, v. 3265.

Fyne this tua serpente hastily glade away.
Unto the cheif templed hill at they
Of stern Pallas, to the halloft place
Aud cray in vnder the keit of the golden,
Hid thaim behind the base of hir harkere.
G. Douglas. Aschard, book ii. fol. 46.

The serpente traine, with hasted traile they glide
To Pallas temple, and her towers of height:
Under the freck of which the golden sterr,
Hidde behind her tergites hose they creep.
Surrey. Sonnet.

Once that was a work of purple velvet, embroidered richly
with goldes, cutte in knottes or fildes fastened, so that it seemed
out and frowned very stately to behold.

Hall. King Henry VIII.

Which importeth as much, as if the night were anything else, but
when the sunne hideth itselfe behind some mountaine or other,
or els, that albeit the earth toward the middest was globose and
beared, yet was it toward the poles flat and plain.

Scaliger. Taurus, fol. 205.

The arched front did on vane pillars fall;
Where all harmonious instruments they spie
Drawn out in bowe; which from the straggall
To the fat friar, in apt resemblance lie.
De Witt. Ovident, book ii. can. 6.

BOSS.

The other piece he gave to one William Wright a sailor, for an odd knife: which pieces of silver were in forms like unto the base of a bridge.

BOSTON.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Christop. Newport, v. III. fol. 569.

Of, at with shining shure be ploughs the field,
The swain satonish'd finds the mussy shield,
On whose broad iron, and source of various woes,
His views engrav'd the long-disputed roas.

Fowke. Brazenham Park.

There they form'd
Their ardent virtues: in the busy piles,
The proud triumphal arches: all their wars,
Their conquests, honour, in the sculptures live.

Dryden. Ruins of Rome.

In technical language, Boss among Bricklayers is the vessel used to carry mortar used for tiling. It is hung by an iron hook on the laths or the ladder. Bosses are also a term used in Architecture for a projecting stone which is intended to be carved. It is used also for rustic work which projects beyond the plain frontage.

BOSSIEA, in Botany, a genus of plants, class *Dialypetalis*, order *Decandria*. Generic character: calyx bilabiate; superior lip, larger, semi-bilobed, obtuse; stamina all connected; legume plane compressed, pedicellate, many-seeded, thickened at both margins; seeds strophiliate.

A New Holland genus, of which seven species are described in the *Hortus Kewensis*, 2d edition; Smith in *Transactions of the Linnæan Society*, 9; *Botanical Magazine*, 463, 1144.

BOSSINEY, or **TRIVENNA**, a Borough town in the county of Cornwall, in the parish of Tintagell. The whole parish of Tintagell, in 1831, contained 877 inhabitants. The Borough consists only of a few miserable cottages. It returns two members to Parliament. Near it are the remains of Tindagel castle (Tintagel a high fortified hill) which tradition assigns as the birth-place and residence of King Arthur. It stands partly on the main land, partly on a bold slaty promontory, separated by a chasm, over which a drawbridge was formerly thrown. Beneath it is a cavern through which at high water boats once could sail. The castle was formerly the seat of the Dukes of Cornwall; it was decayed in the time of Leland, but a stipend for keeping it was allowed by the crown until Lord Burleigh abolished it as an unnecessary expenditure.

BOSTON, a Borough and market town in Lincolnshire, incorporated as early as the fifth year of King John's reign. It returns two members to Parliament. The town stands on both banks of the river Witham, about five miles from its mouth. The fens in its vicinity have been largely reclaimed, and now produce very valuable crops of oats. The fishery in the neighbouring sea is extensive, and the London markets are plentifully supplied from it with the best shrimps. The church is a Vicarage in the gift of the Corporation, and is a celebrated specimen of Gothic architecture. Stukeley mentions it as the largest parish church in the kingdom without transcripts. It is 300 feet in length and 100 in breadth. The tower, which is remarkably beautiful, is 286 feet in height, including an octagonal lantern which surmounts it. Boston is the birth place of John Fox, the compiler of the *Book of Martyrs*. He was fellow of Magdalen College Oxford, and tutor in the family of the Duke of Norfolk. To save him from Gardiner's persecution, the Duke sent him to Germany, whence he returned on the accession of Edward VI. When Mary came to the crown, he again fled to

Basil, where he first published the Latin edition of his work. At last, in the reign of Elizabeth, he once more fixed in England, and obtained considerable preferment through the Duke of Norfolk's interest. Population of Boston, in 1831, 10,375. Distant from London 119 miles north, from Lincoln 36 miles south-east.

BOSTON, a seaport of America, the Capital of the State of Massachusetts, and the largest town in New England. It is pleasantly situated at the bottom of Massachusetts Bay, on a peninsula of an irregular figure, about two miles long and little more than one broad, at its widest part. The harbour is one of the best in the United States, and is accessible at all seasons, with sufficient depth of water for the largest vessels, 500 of which may anchor at once, though scarcely two ships can enter abreast. This entrance is defended by two strong forts, situated upon two islands. The harbour contains about forty islets, fifteen of which afford good pasture, and are frequented in summer by parties of pleasure. Boston is irregularly built round the harbour; the streets in the old part are often narrow and crooked, and the houses destitute of symmetry; but in the late additions they are spacious, and straight and elegant. The whole appearance of the town is extremely picturesque when approached by sea. It contains a great number of public buildings among which are twenty-six churches, many of them handsome edifices. The Custom house, the Concert hall, and the Merchants hall, are likewise good buildings. The new Store-houses which have been lately erected near Central wharf, are scarcely excelled in elegance, extent and convenience by any other erection of the kind in the commercial world. The Exchange is also a superb structure, 127 feet long, seven stories high, and containing 202 rooms. The new Court house lately built of granite, likewise deserves notice, and the State house which stands on an eminence about 100 feet above the level of the harbour, is a noble edifice. The extent of the front is 173 feet, and over the centre rises a spacious dome terminated by a circular lantern 100 feet above the foundation. The prospect from this is magnificent, surpassing every thing else in the country. From this place the town, buildings, harbour, islands, shipping, a fine country interspersed with villas, and about twenty flourishing towns, are all within the range of vision. The bridges are also good structures of their kind, and are of great utility. Boston has long been considered as the grand emporium of the New England states, and is extensively engaged in commercial transactions. A few years ago the shipping belonging to the place amounted to more than 145,000 tons, which was a greater burden than belonged to any other port of the Union except New York. The adjacent country is fertile and populous, and is connected with the Capital by fine roads, while the Middlesex canal opens a water-communication with the interior of New Hampshire.

Boston is well supplied with schools, and contains several extensive libraries, with numerous literary, humane, and benevolent societies. In 1800, Boston included a population of 24,937 individuals; in 1810 they amounted to 33,350; and in 1820, to more than 45,000. Statements which incontrovertibly prove the rapid prosperity of the place. It is about 210 miles north-east of New York, and 300 nearly in the same direction from Philadelphia. Boston is distinguished in the history of the United States as the birth place

BOSTON.

BOSTON. of Dr. Benjamin Franklin. Latitude $42^{\circ} 35' N.$ and longitude $70^{\circ} 59' W.$

BOSTRICHUS, in Zoology, a genus of insects, of the order *Coleoptera*, family *Bostrichini*, Latr. In the *Rhine Animal*, as well as the *Gen. Crust. et Insect.* Latreille arranged this genus in the family *Xylophagi*, but he has subsequently removed it to form with others the present family, which originally constituted only a subordinate division.

Antennae shorter than the thorax, the club generally perfoliate or serrated; mandibula short, horny, acute. Palpi not exerted; head partly concealed by the thorax; body elongate, subcylindrical; thorax convex or semi-globose. The type of the genus is *Dermestes cupreus*, Linn. The larva generally feed on dead wood, though some of them attack living trees, and make considerable havoc in large forests.

BOSWORTH, MARKET, a market town in the county of Leicester, memorable for the great battle which was fought in a large open place anciently called Redmore, about three miles south-east of the town, between the Earl of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII. and Richard III. in August 1485. The church is a rectory in the gift of the Crown. Population of the town, 1681, 1117. Distant 100 miles north-west from London, 11 miles west from Leicester.

BOTANY, } Gr. *botany*, a herb, herbage; that
 BOTANIST, } which is fed upon;—from *bow*, I
 BOTANICAL, } feed.
 BOTANICK.

There were then some counterfeit writings obtained also under this title; such as that ancient *botanick* book mentioned by Gelen. *Cudworth. Intel. Syst. fol. 326.*

Then spring the living herbs, profusely wild,
 O'er all the deep-green earth, beyond the power
 Of *botanists* to number up their tribes.

Thomson. *Spring.*

Where, with bright marbles big and future pomp,
 Hyacinths spread, amid the scented sky,
 His thymy treasures to the labouring bee,
 And to *botanick* hand the stores of health.

Id. *Liberty*, part ii.

Through *botany*, through every sylvan scene
 That various deck the vegetating plain
 Distinct, each species of peculiar frame,
 Distinct, peculiar lore and fondness claim.
Brocchi. Universal Beauty, book iii.

Thus *botanists*, with eyes acute
 To see prolific dust minute,
 Tug at their leav'd northern Brahmins
 To cuss by pistol and by stamen,
 Produce from nature's rich dominion
 Flow'rs polyandrous, monogynous,
 Where embryo blossoms, fruits, and leaves
 Twenty prepare, and one receives.

James. *The Enchanted Fruit.*

BOTANY ISLAND, a small island in the South Pacific Ocean, situated about the 23d degree of south latitude and the 169th of east longitude. It is a flat sandy island, covered chiefly with pines; among which, however, are the etoa tree of Otaheite, and several other species of vegetables. Many of these pines attain a size sufficient for the masts of vessels, being 20 inches in diameter and from 60 to 90 or 100 feet in height. The flat-tailed water-snake is found to be numerous; fish of a poisonous nature are caught off the coasts, and some birds of an unknown kind are seen inhabiting its woods, or flying along its shores.

BOTARGO, or as it is called in Provence, *Bou-*

argues, a sausage made on the shores of the Mediterranean and of the Black Sea, from the roe of the mullet dried and salted. The best are brought from Tunis and Alexandria. It is eaten with olive oil and lemon juice.

BOTCH, v. } Janus thinks that the Dutch
 BOTCH, n. } *botchen*, to bodge or botche is the
 BOTCHER, } frequentative of *boten*, (see *Boor*)
 BOTCHY, } to amend, to repair. *Botch*, the
 BOTCHERLY, } noun, he and Skinner suppose to be
 from the French *basse*; *It. botza*; but there appears to be no reason for assigning a different origin to these words. As now used.

To *botch* is to amend or repair, in patches, in clumsy pieces; to patch together clumsily, unsuitably; with pieces of a different quality or colour. And thus the noun may be applied to discoloured, disfiguring spots, tumours or eruptions.

It was now the Sabbath days: and the people religiously and with great devotion rested from the works forbidden, which yet of themselves were not evil, as for example to go a journey, to kindle a fire, to grudge their corn, to praise their wives, or to *botch* up their garments being broken or rent.

Udall. *Lake*, ch. iv.

The Lord shall smite the with a myriarchon *botch* in the knees and legs, so that thou canst not be healed; corn from the sole of the foot unto the top of the head.

Bible, 1651. *Deut. ch. xxviii.*

I, neighbour, quoth the taylor (then he heas his pare to me, spruce like a Jacke of Leas)
 Your judgment is not seane-rent when you spend it,
 Nor is it *botching*, for I cannot mend it.

Brooke. *Britannic's Pastoral*, book i. Song 4.

Nor ought nature or the world to be supposed so imperfect, as if it could be bungled and *botched* up every where after this manner. *Cudworth. Intellectual System*, fol. 67v.

As Aaron grasping ashes in his hand,
 Which sorely cast into the open air,
 But brings a scurain over all the land,
 With scabs and *botches* such as never were.
Dragon. Moses's Birth and Miracles, book ii.

And this conceit they feed with food suppleas that have not the least footing in Scripture: As that the Jews learnt this custom of divorce in Egypt, and therefore God would not stretch it them till Christ come, but let it stick as a notorious *botch* of deformity in the midst of his most perfect and severe law.

Bliss. *Tetrachordon*.

Also the common experience teacheth, that no man wyl put his scorne to a *botcher* to kerne, or he hynde hym prentise to a tailor.

Sir Thos. Egmont. *Governour*, fol. 28.

These. And those byles did runne, say so; did not the General run, were not that a *botchy* core.

Shakespeare. *Titus and Andronicus*, fol. 84.

Thus patch they heaven more *botch'dly* thro old cloths.
 This prettie sport doth make my heart to tickle
 With laughter, and mine eyes with merry tears to trickle.
More. Psychasticon, book iii. ch. ii. st. 67.

I see, I see, 'tis counsel given in vain,
 For treason *botch* in rhyme will be thy bane.

Dryden. *Amleus and Aethelph*, part ii.

And nodes and *botches* in their ribs,
 Have no effect to operate
 Upoo that dollar block, your pate?

Better. *Hediras to Siderophil*.

Why may we not inquire what is the most perfect of all, though the common *botched* and inaccrate governments seem to serve the purposes of society, and though it be not so easy to establish a new system of government, as to build a vessel upon a new construction?

BOTH, adj. } Goth. *ba, bai*; A. S. *ba, bæta*; Ger.
 Born, conv. } and Dutch, *beyde*; Swed. *både*. R.
 Gloesteer writes *beye* as well as *bothe*. The origin of

BOTARGO

BOTH.

BOTIL this word is unknown. Ihe thinks it is compounded of two synonymous words, *bu*, two, and *two*, two. See Ihe in V. *bide*.

BOTHER.

Chaucer uses the expression "your bother love," which Mr. Tyrwhit observes might lead one to suspect that *botler* was the genitive of *both*, an *aller of alle*. The ass between "botler bundle of hay," i. e. between two bundles of hay,—is said to have been *botthered* indeed. But see *BOTHER*.

After his brother Caubert hateliche he made,
And heþe with gret oot to ward the kyng wende.
R. Gloucester, p. 23.

Now hadde kyng Lail, ys broþer, yonge sonys twel,
Androge and Tennant, þat þe jo gonge were þeys.
Id. p. 47.

When he had his wedded, he went also quik,
& oute of alle þe londes he hast ys arle Eirik,
Of alle þat treuement, þat heþe þe brethren ware
þat louged to Sigiford, & to Sir Markere.
R. Branne, p. 46.

And sith y^e Gode of loue hath the bestowde
In place dysse unto the worthinesse
Stand fast, for to good port hast thou rowed
And of thyself, for say leuynesse
Hope alway well, for þat if derinesse
Or ouer hast our soth labour shend
I hope of this to make a good end.
Chaucer. *Troilus*, book ii. fol. 457.

And ye shul beþer anon onto me swere,
That neuer use ye shul my contree dere,
Ne maken wevour upon nyght ne day,
But ben my frendes til that ye maye.
Id. *The Knight's Tale*, v. 1823.

Loue him made all prest to done her bide
And rather dien, than she should go
But Remous said him on that other side
Withouten assent of her, do nat so
List for thy werke she woulde be thy foe
And sein, that through thy meddling in yelow
Your botler lone, ther it was ent know.
Id. *Troilus*, book iii. fol. 177.

The king said, for your botler case,
In his land I wil his see,
And sho wil hold his land of the.
Reynolds and Gower, in *Ritson*. *Rom.* v. i. p. 158.

My Lords (good I) this lady here,
Whome I esteeme above the rest,
Doth knowe any gylte if any were;
Wherefore his dymme shall please me best
Let her bee judge and jurour botler,
To trye mee guilden by myne outler.
Gaucogne. *The Arraignment of a Louer*.

BOTHER, a word common in vulgar speech, but rare in writing. Perhaps the name as *pother*. Locke uses *pother* (q. v.) exactly as Swift uses *botler*. And in the two quotations from Swift which follow, it matters not which way the words are written. But see *BORN*.
To *pother* is to make a *pudder* or rather a *puther*; q. d. a *punder*; to raise a dust, as a horse running with speed. Skinner. Consequently,
To be or *skane* to be as one involved in dust, in a cloud,—who cannot see his way; to perplex, to puzzle, to confound.

With ev'ry lady in the land
Soft Strephon kept a *pother*;
One year he languished for one hand,
And next year for another.
Swift. *Strephon and Flavia*.

With the die of which tube my brain you so *botler*,
That I scarce can distinguish my right ear from *botler*.
Id. *Id.*

VOL. XVIII.

BOTHNIA, an extensive Province in the north of BOTHNIA. Europe, which formed part of the ancient Scandinavia, and lies on both sides of the Gulf of that name, by which it is divided into East and West Bothnia. It was formerly in the possession of Sweden, but the eastern part was lately conquered by Russia, and resigned to that power by the peace of Fredericksham in 1809. This part lies between the Gulf and the range of mountains which separates it from the Governments of Archangel and Olonetz on the east, and is bounded by Finland on the south, and Lapland on the north. Its extreme length is about 300 miles, its breadth varies from 60 to more than 300. The population is very scanty in proportion to its extent; being only estimated at 70,000. The Province forms part of the Russian government of Finland, and though situated so far north, a considerable portion of the soil is fertile, and affords good pasture, except near the western shore, where it is frequently low and marshy. In favourable seasons the progress of vegetation is rapid, but at other times it is often much injured by frost. The rivers and lakes abound with salmon, and the hilly parts of the country towards the east afford timber and several mineral substances. Most of the inhabitants are Finns, with a few Swedes near the coasts, and Lapps towards the northern extremity. Their chief occupation is in hunting, fishing, attending their cattle, cutting timber, and carrying on a little commerce. They generally use the Finnish dialect. East Bothnia contains a few small towns, which are most of them situated near the coast; and the principal of which are Uleå, Cafana, Brahestad, Carlehy, Jacobstad, Manna, and Wasa.

West Bothnia still belongs to the crown of Sweden, and extends from the borders of Angermundland to the river Tornea, a distance of about 400 English miles in length, and 100 in breadth. It forms part of the great Province of Nordland. The whole of the population is only estimated at between 40,000 and 50,000. Much of this region is covered with forests, consisting chiefly of pines, mingled with birch and juniper trees. Here indeed, the birch seems to attain perfection; for M. Von Buch says that, in the vicinity of Tornea, they rise above the Spanish and Scotch firs, and are majestic trees. West Bothnia is subdivided into the four districts of Umeå, Piteå, Luleå, and Tornea, each deriving its name from its chief town. The soil in many places, where not covered with woods, is fertile, and produces both corn and pasture. The grain raised is usually sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants, who are employed in hunting, fishing, and agriculture. They also carry on a small trade in timber, pitch, tar, fish, feathers, and skins; nor is the country destitute of mines of iron and copper. The character of the people of this part of Sweden stands high for its benevolence and honesty, inasmuch that the late Dr. Clarke, after bearing a most honourable testimony to the existence of these qualities in all the northern Swedes, observes, "The natives of Westro-Bothnia, beyond all their countrymen, rank the foremost in pious and loyal disposition, and in simplicity and honesty of character. A foreigner who leaves his open trucks in their inn-yards and stables, amidst all the haste and confusion which must sometimes take place in travelling day and night, and amidst the inability to attend to them, occasioned by pain or sickness, or weariness and want of rest, will

BOTHNIA, have nothing with which to reproach the inhabitants of the country."

BO-TRYLLUS

Umea, the capital of Westro-Bothnia, presents a superior aspect to most of the other towns in these high latitudes. It stands in the sixty-fourth degree at the confluence of the Umea river with the sea. Some of the streets are paved, many of the houses are neatly built, and occasionally there are several vessels in the harbour at once, which impart a degree of activity to the inhabitants not common in these regions. The population comprises about 1000 individuals.

BOTHNIA, GULF or, the most northern part of the Baltic Sea, which separates Sweden from Finland, and takes its name from the preceding province. It commences at the island of Åland, in the 61st degree, and extends to the 66th, through a space of 360 miles in length, and 130 at its greatest breadth. The smallness of the evaporation in these high regions, and the copious streams which enter it, render the water of this Gulf so fresh, that it contains only a small proportion of the salt found in the waters of the ocean. It is generally so completely frozen in winter, as to afford a direct passage both for sledges and carriages from one shore to the other. Many of the people who live near its shores support themselves by fishing, or are engaged in the small commerce to which it gives rise. Seals abound, and considerable quantities of oil are annually made from those that are caught; it is however less prolific than the ocean in most kinds of fish except salmon, which are very numerous, both in the Gulf and the large rivers that fall into it. A gradual decrease appears to be taking place in the extent of this Gulf.

BOTHWELL, a village and parish of Scotland, in the county of Lanark, situated on the banks of the Clyde, about nine miles from Glasgow. This village is more noted for its relics of antiquity than its present importance. The church is an ancient Gothic structure, in which are preserved some of the oldest monuments of Scotland. Two of the towers of Bothwell Castle are yet almost entire, but the remainder is a complete ruin. Vestiges of Blantyre Priory are also visible in this neighbourhood. But it is most noted to the more recent times for the engagement which took place between the Scottish Covenanters, chiefly commanded by their clergy, and the Royal forces under the command of the Duke of Monmouth, in which the former were completely routed. The population of the parish at the late enumeration was 4544, which is an increase of 1099 persons, or more than one-fourth, between 1811 and 1821.

BOTLING, in Zoology, a vulgar name of the *Cypripus Calceolus*, or *Club*.

BOTOL TABACONIMA, an island in the Chinese Sea, between Formosa and the Bashee Islands. It is an elevated island, and appears to be covered to the very summit with trees of large growth, and in clear weather may be seen at a considerable distance, but it is frequently enveloped in fogs. In sailing past it villages may be seen at intervals in the open spaces; but we are not aware of any navigator having landed, or made any observations on the inhabitants. Latitude about 22° N. and longitude 117° E.

BOTRYCHUM, a genus of Ferns.

BOTRYLLUS, in Zoology, a genus in the first order of the class Tunicata of Lamarck, (Tuniciers renais.)

This class, under the name *Acidie*, has received the most elaborate elucidation by Mons. Savigny in his valuable Memoirs on the *invertebrata*, in which the arrangement has been founded on the most minute and accurate anatomical investigation. In this classification the genus *Botryllus* belongs to the class *Acidie*, order *Tethydes*, family *Tethyæ*, which includes two divisions *simplices* and *compositæ*; to the second of which the present genus belongs. Generic character: the common substance gelatinous or cartilaginous, erupting either bodies, and composed of systems which are round or elliptical, raised above the common surface, and annular. Animals disposed either in a single series, or in several which are regular and concentric. Branchial orifice simply elliptical, and without rays; intestinal orifice small, elongated to a point, and enveloped in the border of the central cavity of the system. There are several species found on our coasts, of which *B. conglomeratus* is *Alcyonium conglomeratum* of the *Syn. Nat.*

BOTRYOCEPHALUS, in Zoology, a genus of intestinal worms separated from the *Tenie* by Rudolphi. The body is soft, elongated, flat, jointed. The suckers consist only of two longitudinal depressions, opposite to each other.

BOTRYOLITE, a fibrous mineral substance belonging to the tribe of *Boracic Salts*, which has been hitherto discovered only in Norway.

BOTRYS, a name given to several species of the *Chenopodium*.

BOTT. From the A. S. *bitan*, to bite.

If the same bee conveyed down by a horse into the throat of horses and such like beasts, they will cure the erasing tumors of the *bott* that first and grow there in the throat. *Holland, Phisic*, i. fol. 326.

His horse hid'd with an old mothy saddle, besides beguine with the bott. *Malapropos. Taming a Shrew*, fol. 219.

At last a chapman approached, and, after he had for a good while examined the horse round, finding him liked of one eye, he would have nothing to say to him; a fourth knew by his eye that he had the *bott*. *Goldsmith. Piece of Wakefield*, ch. xiv.

BOTTLE, v. } Fr. *bouteille*; It. *bottiglia*; Sp. *botella*, n. } *botijie*; Low Lat. *boticula*; Sw. *bottleg*, } *bottefje*. *Vomica* and *Meninge* derive *botellings*, } this word from the Gr. *Berra*; which Sioner has no doubt is itself of northern origin. Lye and Sørensen think that *bottle* is a diminutive of the A. S. *lytle*, a butt or cask. See *Berr*.

And has gotte ich begge.

With oute begge ope bott. *Piers Plouman*, p. 77.

Neither men pette newe wyne in to olde botte elfis the botte ben to broken and destroyed, and the wyne schod out, but men putten newe wyne in to newe botte, and becomen kept. *Wyclif. Matthew*, ch. ix.

Is that a cask of London, with meachance?

Do him come forth, he knoweth his pennance;

For he shal tell a tale by my fey.

Altho it be not worth a teld fey.

Chaucer. The Manciple's Prologue, v. 1950.

There came two soldiers, whyche going before with such as had taken up y^e campe, had found water, and were carrying of it in *bottelles* unto their sones, which were sore afflicted for want of drinke beykade in the armye.

Brucade. Quintus Curtius, fol. 186.

And found it both better by experience, that in Fraunce, the wine *bottles* made thereof [yngh] for wayfaring men and travellers, have paynted and killed those that drinke out of them.

Holland. Phisic, i. fol. 463.

BO-TRYLLUS
BOTTLE

BOTTLE.
—
BOTTOM.

ETNA. Oh, mistress! I have the bravest, gravest, secret, subtle,
Most-mad heart to my master, that ever gentleman
had.

Marlowe. The Jew of Malta, act iii.

They importun'd me to drink something before I went to bed,
and upon my refusing, at last left a bottle of stinging as they called
it, for fear I should wake and be thirsty in the night.

Taylor, No. 298.

Can they not juggle, and with slight
Conveyance play with wroth and right;
And sell their blasts of wind as dear
As Lapland witches bottled air?

Butler. Hudibras, part I. can. 2.

A good butler always breaks off the point of his bottle-screw
in two days, by trying which is the hardest, the point of the
screw, or the neck of the bottle.

Swift. Directions to Servants.

In the bottle, discontent seeks for comfort, cowardice for cour-
age, and bashfulness for confidence.

Johnson. Life of Addison.

When calm around the common room,
I puff'd my daily pipe's perfume I
Rode for a stomach, and inspected,
At annual bottlings, corks selected.

Warton. The Progress of Discontent.

BOTTOM, *v.* Dutch, *bottem*; Ger. *boten*; Swe.
Bottn, *v.* *bottn*. Wachter refers to the Ger.
Bottnen, *bottnen*; A. S. *þétthan*, (whence
Bottnen, *bottnen*) to trample ortread upon,
to bruise with the feet.

Bottom, the noun, is that upon which we tread,
stand, walk, or go; the lowest part; the part at the
lowest depth. That upon which any thing stands,
rests; upon which it is sustained or supported; the
foundation, the ground-work.

To venture in the same bottom is (met.) to run the
same risk as those who have ventured to embark
themselves or property in the same ship's bottom.

To bottom is to rest, place, or stand upon; to fix,
found, or establish.

He stily took it out, this curried helme,
(Unwitting this proof of his false craft)
And in the panes below he it left.

Chaucer. The Chanconer Ymages Tale, v. 16787.

Unto the well than wreat I me
And downe I louted for to see
The cleve water in the stone
And eke the ground which that shoon
Dome in the botome, so silner fine.

Id. Romance of the Rose.

For if a man woulds in a bothe
(Which is without botome) rowe,
He must nedes overbothe.

Gower. Conf. Am. book I. fol. 19.

But in her letter made she such frosts
That woode was & swore she loused him best
Of which he found bot bottomless bolsters
But Troilus thou must now rest and wost
Pipe in an lay leafe if that thou list.

Chaucer. Troilus, book I. fol. 192.

They have searched to come to the bottom of hyz bottonles
wisdom, and because they canot attayne to that secrette and be
to pronde to let it alone, they go and set up freewill with the
heathen philosophes.

Jynalls Works, fol. 19.

Wherefore their intent and purpose was, that the Duke of
Parma in his small and flat-bottomed shippes, should as it were
under the shadow and wings of the Spanish fleet, convey over all
his troups, armour, and warlike provision.

Hibbys. Voyages, &c. The Spanish Armada, v. I. fol. 601.

From Holland, Zealand, and from Flanders won
By weekly pay, three-score twelve bottoms came,
From fifty upward to five hundred tons,
For every use a mariner could name.

Dreyton. The Battle of Agincourt.

To repeat God's judgments in particular, upon those of all
degrees, which have played with his mercies, would require a
volume apart: for the sea of examples hath no bottom.

Raleigh. History of World, Pref. iii.

But this is certain, that as he in heat of anger stepped hastily
to the cotter or porch of the temple, and went a pace he fell
down the stairs, and so hurt his head that dashed against the
bottom-stair, that he swooned vithal, and lay for dead.

Hesiod. Lines, fol. 284.

Yea such was the extremity of the tempest, that it appeared to
us as if he had pronounced a sentence, not to stay his hand, nor
to withdraw his judgement, till he had buried our bodies and ships
also, in the bottomless depth of the raging sea.

Sir Francis Drake. The World Encompassed, fol. 39.

Within this limit is relief enough,
Sweet bottom-grass, and high delightful plain,
Round rising hillocks, brakes obscure and rough,
To shelter thee from tempest and from rain.

Shakespeare. Venus and Adonis.

— This I have learnt

Tending my socks hard I've hilly crofts,

That brow this bottom-glade.

Milnes. Canzon, I. 532.

I mean, not barely comprehending what is affirmed or denied
in such proposition (though that great readers do not always
think themselves concern'd precisely to do) but to see and follow
the train of his reasonings, observe the strength and clearness of
their connection, and examine upon what they bottom.

Locke. Conduct of the Understanding, sec. 24.

True or false, solid or sandy, the mind must have some founda-
tion to rest itself upon, and, as I have remarked in another
place, it no sooner ascertains any proposition, but it presently
hastens to some hypothesis to bottom it on; till then it is unquiet
and unsettled.

Id. R. sec. 6.

As a question, and controversy in divinity, or logic, when
some one bottomless truth is understood, a mass both a light, which
goes through all the objections, and answers them all; such a
light doth the Spirit give to a poor distressed soul.

Goodwin. Tulpings of France.

Besides, though slow of belief, he (Thomas the Apostle) was
the bottom honest and sincere; not led into those doubts which
he entertained, by his lusts and vices.

Atterbury. Sermon II. vol. II.

But now I come to look on death near at hand, and see beyond
the grave, that is just under me, that bottomless gulf of eternity;
methinks it a very hard thing to be sufficiently prepared for a
change, that will transmit us to the bar of an omniscient judge,
to be there doom'd to an endless state of either infinite happiness
or misery.

Boyle. Meditation vii.

We ought to be bottomed enough in principle not to be carried
away upon the first prospect of any sinister adventure.

Burke. On the Policy of the Allies.

If those gentlemen stopped when they came to the curb of
the gulph of guilt and public misery, that yawned before them in
the abyss of these dark and bottomless speculations, I forgive
their first error.

Id. A Letter to a Member of the National Assembly.

BOTTOMRY, in Mercantile Law, is an agreement
made by the owner of a ship, with any person advancing
him money for the purposes of his voyage; whereby
he pledges the ship for the repayment of the loan,
with a stipulated interest, upon her safe return; the
lender risking the whole of the sum he has supplied,
in the event of her loss. The word originates in the
language of the agreement, which designates the ship
as a bottom. For the prevention of fraud on the part
of borrowers on Bottomry, it was found necessary, so
early as the 16th Charles II. to make the wilful des-
truction of any ship, by her officers, a capital felony.
This statute was made perpetual by an act of the
23d and 24th of the same reign, c. 11. s. 12.

Contracts of Bottomry are excepted from the opera-

5 A 2

BOTTOM.
—
BOTT-
TUMRY.

BOV-
TUMMY
BOVEY
COAL

tious of the usury laws, any rate of interest being recoverable under them.

BOVYS, in *Zoology*, a genus of insects, of the order *Lepidoptera*, family *Crambidae*, Latr. Belonging to the *Phalaris Pyralidis* of Linnaeus. The larva of *Aglossa pingualis*, Latr., which it seems unnecessary to remove from this genus, lives on fatty substances, and is often found in houses. Linnaeus asserts that it has been found infecting the human intestines, where it has produced more alarming effects than the common intestinal worms. Generic character: antennae setaceous; palpi four, exerted; upper wings nearly horizontal, and forming with the body a flattened triangle.

BOTZEN, sometimes written **BOZZEN**, a noted trading town of the Austrian Empire, in the district of the same name in the Tyrol. It stands at the confluence of the Talfer and Eisach, in a tract nearly encompassed by lofty mountains; and has a population of about 8000 individuals. Botzen is chiefly noted for the beauty of its environs, the excellency of its wines, and its four great annual fairs, which are frequented by numerous traders from all the surrounding countries. The town is also the residence of the Austrian governor of the Adige division; and the district of which it is more immediately the Capital contains an area of about 460 square miles, and 97,800 inhabitants. The town is nearly twenty miles south-west of Brisen, in lat. 46° 39' N. and long. 11° 10' E.

BOVA, a town of Italy, in Calabria Ultra, situated at the southern extremity of the Apennines, and near the sea. It is supposed to have been originally founded by the Albanians, who emigrated after the death of their noted Prince, generally known by the name of Scanderbeg. Their descendants are still spread over this part of Italy to about the number of 100,000, who yet speak the language of their forefathers. Bova has the title of a County, with a population of about 3000 individuals, and is the See of a Bishop, who is suffragan of the Archbishop of Reggio, from which place Bova is about twenty miles south-east.

BOUCHAIN, a small, fortified town of France, in the department of the North, situated on both banks of the Scheldt, not about half way between Cambray and Valenciennes, where the surrounding country is capable of being laid under water by means of sluices. It was taken by the French in 1676, and confirmed to them by the peace of Nimuegen. The allies took it again after a memorable siege, in 1711, but it was restored to France by the peace of Utrecht. Its vicinity was the scene of some severe conflicts between the Austrians and French, in 1793 and 1794; and it was one of the fortresses held by the allied powers subsequent to the general peace of 1815.

BOVEY COAL, Wood Coal, of which a bed several miles in extent, and from forty to seventy feet in depth, including the beds of clay with which it alternates, occurs of Bovey Heathfield, near Chudleigh, in Devonshire. The colour of this coal varies from smoky-brown to black.

The beds are nearly horizontal, and the coal is fissile in the direction of the beds; the adjacent surface of the laminæ frequently presenting the character of the bark of trees, as if the stems of trees had been crushed until they were flattened.

The nomenclological character of the beds varies in relation to their depth. Those which lie nearest to the

surface retain most of the woody character, while the deepest beds approach more to the appearance of common coal.

The formation of these beds has been a subject of much speculation; but the most prevalent opinion appears to be that they have been formed by the trees, which, during a long succession of years, have been washed down by torrents from the neighbouring hills. The wood is supposed to have been a species of pine. This coal is used in the neighbourhood of the pits for the ordinary purposes of fuel, but it exhales a disagreeable odour while burning.

BOUGAINVILLE'S ISLAND, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, situated in the sixth degree of south latitude, and the 156th of east longitude. A narrow channel separates it on the north from the island of Bouka, towards which the land sinks nearly to the level of the sea. The island contains several mountains separated by considerable plains, and is chiefly covered with wood. The western coast is dangerous to vessels, from the numerous rocks. It supports a few inhabitants, who, from the plantations, appear to live principally near the shore.

BOUGE, to bulge or bulge. (See **BUCK**.) *Utres* is by Holland readed *bouges*; i. e. something swelling or belling out.

Which since east, we soon the same forsooke,
And cut it off, for fear least thereupon
Our ships should bouge.

Gaueque. Voyage into Holland.

But in the end, by grace and great manhood of y^e kyng,
which there was sore woundyd, and by his great comferte the
Frisemen were chasyd, and many of theyr shippys bouged &
taken with many prisoners in them.

Felgus. Edward III. Anno, 1340.

The barke percellurving this small Cresser to be an Englishman,
shot at hym and bouged hym, wherefore the Cresser decue straight
to the grate ship, and six or seven of the men, hapt into the
barke.

Hall. King Henry VIII. fol. 262.

The Spaniards made no more adoe, but fastning their apparrell
to bouges of leather like bladders, full of wind, and loyng their
bucklers thereupon, sat aloft and passed over safely.

Holland. Livres, fol. 408.

For it soundeth not like a truth, that horsemen with their
armor and horses safe could overcome so great a rage of the
river, although we should pray that all the Spaniards sat over
upon blown bladders and leathern bouges. *Id. Ib. fol. 420.*

Thus they launching out into the maine sea be either drowned
there, their ships bouged for that purpose, or els doe cast them-
selves over-board heading into the sea.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Reports of Japan, v. B. fol. 86.

BOVON, Fr. "bouche, a mouth; also, a passage,
entry, entrance, or overturn into. *Adieu bouche à Court*;
to eat and drink scot-free; to have hodge-n-Court, to
be in ordinary at Court." Cotgrave.

Mr. Gifford observes, that "bouge of Court was an
allowance of meat and drink for the tables of the
inferior officers, and others who were occasionally
called to serve and entertain the Court." B. Jonson's
Workes, v. vii. p. 238. n. 1. See **BOZZ**, for other ex-
amples of bouge.

It appears to have meant merely free entrance or
access, lugress and egress.

I am an officer, groom of the stable, that is my place.

Nbr. To fetch bouge of court is a piece of inevitable bread,
and here for the players (for they never see it).

Bra Jonson. Masque of Augures.

BOVEY
COAL
BOUGE

BOUGH. } The bow of a tree is so called,
BOUGHT. } because it bows or bends from the
 stem or trunk. A. S. *bug-on*, to bow. See to Bow.

And see it by example of trees in summer time
 Their sons bow briefly leaves, and some briefly none.
Piers Plouhann, p. 277.

There might men does and rows yow
 And of squires full gent pience
 From bow to bow away leying.
*Chaucer, *House of the Roor*, fol. 122.*

The holocaust winds off their high bowes do blast,
 Hort sighes in me continually be shed,
 Witte beastes in then, fierce loue in me is fed:
 Unseasonable am I and they still feeling.

*Wyal, *The Lover's life compared to the Alps*.*

And after that goodly disport was passed, the kyng remanded
 his officers to brynge the mayer and his company vnto a pleasant
 lodge made all of grene herbes, and garnished with tables and
 other thyngs necessary.

*Felgus, *Edward F. Aun*, 1482.*

Yet comfort comes againe, when from the route
 He sees a bough into the north to shoute,
 Which, notwithstanding, extends itself from thence,
 And girds this land with a firm defence.

*Sir J. Heymans, *Banworth Field*.*

Take heed least whilst thou dost labour to attain to the top,
 thou fallest with the bow which thou dost embrace.

*Breide, *Quintus Curtius*, book vii. fol. 198.*

I do not know whether I am singular in my opinion, but, for
 my own part, I would rather look upon a tree in all its luxuriance
 and diffusion of boughs and branches, than when it is thus cut
 and trimmed into a mathematical figure.

Spectator, No. 414.

And burns Locrine still for the sublime
 Of life? To hang his airy nest on high,
 On the slight timber of the topmost bough,
 Rockt at each breeze, and meaning a fall?

*Young, *The Complaint*, Night 5.*

**BOUGHT, or, } From the A. S. *bugon*, to bow;
 } to bend, to turn. See *Bow*.**

The *bought* of a serpent; the flexures, bends, curves,
 folds or involutions.

The *bought* of the knee or elbow (in the North called
beight) is the flexure or curvature of the knee or elbow.
 A winding bout—an involution. Another *bout*—
 another turn. The *bout* of a sling, is the best leather
 upon which the stone or thing to be thrown is laid.

And, as she lay upon the dusty ground,
 Her huge long talle her den all encompassed,
 Yet was in knots and many *boughts* yrevound
 Pointed with mortal sting.

*Spenser, *Fairie Queene*, book i. can. 1.*

He passing by with redoubt wretched pace,
 With brauidst tongue the empty ayre did gidge,
 And wrapt his scallie *boughts* with full delight
 That all things seem'd appalled at his sight.

*Id. *Virgil's *Geost**.*

The different flexure and order of the joints might also com-
 monly be the same; being not disposed in the elephant, as they
 are in other quadrupeds, but carry a nearer conformity into those
 of man; that is, the *bought* of the fore-legs, not directly for-
 ward, but laterally and somewhat inward; but the *bought* or
 suffragious flexure beehide rather outward.

See Thomas Browne, book iii. ch. i.

Yet a man is risen to pursue thee, and to seek thy soul; but
 the soul of my lord shall be bound in the bundle of life with the
 Lord thy God, and the souls of those enemies, whom thou shalt slay
 out, as out of the middle of a sling. (The Margin says, Hebr. in
 the midst of the *bought* of a sling.)

*Ribb, *Mishna*, *Ferrin*, i. San. ch. xiv. v. 29.*

But how all knees, one of her knees
 My tongue doth tell what fancy sees.
 Whose *bought* inward doth yield such sight,
 Like cunning painter shadowed white.

*Sidney, *Ardenia*, book ii.*

Lap me in soft Lydian arms
 Married to immortal verse;
 Such as the meeting soul may pierce,
 In notes, with many a winding bout
 Of linked sweetness long drawn out.
*Milton, *L'Allegro*, l. 139.*

Bow, the past tense and past participle of the
 verb, to *buy*.

Wanne yt come bynore kyn, he nolde herof nogt,
 Nere yt go no laic wof, hote yt were derre ghyt.
R. Gloscester, p. 399.

O photele, full of curses-dance;
 O cause first of our confusion,
 O original of our damnation,
 Till Crist had bought us with his blood againe.
*Chaucer, *The Pardoner's Tale*, v. 12432.*

The wrath (as I began you for to say)
 Of Troilus, the Greeks *bought* there,
 For thousands his hordes madden day.
*Id. *Troilus and Cressida*, book v.*

BOUILLON, a Duchy of the Netherlands, situated
 between the Duchy of Luxemburg, and the Principality
 of Liege. This small State is only about eighteen
 miles long and nine broad, and therefore does not
 contain a surface of more than 150 square miles. It
 is situated in that woody and mountainous tract called
 the Ardennes; and was chiefly comprised in the de-
 partment of that name, while subject to the French
 Empire. Small as this territory is, it has not been
 overlooked in the councils and political mutations of
 Europe, and was, indeed, one of the first of the
 inferior states which attracted notice at an early period.
 Towards the close of the eleventh century, we find it
 in possession of the celebrated Godfrey de Bouillon,
 who became the leader of the first crusade, and was
 afterwards created King of Jerusalem. Unable to
 carry his plans into execution, for want of pecuniary
 resources, he mortgaged this Principality to the Bishop
 of Liege, for the sum of 1500 silver marks, on con-
 dition, that if he returned from the Holy War, the
 Principality should be restored to him, but if not
 it should form part of the Diocese. As he died in
 the Holy Land, and without issue, the territory became
 incorporated with the Bishopric, till 1483, when it
 was ceded to the Count of Mark; but was afterwards
 restored by the Emperor Charles V. to its former pos-
 sessors. The French family of La Tour d'Auvergne,
 who were descended from the Count of Mark, fre-
 quently urged their claims to this Duchy, which they
 relinquished in 1641, in consideration of an indemnity
 of £150,000. sterling. About thirty years afterwards,
 the Bishop of Liege having taken part in the war
 against France, Louis XIV. once more put the family
 of La Tour in possession of this Duchy. In 1792
 Philip d'Auvergne was a Captain in the Royal navy,
 and with the consent of his Britannic Majesty, assumed the
 title of Prince of Bouillon, which he bore till his
 death in 1816. Previous to this, however, this Duchy
 had once more become the subject of litigation, and
 the Congress of Vienna appointed commissioners, in
 1815, to investigate the claims of this Prince, and
 those of Prince Charles of Rohan. Their decision was
 in favour of the latter, by whom the Duchy is now
 possessed under the sovereignty of the King of the
 Netherlands, as Duke of Luxemburg. The principal
 places within the limits of this small Duchy are
 Bouillon, Mirwart, Saint Hubert, Rochefort, Logne,
 and Hiergues.

BOUGHT.
BOUILLON.

BOUILLON.
—
BOU-
LOGNE.

BOUILLON, the chief town in the preceding duchy, is situated in a hilly district, near the junction of the Semois with the Maese. It is a neat small town, with a population of about 2000 individuals. It has a castle standing upon a high rock. In May, 1794, the Austrian General Besouieu compelled a party of French troops to take refuge in this castle, and took the town after an obstinate resistance; but on the approach of a French army, he was obliged to retreat in the direction of Namur, from which Bouillon is about fifty miles towards the south-east. Latitude $49^{\circ} 48'$ north, and longitude $5^{\circ} 8'$ east.

BOULIN, a small island of France, off the coast of Brittany, included in a bay formed by the shores of that Province and those of Poitou. It is only separated from the coast of Brittany by a narrow channel, and is included in the department of Vendée. It contains one small town of the same name, and the inhabitants are chiefly employed in fishing and making salt. Some historians point out this as the place where the Normans made their first descent in 930.

BOVISTA, a name given to the *Lycoperdon*, or Puff-ball.

BOUKA, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, which is sometimes called Lord Axson's Island, and is separated from Bougainville's Island by a narrow strait known by the name of this last navigator. Bouka is the native name, and the island rises from the shore towards the centre where it attains a considerable altitude. Most of it is covered with wood, but in the open spaces near the sea, extensive plantations of cocoa trees are observed, which indicate a considerable population. M. Labillardiere, in his voyage in search of La Perouse, visited this island, and describes the natives as being of a middle stature, strong and active. Their colour is nearly black, their hair on their heads is thick and curled, but they carefully remove it from every other part of the body. Their heads are large; forehead, face, and nose flat, and chin prominent. Their mouths are wide, lips thin, and ears loaded with large rings made of shells, by which they are greatly extended. Some had their bodies streaked, and others wore bracelets formed of the fibres of the cocoa nut husk; and all had a cord or handgirdle several times round the waist. In other respects they seem to have been generally naked. Their disposition appeared lively, and they were very fond of music, especially the most brisk and noisy tunes. Their canoes were of a light and elegant structure, and were formed of several planks very ingeniously fastened together. They are capable of carrying forty or fifty men each, and are rowed and managed with great dexterity. Their arms are bows and arrows, which they use with great skill and effect. They showed themselves well acquainted with harter, by the prices they fixed upon the European articles that were offered to them; nails and scarlet cloth were those for which they manifested the strongest predilection. The northern point of Bouka is situated in about five degrees of south latitude, and in the 155th degree of east longitude.

BOULOGNE, a seaport of France, on the coast of Picardy, and in the department of the Pas de Calais. It was the Capital of the small independent government of Boulonois, and is an old town divided into two parts, the upper and lower. The latter is frequently denominated Boulouge-sur-Mer, as lying on the shore, to

distinguish it from the former, which is situated on an eminence at a short distance. The lower part is the larger and more populous division, but the upper is the pleasantest situation, and the prospect from the adjacent heights is highly agreeable. The harbour, which in former times was one of the best on that part of the coast, is now nearly choked up with sand, and though considerable exertions have recently been made to improve it, only small vessels can enter at low water. Merchant ships wait for high tide, and ships of war either anchor in the road, or off the port Saint Jean, a few miles further north. The trade of Boulogne, however, is considerable, particularly in fish caught in the neighbouring sea, as well as in the productions and manufactures of the town and adjacent country. Great part of the Champagne and Burgundy sent to England, also passes through Boulogne.

Before the revolution, it was the See of a Bishop, suffragan of the Archbishop of Rheims, but the See has since been joined to that of Arras. During the extensive preparations made by Buonaparte, for the invasion of England, the population of this town was greatly increased; and since the return of peace, it has been again augmented by an influx of British, who have been induced to make it their place of residence. A late French work states the number of inhabitants at 12,700; and it is estimated that there are about 3000 English in the town and neighbourhood. Boulogne is about 154 miles from Paris, about thirty from New Romney, in Kent, and twenty-two south of Calais, and is generally preferred to the former port, for the return passage across the channel to Dover. Latitude $50^{\circ} 43' 37''$ N., and longitude $1^{\circ} 36' 59''$ east.

BOUNCE, *v.* } For a song *fecit*, says Skinner.
BOUNCE, *a.* } Perhaps from *bounds*, *bounts*, *bounce*.
BO'UNCING. } See *BOUNCE*, below, and *Scotch*, to
BO'UNCER. } *bount*, in Jamieson.

This soulless change when he began to spy
And cold suspect into his mind had crept,
He *bount* and bet his head tormentingly,
And from all company himself he kept.

Gower, *Don Quixote*, ch. 10.

They waste their waste in sighs,
They blear their eyes with weine:
They break their backs with *bouncing* grief,
Their hearts with lingering pine.

Turkic. Of the Torments, &c.

With that he gave her a *bounce*
Fall upon the gurg.

Shelton. *Wren the Hawk*.

Yet still he bet and *bount* upon the dove,
And thousand strokes thereon so *bount*ously,
That all the peere he shaken from the dove,
And filled all the house with feare and great y-pore.

Spenser. *Faerie Queene*, book v. can. 2.

As savage beasts with hoar and fell teeth kept up in grated
cages, and made more fierce and cruel to their souls and
flesh keeping, upon hope to get out, rush and *bounce* against
the bars that tore and wind within their sockets.

Holward. *Ammanus*, fol. 129.

Phl. ————— To *bounce*
The frothy foam of Neptune's surging waves,
When Nest'ring Boron tumbeth up the deep
And thumps a louder *bounce*.

Ford. *The Lover's Melancholy*, act I. sc. 1.

A sylvan life till then the swains led,
In the brown shade and green-wood forest lost,
All careless rambling where it lik'd them most;
Their wealth the wild-deer *bouncing* through the glade.

Thomson. *Castle of Indolence*, can. 2.

BOUL-
LOGNE.
—
BOUNCE.

BOUNCE. As I was sitting in my chamber, and thinking on a subject for my next Spectator, I heard two or three irregular bounces at my landlady's door, and upon the opening of it a loud cheerful voice inquiring whether the philosopher was at home.

Spectator, No. 383.

The housewife undertook the task,
Through lanes unknown, o'er stile they ventur'd,
Ras'd at the door, nor stay'd to ask,
But bounc'd into the parlour enter'd.

Gray. A long Story.

At this information I could instantly perceive the widow bounce from her seat; but correcting herself, she sat down again, repressed by motives of good breeding.

Goldsmith. Citizen of the World, let. 70.

BOUND, v. } To bound, Skinner says, is
BOUND, n. } from the Fr. *bondir* to be struck
Back, from the Lat. *bundare*, *abundare*, *redundare*,
become a ball, when struck back, comment of remotest
insular adarum. But rebound, (to which he refers, and
which he explains to signify; to be driven back as a
ball,) he derives from the It. *rimbombare*, to rebound as
an echo, from the Gr. *βασίλει*, *βασίλει*, to bomb, or
hurt.

Fr. *à bondir*, to bound, to rebound, to leap, jump,
fert, skip, rise (suddenly and swiftly) upward.
Cotgrave.

Imperiously he leaps, he neighs, he bounds,
And now his worn girths he breaks asunder,
The bearing earth with his hard hoof he wounds,
Whom hollow womb responds like Heaven's thunder.

Shakespeare. Venus and Adonis.

'Tis strange! the pilot keeps his seat;
His bounding ship does so current,
Whilst the poor passengers are found,
In their own fears already drown'd.

Cotton. Winter.

— This discourse did breath
The fiery boundings of his heart, that still
Lay in that misty.

Chapman. Homer's Odyssey, book xx. fol. 368.

For doe but note a wilde and wanton heerd
Or more of youthful and rambling coits,
Fetehing mad sounds, howling and neighing loud,
Which is the hot condition of their blood.

Shakespeare. Merchant of Venice, fol. 182.

I've seen a huntsman, active as the morn,
Salute her earliest blush with sounding horn;
Peruse the bounding stag with up'ning cries,
And slight the thund'ring bore, his truce prize;
Then, with the setting sun, his bounds restrain;
Nor bounding stag, nor tumbler has obtain.

Blacklock. Desiderium Letitiae.

BOUND, v. } To bound is formed upon the
BOUND, n. } past tense, and past participle
of the verb, to bind.
BOUNDARY, }
BOUND, v. } To confine, to limit, to re-
BOUND, n. } strict, to terminate.
BOUNDLESS, }
BOUNDLESSNESS, }

First ye woulde alle Jr,
But forgh ye frame suld ge, ye bounde furto take.

R. Brunsen, p. 300.

And every creature went he for to see,
He was so strong that no man might him let;
At bothe worldes endes, saith Trophoeus,
In stede of boundes be a pillar set.

Chaucer. The Monk's Tale, p. 14121.

Why dost thou rather get into his head how farre he may
extend the boundes of his dominion, then put him in remem-
brance with how narrow limits the creature, which he hath
now at this present, was in old tyme bound'd.

Udell. Saint Merb. Preface, x.

While Peirece and Flowmish hopes to pick a dale,
By moving boundes, (which get sharer grace's goase).
Guinevere. The Frailty of Warre.

So maye the feare of infamy, dishonour and dyspraise, refrain
and restrain them fro crye, and some tyme holcomely brylle
and continer them within the limites & boundes of good and
honourable order.

Sir Thomas More. Works, fol. 622.

Deep was roll forward like a gentle flood,
Who, being stopp'd, the bounding banks overflow'd:
Grief dallied with our law nor limit knows.

Shakespeare. Rape of Lucrece.

In his miracles, how loves ever to meet nature in her boundes,
and when such hath done her best, to supply the rest by her over-
ruling power.

Hall. Cont. Simon called.

For let us first consider the breadth and bignesse of this burn-
ing zone (which as every man knoweth, is 47. degrees) each
tropics, which are the boundes thereof, being 23. degrees and a
half distant from the equinoctiall.

Hakluyt. Voy. &c. The Temperatures of Regions, v. lii. fol. 48.
And him, whom all the skill and power of armes did late arrest,
Now like a man in counsell poore, that (trauelling) goes aimless,
And (having past a boundless plaine) not knowing where he is,
Comes on the sudden, where he sees a river rough.

Chapman. Homer's Iliad, fol. 75.

God has corrected the boundlessness of his voluptuous desires,
by stinting his strength, and contracting his capacities.

South. Sermons.

— To good distrust!
Ye noble few! who here unbending stand
Be such life's pressure, yet bear up awhile,
And what your boundless virtue, which only saw
A little part, deemed evil, is no more.

Thomson. Winter.

As in geometry, of all lines or surfaces contained within the
same bound, the straight line and the plane surface are the
shortest: so it is also in morality: by the right line of Justice,
upon the plain ground of Virtue, a man soonest will arrive to
any well-chosen end.

Burrows. Sermon, v. vol. 1.

The world was we're design'd for thee:
You're like a passenger below,
That stays perhaps a night or so;
But still his native country lies
Beyond the bound'ries of the skies.

Cotton. Fision, 4.

Is there a temple of the deity,
Except earth, sea, and air, you error pole;
And chief, his holiest shrine, the virtuous soul?
Where'er the eye can pierce, the feet can move,
This wide, this boundless universe is Jove.

Eglington. Cato's speech to Laetius.

BOUNTY, }
BOUNTEOUS, } Fr. *bonté*; It. *bontà*; Sp.
BOUNTEOUSLY, } *bontad*; Lat. *bontas*,—of un-
BOUNTEOUSNESS, } settled etymology,—is good-
BOUNTIFUL, }ness, kindness, beneficence,
BOUNTIFULLY, } benevolence, munificence, libe-
BOUNTEFULNESS, }rality, generosity.
BOUNTIFUL, }

For God it wot, that children often been
Unlike his worthy elders him before,
Whoer cometh all of God, not of the stern,
Of which they hee yearned and there:
I trust in Goides bounde, and therefore
My marriage, and a n. cat, and rest
I him betake, he may doe as him list.

Chaucer. The Clerk's Tale, v. 8032.

Nature set in him at once
Replete with bounty so beseyn,
That I need well affirm and saye,
I sawe yet neuer creature,
Of comely beate, and of feature,
In any tynges region,
Be like him in comparison.

Goar. Conf. Am. book, v.

BOUNTY.

This maid, of which I tell my tale express,
She kept herself, hire need'd no mistress;
For in hire living maidens mighten rede,
As in a book, every good word and deede,
That length to a maiden vertuous;
She was so prudent and so bounteous.
For which the *laine* on *every* side
Both of hire *bountee* and hire *bountee* wide.
Chaucer. The Doctor's Tale, v. 12639.

Hereby we see that *deeds* and *works* are but outward signs of
the inward grace of the *bounteous* and piteous mercy of God,
freely received without all merits of *deeds*, y^e and before all
deeds.
Tyndall. Works, fol. 66.

A part of y^e cause was, y^e the sayd Charlys after theyr thynging,
had not so *bounteously* rewarded them as they had deservyd.
Fabyen. Ludowick, Anne, xl.

Wherefore, he sayng all lenitie, merite, and *bounteousness*
would not once touch or apprehende the body of King Henry,
whome he might both have slaine, and vitally destroyed, con-
sidering that he had him in his warden and poeasance.
Grafton. Henry VI. The thirty-third year.

Rue on me, Lord, for thy goodnes and grace
That of thy nature arte so *bountifull*;
For that goodnes that in the world dothe brace
Repugnant natures in quiet wendfull.
Myatt. Psalm, li.

Then the common *boyrrygh* thalke the kyng and moche
praised his wyte that he had deyd it to them when they un-
worthly demaunded it, and had *bountifullly* graunted it when he
perceiued that they sorowed and lamented.
Hall. King Henry VIII. The twenty-second year.

And in afflictions thowme the help of God they be incincible;
and if any prosperitie come vnto them, thei ascrib it wholly to
the goodnes and *bountifullnes* of God.
Udall. Matthew, ch. iv.

For that I may not remark the *bounties* of God runing over
the tables of the rich, God hath also made provisions for the
poorest persons; so that if they can but rule their desires, they
shall have their tables furnished.
Taylor. Sermon xvi. fol. 242.

Wherefore he thanked the king with all his harte for his honor-
able present, promising to requite his *bounteous* liberality, by
some good tourne that lay in his owne pryuate power to doe.
Arth. Guldyn. Justine, fol. 128.

Ye maye (sayde the kyng) *bounteously* rewards me, if ye
leade me the yonge man that demed before your maiesty.
Sir Thomas Elyot. The Governour, fol. 76.

But this suddon pang, having first commended the *bounteousness*
of his minde,—the LL. of the senate staied,—affirming it to be
the dissolution of the empire, if the rescusation by which it
was sustained should be diminished.
Grenney. Theius, fol. 196.

Now gins this goodly frame of temperance
Fairly to rise, and her adorned bed
To prick of highest praise forth to adance,
Formerly grooved, and fast settled
On firme foundation of true bountied.
Spenser. Ferris Queene, book ii. can. 12.

If then he be as deceived and as absurd, who thinketh that
the gods be mortal and corruptible, as he who is of opinion,
that they bear no *bountiful* and loving affection toward men,
Chryssippus is as far from the truth as Epicurus.
Holland. Plutarch, fol. 881.

Hath the bling *bountifullness* given lands and possessions to
Christians churches for this end? that Clewkes barlets should
bee pampered with delicious dietaries.
Stow. Anno, 574. The West Saxons.

His honest friends, at thirty hour of dusk,
Came snarled; he with *bounteous* hand
Imparts his smoking vintage, sweet reward
Of his own industry. *Philips. Cyder, book ii.*

The duke turned to the lady, and told her, is now remains for BOUNTY.
me to put you in quiet possession of what your husband has so
bountifully bestowed on you; and ordered the immediate exe-
cution of Rhyssant.
Spenser. No. 491.

For Providence decrees, that we obtain
With toil each blessing destin'd to our use;
But means to teach us, that our toil is vain,
If be the bounty of his hand refuse.
Scott. Etty 3.

Not so thou *bounteous* giver of all good,
Thou art of all thy gifts thyself the crown;
Give what thou canst, without thee we are poor;
And with thee rich, take what thou wilt away.
Cowper. The Task, book v.

To thy blest hand, and *bounteousness* of mind,
Has giv'n extensive powers unslacken'd reins;
To me a barrenness of wath assigns,
That grieves itself to seek another's pain.
Byron. An Ode.

It is true, indeed, the direction of the public weal is in the
hands of a single person, who, for the general good, takes upon
himself to ease us of the whole care and weight of government;
but still that *bountiful* source of power permits, by a very
generous dispensation, some streams to flow down to us.
Milnes. Piny, Letter 22. book iii.

If they are less *bountifully* provided than the rich, with the
materials of happiness for the present life, let them however be
thankful to Providence that they have fewer difficulties to contend
with, fewer temptations to combat, and fewer obstacles to
sermoant, in their way to the life which is to come.
Perkins. Lecture xvii. vol. ii.

BOURBON L'ARCHAMBAUD, a town of France, in the
former Bourbonnois, and that from which the
Province derived its name, and the reigning family of
France and the Dukes of Bourbon their titles. It is
now included in the department of the Allier, and
noted for its warm baths. The population is now
about 9500; and the town is about fourteen
miles west of Moulins.

BOURBON-LANCY, a town of France, in Bur-
guandy, and department of the Saone and Loire, situated
near the banks of the latter river. It has an ancient
castic standing upon a rock, but is most distinguished
by its mineral springs. Some of these are sulphureous,
and others impregnated with salt. There are also
warm baths, which seem to have been of ancient
repute; for many Roman antiquities have been found
in the vicinity. The town stands about thirty-five
miles south-east of Antrim, and contains nearly 3000
inhabitants.

BOURBONNE LES BAINS, a town of France, in
Champagne, and the department of the Upper Maine.
It is celebrated for its warm baths, from which the
concluding part of its appellation is derived. These
waters are much used in nervous and paralytic com-
plaints, and are often sent to a considerable distance.
They issue from a hill which is crowned by an old
castle. The population of the town, which stands
about twenty miles east of Langres, exceeds 3000.
Lat. 47° 57' N. long. 6° 50' E.

BOURBONNOIS, a Province and government of Old
France, with the title of a County, and afterwards of a
Duchy. It was bounded by Nivernois and Berry on the
north and west, Auvergne on the south, and Burgundy
on the east. This Province derived its name from its
chief city, and is traversed by the rivers Allier and
Cher. It was divided into Upper and Lower Bour-
bonnois, the former towards the east, and the latter
the west; but it now forms the greater part of the
department of the Allier.

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BOURBON-VEDEE, a small town of France, in Lower Poitou, and the department of Vendée, of which it is the Capital. During the reign of Napoleon, it was called *Napoleon*, but on the restoration of the Bourbons, in 1814, its name was changed to its present appellation. It was in the vicinity of this town that the Royalists experienced a signal defeat, on the 28th of December, 1795. In 1807, the inhabitants were less than 1000, but they have since greatly increased.

BOURD, *v.* } *Fr. bourde, scoffs, jests, gibes, cuts,*
 } *Bo'canno, quips. Cotgrave. Dutch, loerde; Mid.*
 } *Bourno, n. Lat. burda. Dr. Jamieson thinks that*
 } *the Fr. bourd-er is merely an abbreviation of be-hourd-er,*
 } *beholder, to jest together with lauces,—and that this*
 } *being a species of mock fighting very common in*
 } *former times, the idea has been transferred to talking*
 } *in jest or mockery. Beherd, he considers to be a*
 } *Gothic word; and Schiller derives it from the ancient*
 } *Ger. horden, (A. S. hýrdan) custodire. As barriers (ap-*
 } *plied to certain coastles) are so named, because those*
 } *contests were carried on within barred, secured places;*
 } *in like manner, be-hourd-er, to jest, may have been so*
 } *used, because those jousts or tournaments were con-*
 } *ducted in secured or guarded places.*

*Brethren, equal be, take kepe what I shal say;
 My wit is grete, though that I loerde and play.*
 Chaucer. The Pardoner's Tale, v. 12710.

*Ye should not, sir, in a strange land,
 Mock, nor yet be over-haunted;
 But, if ye will with boordings deal,
 Right cleanly than ye should them veil.*
 Edin. Spemans. Sir Egert, &c.

*Yet had I lever payen for the mare,
 Which he rit on, then he should with me strive.
 I woul not wrathe him so, note I thrive;
 That that I speke, I sayd it in my boord.*
 Chaucer. The Manciple's Pro. v. 17026.

*Gamselyn sette him adown
 In the junic's stile,
 Herkeneth now of the boerde
 That Gamselyn the deide.*
 Id. The Pleurians Tale.

*I am wise enough to tell you I can boord where I see occasion,
 or if you like my uncle's wit better than mine, you shall marry me.*
 Ford. 'The Pity She's a Whore, act iii. sc. 5.

*Gramercy, Borrell, for thy company,
 For all thy jests, and all thy merry boords,
 Upon thy judgment much I shall rely,
 Because I had much wisdom in thy words.*
 Drayton. Pastoral, Eclogue 7.

BOURDEAUX, or **BOORDAUX**, one of the largest and most commercial cities of France, and the chief town in the department of Gironde, situated on the left bank of the Garonne, about sixteen leagues from its entrance into the Bay of Biscay. Before the Revolution it was not only the Capital of the Bordelais, but of the whole of Guienne, and one of the most opulent cities in France; and it is now the See of an Archbishop, and a grand emporium of general commerce, as well as the chief place for the export of French wines. The interior of the town is not remarkably handsome, as several of the streets are narrow and crooked, but it contains many good buildings, which give it a noble aspect from the river; and most parts of it have been greatly improved within the last half century. Among the principal of its

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public edifices are the Exchange, the Hotel de Fermes, the Palace founded by Buonaparte in 1810, an elegant Theatre, the Town-house, and the Palace once occupied by the Dukes of Guienne, but subsequently used as a House of Parliament. The Cathedral is an ancient structure, and the University has been founded about 400 years. Bourdeaux likewise contains an Academy of Arts and Sciences, instituted in 1712, with another of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture, founded in 1670, and revived in 1768. These institutions were suspended during the Revolution, but were restored to more than their former importance under the influence of Buonaparte. Various manufactures of glass, earthenware, woollen cloth, and a few other articles are carried on in the town and its neighbourhood; but it is most distinguished for its commercial transactions. The rivers Garonne and Dordogne give it access to a great range of country in the interior of the kingdom, and its maritime commerce is carried on with most quarters of the globe; and it is computed that in time of peace, its annual export of wine amounts to 100,000 pipes, with 20,000 hogheads of brandy. Piums, raisins, chestnuts, walnuts, wool, turpentine, cork, and honey are also shipped in large quantities. The chief imports are, from England, woollen stuffs, tin, lead, coal, herrings, salt provisions, leather, and dye-stuffs; from Holland and the Baltic, timber, deals, staves, copper, hemp, pitch, and shingles. The trade with the colonies usually employs a considerable number of vessels belonging to the town, besides those which sail from other ports, but which take in the whole or part of their cargoes at Bourdeaux. The articles usually sent thither are wine, brandy, salt provisions, manufactured goods, and clothing; and the return-cargoes consist chiefly of colonial produce, as sugar, coffee, cocoa, &c. The intercourse between this port and the United States is also extensive; and vessels from Bourdeaux are engaged both in the whale and cod fisheries. The course of exchange embraces Amsterdam, Antwerp, Hamburg, London, and Paris, besides all the other commercial towns of France; and its trade has great influence upon all the south-west portion of the kingdom.

Bourdeaux is an ancient town, and was the *Burdigala* of the Romans, by whom it appears to have been either founded or enlarged. In the fifth century it was in possession of the Goths, and was a subject of frequent contest between them and the Normans. Subsequent to this period, it was governed by the Dukes of Guienne, till by the marriage of the daughter of the last Duke with Louis VII. of France it was, with the rest of the Province, united to the other possessions of the Crown. This Princess being divorced by Louis, in 1152, she afterwards married Henry, Duke of Normandy, who succeeded to the throne of England, by which Bourdeaux fell into the possession of the Sovereigns of that country. It was to this city that Edward, the Black Prince, conducted John, the captive King of France, after the battle of Poitiers. He also made it the seat of his Court for about eleven years, and contributed greatly to its improvement; nor was it re-annexed to the Crown of France till the reign of Charles VII. An oppressive salt tax, and some other dissatisfactions, caused a violent insurrection in this city, for which it suffered severely in 1548. At the Revolution, Bourdeaux attached itself to the Girondists, the leaders of which were its own representa-

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tives, and became the declared opposer of the Convention; whence it shared the fate of Lyons and Marseilles, and the most respectable and opulent of its citizens were either banished or guillotined, and their property confiscated. When order was once more restored under Buonaparte, prosperity began to revisit Bourdeaux; but the renewal of war, in 1803, dissipated for a time, the flattering prospects which the inhabitants of this renowned city had begun to cherish. Bourdeaux may be considered as a town of unvarying loyalty; for it was the first city in France that opened its gates to the Bourbons, in 1814; and it also resisted the second usurpation of Buonaparte in the following year. It has now regained much of its wonted commercial activity; and a late French writer states its population at 120,000 individuals. According to Mr. Kirwan's estimate, the mean temperature of this city, as derived from the observation of five successive years, (from 1777 to 1781 inclusive,) was 56°-8; while the mean annual temperature for this latitude is 57°-6. The latitude is 44° 50' 15" N. and longitude 0° 33' 59" W. The soil in the adjacent district of Bourdeaux is sandy, but well cultivated, and produces great quantities of the wine so well known as *vin de Bourdeaux*, or *Claret*. This city has given birth to several eminent men, among whom may be mentioned Ausonius, the celebrated grammarian, rhetorician, and poet, who was made Roman Consul in 379, and died under Honorius in 392, and was buried in the church of St. Bréard, in his native city. St. Poulin, the learned Bishop of Nola, in the beginning of the fifth century, was also a native of Bourdeaux; as well as Montaigne and Montesquieu in later times.

BOURDON, A. BEARDON, or BERTMAN, (q. v.)

— And there in mourning spend their time
With wailful tunes, while wretches do howl and bemoan,
And seem to leave a burden to their plaint.
Spenser. On the Death of Sir Philip Sidney.

BOURG-EN-BRESSE, s. town of France, formerly the Capital of the small Province of Bresse, and now the chief town in the department of Ain. It stands on the banks of the river Rousouse; and has some manufactures of woollens and combs, with a trade in these and the products of the surrounding country, which supports a population of about 7,800 individuals. The church of the Augustin monastery, founded by Margaret of Austria, wife of Philip II., Duke of Savoy, was considered as a *chef d'œuvre* of architecture. The tombs of the founders, her husband, the Duke, and his mother, decorated with statues of the ancient patriarchs and prophets are particularly worthy of admiration. Bourg was the birth place of the noted Vauguels, the grammarian and critic, and of the celebrated astronomer Lalande. It is about twenty miles east of Maçon, in latitude 46° 12' 25" N., and longitude 5° 13' 45" E.

BOURGEON, v. Fr. *bourgeonner*, to bud, to *Bo'ra'gon, n.* } spring or sprout out, to put or shoot out. Cotgrave. *Serrum geminum* is rendered by Wicliif—*berrowynge* upwards. Menage says it is from *barrio*; and *barrio* from *barra*. Skioner, that it is from *bourre*, soft down, because buds are generally soft and downy. But the origin of *bourre* is still to seek.

Wost thou not well (q. d. she) but every tree in his seasonable time of *bourgeoning* shew his blossoms from within, in signe of what fruites shoulde out of him spring, els the fruit for that yere men hath delivered, be the ground neuer so good. And though the stock be mighty at y^e fol, & y^e branches seer & no *barrens* shew,

farwel y^e gardiner, he may pipe with an yre leaf, his fruit is failed.
Chaucer. Treatise of Love, book iii. fol. 316.

Good lady (q. l. than) it hath oft be seen, y^e washers & stormes so hugely have fall in *bourgeoning* time, & by y^erie drowne have beaten of the sprigs so cleen, wicthrough y^e fruit of thilk yere hath failed. It is a great grace wile *barrens* had good wetheres, their fruits forth to bring.
Id. ib. fol. 316.

Bibliche ghe that no man faile to the grace of God, that no roote of biternesse *bourgeoning* upward lette and manye be defouled by it.
Wicliif. Eborac, ch. xii.

When first on trees *burgen* the blossomes soft,
Pract forward with the sting of fertile kinde,
Against the aire cutt vy her head aloft,
And gotti redt seed so from the fruitfull winde.
Faust. Godfrey of Boulogne, book vii. st. 76.

Also they have desired, that the said image be engraffed, be gathered from the tree when it begins to be bud or *burgen*.
Holland. Pliny, v. l. fol. 312.

Furthermore looke what is the nature that forked trees have in their boughes, the same hath the vice in her eyes and *burgeons*.
Id. ib. v. l. p. 476.

Thus Chum his broode did *burgen* first,
And held the world in awe.
Warner. Albion's England, book i. ch. 1.

O that I had the fruitful heads of Hydn,
That one might *burgeon* where another fell.
Dryden. Den Schatting, act i. sc. 1.

BOURGES, an ancient city of France, formerly the Capital of the Province of Berry, and now the chief place in the department of Cher. It stands on a rising ground in a flat country, near the river Yèvre, and is divided into the old and new towns, containing together sixteen parishes, but is not peopled in proportion to its extent; the number of inhabitants having been lately stated at about 16,350. This town presents few public buildings worthy of the traveller's attention, except the Cathedral and the great tower, formerly used as a state prison. The former is one of the finest Gothic structures in France, and the Archbishop took the title of Primate of Aquitaine, a title which was disputed by the Archbishop of Bourdeaux. It was at Bourges that Charles VII. published the Pragmatic Sanction, abolished by Louis XI. who was born there in 1422, and founded its University in 1466, besides conferring several important privileges on his native place. There are some manufactures of silk, and woollen stuffs, with cottons, stockings, and caps, both in the city and its neighbourhood, which, with the products of the adjacent districts, are chiefly disposed of at its annual fairs; but a great number of the inhabitants derive their subsistence from the nobility, clergy, and students who reside in the town. Before the Revolution, Bourges was a noted place in the ecclesiastical affairs of France; and the Jesuits had at one period a celebrated establishment there. It had several monasteries, one of which was founded by Jane, daughter of Louis XI. and wife of Louis XII. This city was the *Americum* of the ancients, a name which it derived from its situation near the river Avara, now the Yèvre, or Evre; it was likewise called *Biturige* from its inhabitants. Livy considers it as one of the most ancient cities in Gaul; and Cesar, who took it by storm, after a protracted siege, found it to be one of those which were best fortified. It has at various periods given birth to several celebrated men; among whom were P. P. Deschamps, Bourdoulon, Sonnet, and Labbe, noted Jesuits; Nicholas Cathernot, a historian and critic; P. Gibieuf, a learned

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BOURGES theologian; the learned lawyer Pissani; and M. La Chapelle, of the French Academy. Bourges is about 60 miles south-east of Orleans, and 155 south of Paris, in latitude 47° 5' N. and longitude 2° 24' E.

BOURGET, a small town of the Kingdom of Sardinia, in Savoy, situated on the margin of a lake of the same name, a short distance from the Rhone. This lake, which is about seven miles long, and from two to three broad, is said to contain a species of fish, called *lucet*, not found in any other place. The inhabitants of the town are about 1200; and to a mastery are to be seen the tombs of the Dukes of Savoy; and in the neighbourhood a curious intermitting spring. Bourget is about four miles south-west of Aix.

BOURGNEUF, a town of France, on the coast of Brittany, and in the department of the Lower Loire, nearly opposite the island of Noirmoutier. It has a small but scenic harbour; with extensive salt marshes in the neighbourhood, which yield abundance of salt. On the coast there are likewise rich beds of oysters. Bourgneuf is the seat of some commercial transactions, and vessels are fitted out from its port both for the Newfoundland fishery, and the West Indies. The population is little more than 2000, and the distance south-west of Nantes is about twenty-two miles.

BOURN, A. S. *byrna*, *burn*; Dutch, *born*; Ger. *born*, *brunn*; Swe. *brunna*. Junius and Wachter think it is from the Gr. *βύρην*, to spring or flow forth. Thence from *rinna*, *be-rinna*, *brinna*, to run. See an example from Milton in V. BASKY.

She Beverly salutes, whose beauties no delight,
The fair-camomil'd flood, as riv'lets with the sight,
That she could ever stay, that gorgeous pleasure to view,
But that the brooks and bourns so hotly her pursue.

Dryden. Poly-dion, Song 28.

Dispers *bourns* suddenly brake out of the hollow places of the earth, and overflowed a great part of Canterbury citie, the streams whereof was so swift and violent, that it bare downe buildings and houses, and drowned many people.

Stow, Ann. 1271. Henry III.

BOURN, Fr. *borne*, a bound, limit, meere, march; the end or furthest compass of a thing. Cotgrave.

Of unknown etymology.

Death has summon'd it to go
Forsake to the shades below:
Dismal regions! from whose hours
No pale travellers return.

Forde. The Sparrow.

BOURNE, a market town in the county of Lincoln, the chief trade of which is woolstapling and tanning. It is the birth place of the great Lord Burleigh, and also of Dr. Dodd of unhappy notoriety. The church is a vicarage in the gift of the Earl of Farnham. Population of the whole place in 1621, 2242. Distant ninety-seven miles north from London, eight from Fotheringham, thirty-six south from Lincoln.

BOURNONITE, in *Mineralogy*, a rare ore containing lead, copper, and antimony, mineralised by sulphur, which was first discovered in Cornwall, and named after its discoverer the Comte de Bournon.

BOUSE, } The Dutch, *buys* is, (according to
Hous. } Killan,) a cup with two handles, which
on account of its size is taken up and set down with
both hands. *Buysen*, to drink out of such a cup, to

drink largely. Skinner suggests from the Gr. *βουσι*, to blow.

Her loosely leave
Is nothing clear
But rhye of cheer
Her face all buoy
Comely crinkled
Wonderously wrinkled.

Shelton. Elisor's Running.

Still as he rode, he somewhat still did ease,
And in his hand he bore a *buysing* ease,
Of which he kept so oft, that on his seat
His drunken car he scarce typhoiden ran.

Spranger. Florio's Queen, book I. can. 4. st. 22.

Now, though from the table he (Ryls) was commonly found both very active, painful, and severe; yet falling into such company, by drinking, *buysing*, and making good cheer, he suddenly became another manner of man.

North. Flitarch, fol. 387.

The guests upon the day appointed came,
Each *buysy* farmer with his sipping dame.

King. The Old Chorus.

Rum'd at his name, up rose the *buysy* sire,
And shook from out his pipe the seeds of fire.

Pope. Dunciad, book i.

Let the men of all nations, but Italy, prove
The blessings that wait upon beauty and love:
But in *buysing*, alas! one unfortunate bout
Will rob me of vigour, and leave in the rout.

Forster. Women. A Ballad.

Where'er you see ungracious Ham
Bent to disclose his father's shame,
And, spite of modest Shem and Japhet,
Persist the *buysy* sire to laugh at,
You aid the pious brother's cares:
Your delicacy salts with theirs.

Cambridge. On Palating.

BOUSTROPHEDON, *βούτρον*, an ox, *εργάζομαι*, I turn. A mode of writing Greek inscriptions, in which the second line is turned upside down and proceeds from right to left, in the same manner as oxen turn in ploughing, as in the example below.

ΤΗΝ ΤΗΑΕ ΚΕΑΡΟΥ ΑΡΡΑΚΑ
ΤΟΝΕΙ ΚΕΝΗΘ ΛΟΥΕ+ΑΝ ΟΙ

Pausanias explains the Boustrophédon in the following manner: *αρχήματα δὲ ἅλλα τὰ ἑλληνικὰ ΒΟΥΣΤΡΟΦΗΔΟΝ καλεῖται Ἐλλὰ μὲν τὸ ἐν ἐνὶ ταυτέῃ ἀπὸ τοῦ πέρατος τοῦ ἑταίρου ἐπιστρέφει τὴν αὐτὴν δὲ ἐνέπρεπ, ὡς περ ἐν ἐνὶ ἑταίρου ἐπιδέχεται. Eliot, v. 17.*

BOUT, See **BOUYT**. One *bout*, one turn; another turn, another trial.

Heve, tyrant, take a taste of my good-will,
For thus I do begin my bloody *bout*:
You cannot close but like the greeting *bout*:
It is not that same chub will bear you out.

Gay and Anon, in Percy, v. iii. p. 114.

But leave we Hek to chamber out,
Queen Mab and all her fairy rout,
And come again to have a *bout*
With Oberon yet moulting.

Dryden. Nymphs, The Court of Fairy.

We'll see when 'tis enough, when both eyes out,
Or if it wants the nice concluding *bout*:
But, if it lies too long, the crackling's pall'd,
Not by the dragging-box to be recall'd.

King. The Art of Cookery.

The prince of * * * has taken me in his train, so that I am in no danger of starving for this *bout*.

Goldsmith. A Letter from a Traveller.

BOW.

BOW, v.
 Bo'w'ing,
 Bow, n.
 Bo'w'man,
 Bo'w'yer,
 Bo'w'shot,
 Bo'w'yer,
 Bo'w'string.

A. S. *boga*; Dutch, *buggen*; Ger. *bogen*; Swed. *båga*, to bow, to bend, to curve, to crook, to arch, to incline, to decline.

Bow, the bowan, whether applied to the inclination of the body in reverence; or to an engine of war; or an instrument of music; or a particular kind of knot; or the curved part of a saddle, or of a ship; or to the arcen-ciel, (rainbow) or to bended legs; or to the branches of trees; always means one and the same thing; viz. *bended* or *curved*; and is the past tense and past participle of the A. S. *bogan*, *flectere*, *incurrere*. See Tooke, ii. 346.

Wielſ renders the Lat. *declinare*, *vitare*, (sc. to slip on one side, to escape;) by the English word to bow. It is also used (consequently) for,—To give way to yield, to submit.

Cocoon *bow'd* a doun to hym, & bow'd hym faste
 And bi bet to seme hym trewliche, þe while ys lȝf laste.
R. Gloucetter, p. 33.

The *bow-tares* shopp'e hili brake, & *bowes* sonne ech on.
Id. p. 341.

Wiltou had þri taken, Southampton also,
 Cornwale and Wales *bow'd* þam vnto.
M. Brunne, p. 39.

And brynge alle men to *bowe*, with oote bitter wordis.
Piers Planchman, p. 73.

And the day began to *bowe* doun, and the twelve *camen* and siden to him, leue the puple that thei go and turne in caruells and tounes that heri shoute that thei fynde merie: for we ben here in a desert place.
Wielſ, *Lude*, ch. 18.

But he that was mad hool, wiste not who it was; and Jhesus bow'de awy from the puple that was set in the place.
Id. *San. ch. v.*

Amyd the clois vnder the hesio all hare
 Stode there that thre son mekle face sitare,
 Nere quham there grew an rycht auld lurer tre,
 Bow'd toward the altare and litell we,
 That with his shadowe the Godlie did our heild.
G. Douglas, *Eucrois*, book ii. p. 56.

Amid the court vnder the beuen all bare
 A grent alter thre stode, by which thre grew
 An old laurel tree *bow'ing* therto, which
 With his shadow did embrace the gods.
Sarrey, *Æneid*, book ii.

By worshippinge, whether it was in the olde testament, or new, understand the *bow'ing* of a man self vpon the ground: as we ofte tyme, as we kare to our prayers *bowe* our schowes, and be as our armes & hands with our face to the ground.
Tydale, *Workes*, fol. 11.

For ever his love is ready brot,
 And whon he hie I tell hym shent.
Gower, *Conf. Am.* book ii. fol. 50.

And I seigh, and to a whyt hore, and he that sat on hym had a bowe, and a crowne was goun to him and he wente out our-conyng that he schalde ouercome.
Wielſ, *Apocalyp.* ch. vi.

And beholde there was a whyt hore, and he that sat on hym had a bowe, and a crowne was goun vnto him, and he went forth equyng that he schalde ouercome.
Holt, 156 i.

Then all the sonnes seuered them selues into oðe place, the pykes to another, and the bowes in another.
Holt, *King Henry VIII.* The 31 yere.

When the Turke was arriued, he lent his ordinance toward the towne and did no great harm, when he saw that the wallies were of that defence that ordinance did little harme, he caused all his pyones to cast yeaerly one brake our another styll, tyll they came within a bowshot of the wall.

Grafton, *King Henry VIII.* *Ann.* 14.

They were also of Martes division,
 Th' armerer, and the bowyer, and the smith,
 That forgoth sharpe swerde on his smyth.

Chaucer, *The Knight's Tale*, v. 2026.

Wylliam shot so wonderous well,
 Till his arrowes were all agone,
 And the fyre so fast agone hym fell,
 That his *bowstring* brent in two.

Adam Bell, in *Percy*.

She sees her son, her God,
 Flow with a load
 Of borrow'd sias; and swim
 In woes that were not made for him.

Crashaw, *Sainte Marie Delaram*.

So fairly dight, when she in presence came,
 She to her size made humble reverence,
 And bowed lowe, that her right weyl became,
 And added grace vnto her extrenesse.

Spenser, *Fæerie Queene*, book i. can. 12.

When he came, he saw
 Wymen viewing, ere he tried to draw
 The famous bow; which carry way he mon'd;
 Yp, and downe turning it in which he pro'd
 The flight it was in: leaping chiefly, lest
 The horses were out with warren, in a long rest:
 But what his thoughts intended, tunc so;
 And keeping such a search about the bow;
 The woones little knowing, fell to let,
 And said; past doubt, he is a man profest
 In bowyers craft, and woe quing through the wood.

Chapman, *Hamlet's Ode*, book xii. fol. 331.

And now his well-known bow the master bore,
 Turn'd on all sides, and view'd it o'er and o'er:
 Last time or worms had done the weapon wrong,
 Its owner ahead and antry'd so long.
 While some deriding,—How he turns the bow!
 Some other like it sure the man must know,
 Or else would copy; or in bow he deals;
 Perhaps he makes them, or perhaps he steals.

Pope, *Hamlet's Ode*.

Atides dart, of Helicas, the thrust out bow-and stroke,
 And through the hand, stuck in the bow.

Chapman, *Hamlet's Ode*, book xii. fol. 169.

On his bow-back he hath a battle set
 Of bristly pikes, that ever threat his feet.

Shakespeare, *Tram and Adonis*.

The bow-man (which no country hath the like)
 With his shot-arrow prorrish by his sight,
 How many score off he his foe can strike,
 Yet not to draw above his bowman's height.

Dryden, *The Battle of Agincourt*.

They use little drummes at their saddle bowes, by the sound
 wherof their horses use to runne more swiftly.

Hallist, *Fugger*, 4c. *Arch. Jenkins*, i. 314.

As touching his forme and feature of bodie, this it was. His complexion somewhat blacke or brownish, his bow-legged and short withall, whereby he both leapt and ran papping well.

Holland, *Amlethus*, fol. 188.

To go from the Cape de Sant Antonio for Hannan in the time of the north winds, thou shalt go north-west untill thou be cleare of all the shoals of the Cape, and then hale thy *bowlines*, and go as oere the wind as thou canst possibly.

Hallist, *The first voyage for the West Indies*, ii. 609.

The cane was, that our pleasure burst her *bowlines*, and foremast aboard of a ship that rode at Detford.

Id., *Fugger*, 4c. *M. Freiburger*, v. iii. fol. 29.

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For once it was my dismal hap to hear
A Sibyl old, low-browed with crooked age
That far events fold wisely could perceive,
And in time's long and dark perspective gleam
Foresee what future days should bring to pass.

Milton. *Paradise Lost*, book iii. l. 203.

See, though from far,
His thousands, in what martial equipage
They issue forth, steel bows, and shafts their arms
Of equal dread in flight, or in pursuit.

Id. *Paradise Regained*, book iii. l. 203.

But I shall instance only in the Greek and Syriac churches:
In the Greek they have their ordinary bowings, which they properly call *proskynesis*, worshippings; and their extraordinary, which they call *prothesis*; which are of two sorts, the lesser and the greater; the lesser are, when they bow their heads only to the ground; the greater, when they lie prostrate upon it.

Beveridge. *Sermon* v. vol. i.

For the string is always ready upon their bow to let fly this arrow (ill report) with an incredible swiftness, through city and country, for fear the innocent man's justification should overtake it.

Tillotson. *Sermon* xlii.

Their instruments were various in their kind,
Some for the bow, and some for breathing wind.
Dryden. *The Flower and the Leaf*.

At this, resembling heart, the prophet said:
Nay hearken, unshaken, nor vows unpaid,
On Greece, accursed, this dire contagion bring;
Or call for vengeance from the longer king.

Id. *Homage's Hymn*, book i.

Doth not the os obedient bow
His patient neck, and draw the plough.

Cotton. *Fable* i.

But pays his debts, and visit, when 't is due;
His character and gloves are ever clean,
And then, he can suit his bowing dress.

Young. *Love of Fame*, *Satire* 4.

There the egyptian, and he
Who, with bare-headed and obsequious bows,
Begs a warm office, doom'd to a cold jail
And great penitence, if his patron frown.

Cowper. *The Turk*, book iii.

In Turkey, where the place, where the fortune, where the head itself, are so insecure, that scarcely any have died in their beds for ages; so that the bow-string in the natural death of Bashaws, yet in no country is power and distinction (precavious enough, God knows, in all) sought for with such boundless avidity, as if the rule of place was enhanced by the danger and insecurity of its tenure.

Berke. *Speech on a Bill for shortening the duration of Parliaments*.

These, with new boys glad Phœbe's nest bestow'd,
When Pylhon smok beneath her smoky god.

Herrick. *Thicket of Statues*, book vi.

The Bow appears to be one of the most ancient, as it is one of the most universally adopted weapons of offence. Without implicitly embracing the opinion of Nicholas de Lyra, that Lamech killed Cain with a shaft, we still have the authority of Scripture for the very early use of the Bow. Ishmael is said to have dwelt in the desert and to have been an archer. (*Gen.* xx. 21.) By which statement the sacred historian most probably meant to imply, that he used the Bow in hunting. Moses himself has enjoyed the reputation of its invention on the authority of Josephus; but it seems as if almost every nation in which it has been used, has attributed the discovery to its traditional founder. The Greeks indeed went still higher, and fathered it on a God. The chief epithet by which their poets have distinguished Apollo refer to his skill in archery; and his first pupils are thought to have been the Cretans, whom all historians describe as particularly dexterous in shooting.

The oldest Bow which has been described to us

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particularly, is that of Pandarus. (*Il.* Δ. 104.) The hero had formed it from the horn of a mountain goat killed by his own band. This bow was sixteen palms in length. It had been accurately polished and tipped with gold. In the east the horns of the antelope are still in like manner fashioned into bows. They consist of two pieces firmly joined at the centre, and seldom exceed four feet in length.

The Grecian Bow is observed by Montfaucon (iv. 68.) to be uniformly sculptured in the same manner in the monuments which are left to us; and he describes it as closely resembling the letter Z. It was in the extremities at which the string was fastened (*caput*) that gold was commonly applied; the string itself was sometimes of horse hair (*crinis*), sometimes, as in that of Pandarus, of an ox-hide thong, (*ovis* *crinis*.) In drawing it the Greeks differed from modern use, and from that of the ancient Persians also, by returning the hand not to the ear, but to the right breast. Procopius has described the Persian mode as similar to our own, *καὶ οὕτως ἐκ τῆς χειρὸς τοῦ πρὸς τὸν ὤμω*, *καὶ ἀπὸ τοῦ πλάτους τοῦ ὤμου τοῦ ἐξ ἑαυτοῦ*.

The Scythian Bow, the invention of which was attributed by the natives to their great progenitor Scythas, a son of Jupiter, was distinguished by its remarkable curvature. When unbent it was almost semicircular; when strung the ends which before were inflected, were drawn on the opposite sides, and it differed little from the ordinary Bow of Greece. The Bows used by the modern Tatars in our own days, are of very similar construction. In its use the Scythians are said to have been ambidexterous.

The Roman *Sagittarii* did not form part of the regular legion, but were attached to it as light troops. In his Gallic campaign, Cæsar makes frequent mention of his Numidian and Cretan archers, and although they are not expressly stated to have been employed in his invasion of Britain, it is but reasonable to suppose that they followed him in this, one of his most hazardous expeditions. In the time of the succeeding Emperors, we know from Dion Cassius, and other authorities, that archers formed part of the garrison of our island; and as the Bow is not included by Cæsar in his minute enumeration of the warlike accoutrements of the natives, we may believe that he first introduced the weapon to their knowledge.

The Bow was never considered a national weapon in France, and was used more as an instrument of the chase than of war. Even as early as the days of Philippe Auguste, the Long Bow and Cross Bow was generally disused. The second Lateran Council in 1139 had peremptorily anathematized *ARTEM ILLAM MONTIFRANUM ET DEO OBIDILEM Balistiarum et Sagittariorum*. The archers employed by the detestable Louis XI. were Scotch, and in the place of them he substituted the Swiss infantry in 1480; they were however restored in the succeeding reign. Later than the time of Francis I. no mention is made of archery in the French military service.

Little reliance is to be placed on the authority of Ossian; or, from his appeals to the bended yew, the Bow of his fathers, and the sounding quiver of Morri, we might place the use of archery in North Britain as early as the third century, the date claimed for the visionary bard. Strutt, (*Sports and Pastimes*, plate iv.) upon whose diligence and accuracy the most implicit dependence may be placed, has exhibited two drawings

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of archers taken from a Saxon manuscript of the eighth century. During the Danish invasion, Ingulph records the cruel murder of Edmund, King of the East Angles, who was shot at as a mark (*in quantum signum ad sagittam*) till his conquerors satiated their barbarous revenge by his death. In the well-known story of Alfred and the cottager's wife, as related by Ascerius in his "*Gesta*" of this great King, the royal fugitive is described as sitting by the fire with his Bow and arrows.

Antiquarians have expressed their doubts whether it was the Long Bow or the Cross Bow which was used with so much effect by the Conqueror at the Battle of Hastings. Mr. Daines Barrington (*Archæologia*, vii. 46.) inclines strongly to the latter opinion. The instrument by which the second William fell is also similarly doubted. By the laws of Henry I. (cap. 88.) any one who practising with arrows should kill a bystander, is freed from the guilt of murder; and this appears to be the first statutable notice of the Bow in England.

In the wars of Henry II. with the Irish, his success is greatly attributed by Giraldus Cambrensis to the employment of the Long Bow. The same author notes some remarkable anecdotes of the extraordinary skill which the Welsh at this time possessed in the use of the said weapon. He speaks of their arrows on one occasion penetrating through unken portish four fingers in breadth; and on the assertion of William de Breusa himself, he mentions a horseman who was fastened to his saddle on both sides by two arrows, each of which respectively passed through the opposite hips.

In the fifteenth year of Edward III. an ordinance is found instructing the Sheriffs of most counties to provide five hundred white Bows, and five hundred bundles of arrows, for the intended war with France. These orders are frequently repeated during this reign; and in one instance the Sheriff of Gloucestershire is directed to furnish five hundred pointed bows, as well as the same number of white. From another paper it seems that the white Bows were sixpence cheaper than the pointed; and the bundle (*garbus*) of arrows is shown by Du Cange to have averaged twenty-four in number. The battle of Cressy was won by the Long Bow; our archers were drawn up in triangles behind the ranks. The rain which fell during the engagement had damaged the strings of the Genoese arbalesters, of whom 15,000 were in the field. The English Bows during the storm were unstung and protected, and therefore fit for immediate service. At Poitiers the Long Bow was equally successful, and in both these battles the French cavalry was swept away by the English archers. Nevertheless within seven years after the latter victory in 1363, we find a Royal proclamation forbidding many other sports and enjoining the pastime of archery, which it was feared had been too much neglected. Under the reign of Richard II. Hollinshead informs us that the Genoese requested a body of archers from England to assist in an expedition against the Saracens on the coast of Barbary, where they performed good and honourable service. The Royal guard of archers at this time is stated by Stow to have amounted to 4000 men, who on one occasion, to the great terror of the Members, surrounded the House of Parliament "with their Bows bent, their arrows notched, and drawing ready to shoot." In the twelfth year of this King, an Act was passed obliging servants to shoot with Bows and arrows on holidays and Sundays; and three years afterwards

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the attendants of the Royal household are ordered never to travel without these weapons, and to take every opportunity of exercising them.

In the domestic broils of Henry the Fourth's reign, not two particulars relative to archery have reached us. Grafton records that the Prince of Wales was wounded in the face by an arrow at the battle of Shrewsbury; and after an affair at Cirencester, fourscore archers of the town, among whom certain "good women" are enumerated, are substantially thanked for their services. Six bucks and a hoghead of wine was to be their annual portion. (Rymer's *Fœdera*, A. D. 1400.) The Chronicler of the victory won over the Scots at Halidon Hill, has furnished a vivid description of the powers of the English Bow. "The Lord Percies archers did withall deliver their deadly arrowes so lively, so courageously, so grievously, that they ranne through the men of armes, bored the helmets, pierced their very swords, heat them down to the earth, and easily slat those who were more alightly armed through and through."

The improvement in gunnery in the early part of the reign of Henry V. directed that monarch's attention principally to fire-arms; and orders are still to be met with, *De equis pro curiaque gascorum Regis capiendis*, and *De suo transmittendo gunpowder versus portus exterus*, as far back as the year 1413. The victory at Agincourt, however, two years afterwards, was entirely attributed to the Long Bow; and by a Proclamation in 1417, the Sheriffs are enjoined to pluck from every goose six wing feathers, (which the arrow-makers determine should be the second, third and fourth of each wing of a goose two or three years old, although they are better if dropped naturally,) to be paid for by the King.

Edward IV. took much pains to improve the state of archery in Ireland. In his fifth year he passed an Act that every Englishman and every Irishman dwelling with Englishmen, should have an English Bow of his own height, of yew, wych, hazel, ash, awburne, (alder) or any other reasonable tree. From this we may decide upon the usual length of the arrow, which is commonly half as long as the Bow. The cloth-yard therefore was only employed by a man six feet high, and few common men drew above twenty-four inches. Batts were to be raised in every township, and on holidays the inhabitants were compelled to shoot up and down, under the penalty of a halfpenny for each omission. The high estimation which archers still retained is evident from their pay. It was stipulated that 1000 Bowmen, whom the Duke of Burgundy required in the fourteenth of Edward IV. should receive sixpence a day clear: a sum which was greater than that received by a common soldier, in the commencement of the reign of George III. But the King knew the value of his troops. In his subsequent Acts relative to Archery, the preamble runs thus: "whereas the defence of this land is much by Archers," and "whereas many victorious acts have been accomplished by Archers."

In the Scottish war Edward provided both ordinance and archers, and although fire-arms were becoming more manageable, it does not appear, that even yet the use of the Bow was neglected. The price of Bowstaves was regulated by a Royal ordinance at three shillings and four-pence each. One of Richard III's first statutes, directs that all vessels from Venice,

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A portrait of Henry VII. is mentioned by D. Barzington, in which that King is painted shooting at butts. Among the Harleian manuscripts, (365. fol. 96.) is a poem written in praise of the Princess Elizabeth, afterwards his Queen, in which her future husband is thus described:

See where he shooteth at the butts
And with him are Ladies three;
His wealth a garbe of valence blades
And it is coiled above the knee.

The sporting losses of Princes were very carefully recorded in those days. In a manuscript in the Remembrancer's office, two memoranda occur, Ann. 7. and 9. of Henry VII. The first "lost to my Lord Moring, at buttes, six shillings and eight-pence;" the second "paid to Sir Edward Boroughs, thirteen shillings and four-pence, which the King lost at buttes with the Cross Bows." His eldest son Prince Arthur, was fond of practising with the London Bowmen, at Mile End. The Captain of the band was honoured with the Prince's name and title, and the brethren were called his Knights.

A statute in the seventh year of this reign, complains of the negligence of the arrow-smiths; and orders, under pain of forfeiture and imprisonment, "That all the heads for arrows and quarrels after this time to be made, shal be wel boyled or brased, and hardened at the points with stele;" and "marked with the mark of him that made the same." In 1488, this King levied a large body of archers for service in Brittany, and reviewed them before their embarkation: and in one of his statutes to encourage the exercise of the Long Bow, the preamble is still more laudatory than those already cited in Edward IV's reign; "whereas the Long Bow has been much used in this realm, whereby honour and victory has been gotten against outward enemies, the realm greatly defended, and become much more to dread of all Christian Princes, by reason of the same." &c. (19. H. VII. c. 4.)

Several Acts were issued by Henry VIII. for the encouragement of archery, and the prohibition of other games which were represented to interfere with its cultivation. The 33 Henry VIII. contains numerous regulations, of which we shall give an abstract. All men, excepting such as were sixty years old or more, or who by lameness or other infirmity, claimed exemption, Ecclesiastics and Judges, were enjoined to shoot with the Long Bow, and to have a Bow and arrows provided continually in their houses. Every father of a family was to furnish a Bow and two shafts for each of his man-children above seven years of age, and also for each of his servants; but in the latter case, he is permitted to deduct the expenses from their wages. At seventeen, the young men are to provide a Bow and four shafts for themselves; if a father or master suffer any of his sons or certain of his servants

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But it was not the improvement in fire-arms only, which contributed henceforward to supersede the use of the Long Bow as a national weapon. The precise date and origin of the Arbalist or Cross Bow has not been transmitted to us: but it seems easily derivable, from the larger species of *Bullata*, which we have already described under the article *ARTILLERY*. Vegetius, indeed, is inclined to consider the *Scorpio* to be the same as the Cross Bow, *Scorpiones dicuntur quas nos manuballistas vocant*, (iv. 23.) and in later writers, the modern weapon is termed *Scorpio manubalis*. A representation of an instrument somewhat resembling the Cross Bow, is given by Montfaucon, (iv. p. 79.) And Pritiscus, in his *Lexicon*, has assigned the introduction of it in the Roman armies, to the time of Constantine or a little earlier. Among the moderns, the Genoese in particular acquired great reputation for their skilful management of this weapon: and though not distinctly mentioned, it was probably one of those instruments which they are said to have employed with so much success at the siege of Jerusalem in 1100. During the Italian civil wars of the thirteenth century they maintained their fame: and the tragical catastrophe which befel five hundred of his countrymen, who were sent against the Milanese in 1243, is recorded by the historian Foglietta. Being placed in the front, they were taken prisoners after effecting great havoc among the enemy. The conquerors, in barbarous retaliation, put out an eye and cut off an arm from each, and then dismissed them. (Thes. Hist. It. l. 332.)

Strutt is of opinion, that the Cross Bow was introduced into England about the thirteenth century. It is probable, that this instead of the Long Bow was the Norman weapon at the battle of Hastings; and a passage which Nisoley has cited in his *Essay on Archery*, from Sir John Hayward's *Life of William the Conqueror*, leaves little doubt, that the King himself employed it. "The Duke," says his biographer, "was stately and majestic in his figure; of good stature, but in strength admirable, insomuch as no man was able to draw his Bow, which he could bend sitting upon his horse, stretching out the string with his foot." To the larger Cross Bow a thong or stirrup was attached, in order that the string might be drawn

BOW. by the foot. *Ballistæ duplici tenet pede missa sagitta;* and William's strength consisted in being able to bend this, even when on horseback: the foot being employed in bending the Cross Bow, but not in the Long Bow. The arrows shot from Cross Bows, were called *quarrels* (*corraus*). The *bolt*, which by some writers, is confined to the Cross Bow, appears to have been equally used for the Long Bow also. In Holme's *Academy of Armory*, (iü. 17. MS.) this bolt is defined "an arrow with a pound and half round boh at the end of it, with a sharp pointed arrow proceeding therefrom." Those with the blunt boh only, were called *bird-bolts*, an instrument which as many of our readers may remember, gives its name to a sign (corrupted into Bird and Bolt) opposite Emanuel College, Cambridge. The *quarrel* was sometimes trimmed with plates of brass or iron instead of feathers. It had various heads, but usually it was tipped with a large pyramidal iron. The French used a species of *quarrel* called *Fieretot*, feathered like our present arrows, which spun round as it flew.

Richard I. was expert in the use of the Cross Bow; and he lost his life by one while he was reconnoitring the castle of Chalus. Speed has minutely described the shot, "when Richard was at the siege of this castle, an archer standing on the wall, and seeing his time charged his steel Bow with a square arrow or quarrel, making first prayer to God, that he would direct the shot, and deliver the innocency of the besieged from oppression. Whereupon discharging it as the King was viewing the castle, within the distance of such an engine; and the King, upon hearing the Bow go off, stooping with his head, was mortally wounded in the shoulder." (p. 484.) The Chroniclers still further relate, that Richard gave immediate orders for assault, took the place, and hanged all the garrison, with the exception of Bertrand de Gordon, the soldier who had wounded him, whom he reserved for a severe execution. As death approached, he sent for the soldier, and asked him what he had ever done to him, to provoke such revenge. Gouardon intrepidly replied, "what have you done to me? You killed, with your own hands, my father and my two brothers; and you intended to have hanged myself. I am now in your power, and you may take revenge, by inflicting on me the most severe torments. But I shall endure them all with pleasure, provided I can think that I have been so happy as to rid the world of such a nuisance." Richard was struck by the courage of his answer, and dismissed the spokesman with a largess of a hundred shillings sterling. We wish the history concluded here: after the King's death, Mareschal, an officer in his confidence, and leader of the Brabançons, seized the unhappy Bertrand, flayed him alive, and hanged him. A passage in Brompton makes it not improbable, that the Cross Bow was the very weapon with which Richard had killed the relations of the French soldier. *Ipsæ (Ricardus) squidem hoc genus sagittandi, quod arcubolatarum dicitur, jam dudum sapientem in armis, ad dicitur, revocavit: unde et in eo peritus plures maxima propria premit, quo et ipse postmodum in terra propria supersignatus et insinipatus interit.*

neque enim lex aequalis ulla est

Quam necis artifices arte perire sua.

To the troublous reign of this Richard, however, are referred the restes of the most renowned of all English archers. Robin Hood; that delight of ballist-

makers and the *crux* of antiquarians. We could willingly dilate upon the circumstances of the bold outlaw, whose acts appear to have been the subject of popular song as early as the reign of Edward III.; whose history, for a long time, has been considered as wrapped in impeachable uncertainty; (Sir J. Hawkins, *Hist. of Music*, iü. 416,) whose very existence has been deemed imaginary, notwithstanding the high respect which Latimer shewed him from the pulpit; (Vith sermon before Edward VI. Ap. 19. fol. 75,) and whose rightful claims to the Earldom of Huntingdon, having been as much doubted as those of his descendant the present illustrious Hans William, have in the end been as firmly established in the person of Robert Fitz-Outh, by the diligence and sagacity of Stukeley. (*Palaographia Britannica*, No. 11. 1746.) But the subject would lead us too far, and the reader may be referred to the works which we have already cited: to the collections of the indefatigable Ritson; to the twenty-sixth song of Drayton's *Polyolbion*; to the brief account given by Stow; and to Fuller's *Worthies*. From the last author we shall borrow a few words, "Many talk of Robin Hood, who never shot out of his Bow; that is, many discourse, or prate rather, of matters wherein they have no skill or experience. This proverb is now extended all over England, though originally of Nottinghamshire extraction. He was an arch robber, and withal an excellent archer; though surely the poet gave a sway to the loose of his arrow, making him shoot one a cloth yard long at full forty-score mark, for compass never higher than the breast, and within less than a foot of the mark." We cite this passage as a caution against the legend and ballads contained in the *Garlund*: which though some of them probably are of remote antiquity, yet bear internal evidence of having been accommodated, from time to time, to the popular phraseology of the day.

In succeeding reigns the Cross Bow was so much used, that it threatened to supplant the Long Bow in popular estimation, inasmuch, that many Royal ordinances were issued for the protection of the latter. One (19. H. vii. c. 4.) provides, that "no man shall shoot with a Cross Bow without the King's licence, except he be a Lord, or have two hundred mark land." Henry VIII. (6. H. vii. c. 13.) forbids any man to keep a Cross Bow in his house under a penalty of ten pounds: and a second time prohibited the use of the weapon in consequence of a complaint made by the Bowyers, the fletchers (fledgers) the arrow-head makers and the strigiers, stating that many unlawful games were practised in the open fields, to the detriment of public morals, and the great decay of archery. The use of the Cross Bow, however, under certain restrictions, was again permitted by an act of the twenty-ninth of the same reign. Certain overseers of the science of artillery, (under which title all shooting was then included,) were appointed; and a perpetual corporation, under the style of the fraternity of Saint George, (of which the present Artillery Company is the lineal descendant,) was instituted and chartered for its support. The members were permitted to wear any colours except purple and scarlet; a privilege which was much coveted during the prevalence of rigid sumptuary laws. No fur, however, was to be seen on their dresses, of greater price than that of the martlet. They might shoot all birds but pheasants and herons; and in any place except within two miles

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BOW. of a Royal palace. Places were set aside, in which they might shoot at marks, butts, fowls, or the game of Popinjay. This last amusement was aiming at a stuffed bird, (a corruption from the Spanish *popagayo*, a parrot,) fixed on a lofty pole. A remnant of it is to be found practised in our own days in the parish of Kilwinning, in Ayrshire. The mark is now projected a few feet from the top of the church tower; and the sportsmen shoot perpendicularly, resting their left foot against its base. The custom probably was introduced by their King, James I. who, during his captivity, became much enamoured of English archery: for it does not appear, that before this reign the Scots paid much attention to the Bow. Ascham quotes a national proverb, which proves that they allowed themselves to be much inferior to the English in its use, "every English Archer beareth under his girdle twenty-four Scotte."

In the Act of Henry VIII. just referred to, the following remarkable provision occurs, resembling that already cited from the laws of Henry I.; and both sufficiently prove the high estimation in which the art of shooting was held. In case any person should be wounded or slain in those sports, with an arrow shot by one or other of the archers, he that shot the arrow was not to be sued or molested, if he had, immediately before the discharge of the weapon, cried out "fast," the signal usually given on such occasion.

Henry VIII. himself excelled in the use of the Long Bow, and as Holinshed reports, shot as well as any of his guard. One of these attained an honour which was kept in remembrance among the London Archers, long after the decease of the capricious Monarch who bestowed it. In a splendid shooting match at Windsor, just before the close of the exercise, as one Barlow, of the Royal guards, was preparing to shoot, the King, in order to encourage him, cried "beat them all Barlow, and thou shalt be Duke of Archers." Barlow won the prize, and a mock elevation to the peerage took place, by which, from his residence at the time, he was created Duke of Shore-ditch. Similar titles were afterwards largely extended among the company of London Archers; and we read of Marquesses of Clerkenwell, Islington, Hoxton and Shacklewell; Earls of Pancras, &c. &c. In the print representing the meeting of Henry VIII. and Francis I. in the field of cloth of gold, the English King's attendants are principally mounted archers. But the high repute of archery, in these times, will be perceived when we observe, that the art was not thought unworthy of solean commendation from the pulpit. In the same sermon preached by Latimer before the King, which has been already quoted, the great reformer after inveighing against the vices of the age thus proceeds:

"The arte of shynge hath ben in tymes past much esteemed in this realme, it is a gift of God, that he hath geven us to excell all other nacions withal. It hath bene God's instrumente, wherby he hath geven us many victories agaynst our enemies. But now we have taken up borynge in townes, instede of shynge in the fyeldes. A wonderous thyng, that so excelleste a gift of God, should be so lyttel esteemed. I desire you, my Lordes, even as you love honour and glorye of God, and intende to remove his indignacion, let there be sent fourth some proclamation, some sharpe proclamation, to the Justices of Pence, for they do not thyr dutye. Justices now be no Jus-

vol. xviii.

BOW. tices; ther be many good netes made for thys matter already. Charge them upon thyr allegiance, that thys singular benefitt of God may be practised; and that it may not be turned into bollynge and glossynge, and borynge wythin the townes; for they be negligent in executing these laws of shynge. In my tyme my poore father was as diligent to teach me to shute, as to learne any other thyng; and so I thinke other menne dyd thyr children. He taught me howe to drawe, howe to lny my bodye in my Bowe, and not to drawe with strength of armes as other nacions do; but wyth strength of bodye. I had my Bowes bought me according to my age and strenght; as I lnerased in them, so my Bowes were made bigger and bigger: for men shall never shute well, excepte they be brought up in it. It is a goodly arte, a hole-some kynde of exercise, and much commended in phisyke. Marcellus Sicinus, in his booke *de triplici vita* (it is a great while sins I red hym nowe;) but I remember he commendeeth thys kynde of exercise, and sayth, that it wrestleth agaynst manye kyndes of diseases. In the reverence of God, let it be continued. Let a proclamation go furth, charginge the Justices of Pence, that they see such artes and statutes kept as were made for thys purpose." Latimer's *Sermons*, Black Letter, 1549, 12mo.

Edward VI. as appears from his own manuscript Journal in the British Museum, was fond of the Bow. Marymore than once commends her father's statutes in favour of Archery; and Elizabeth passed one statute, (8 Eliz. 10.) to regulate the price of Bows, and a second, (12 Eliz. 14.) to permit the importation of Bow staves from the Hans Towns and the East.

Roger Ascham had already, in 1541, published his *Toxophilus, or the Schole or Perfitious of Shooting*, the most standard English work on the Bow. This good and learned man during his residence at Cambridge, indulged much in the amusement of archery, as a relaxation from his severer labours. Those who see no virtue but in austerity, censured him for loss of time and frivolity; and the *Toxophilus* his defence from these charges. In this work, says Johnson, he joins the praise with the precept of archery; and he has sufficiently vindicated it as an innocent, salutary, useful, and liberal diversion. He had yet another object, the reformation of our English style, from the fantastic exoticisms which conceit and affectation had largely engrafted on it. The book was presented to Henry VIII. and procured its author a yearly pension of ten pounds, a sum which the biographer of Ascham has calculated as equivalent to one hundred in our own days.

The *Toxophilus* is a dialogue in two books between two scholars, the one Philologus, wholly given to books, who despises the use of the Bow as a matter "naught, unworthy, and barren;" the other, Toxophilus, who tempers his ardour for literary pursuits, by this "holsome, honest, and manerlye pastime." This difference of opinion leads to an argument in which Toxophilus runs through the history and the pænegyric of his favourite art. As an instance of the great who had practised it, he cites the epitaph of Darius from Strabo.

Darius the Kinge lyeth buried here

That in shootynge and rydynge had never pere.

He also states from Suetonius, that "Domitian the Emperor, was so cunninge in shootynge that he conde

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shote betwixt a mans fingers standing asfarre off, and never hurte him ; and that Commodus was a " sure hand in it." Here we thinke Philologus was the advantage, for he replies, that the two Emperours whom his opponent has produced, are " such an ungracious couple, as a man shall not finde agayne, if he raked all hell for them." The amateur then fortifies himself on the wholesomeness of the exercise, " that labour which is in shootinge of all other is best, both because it encreaseth strengthe, and preserveth health most ; being not vehemente, but moderate, not overlaying anye one part with wearinesse, but softlye exercisinge everye parte with equalnesse ; as the arms and breastes with drawinge, the other parts with goinge, beinge not so painfull for the labour, as pleasaunt for the pastime, which exercise, by the iudgment of the best physicians, is most allowable." Next he adverts to his scholarlike nature, first he says it is under good patronage of learning, for as Callinachus signifies,

Both merie songs and good shootinge delighteth Apollo.
Or as the God himselfe states, in the *Alkestis* of Euripides,

It is my wont alwayes my bowe with me to beare.

Therefore a learned Bowman is just as much the servant of Phoebus as of Robin Hood. To say nothing of the love which the nine Muses had for Eros, with whom they " kepte companye," and used " daile to shoote together in the Mount Parnassus," inasmuch that when he died, Jupiter through their prayers, translated him to the sign Sagittarius. " The fustener of shootinge," he continues, " is labour, that companion of vertue, the mainteyner of honestye, the encrease of healtbe and wealthinesse, which admitteth nothinge, in a manner, into his companye that standeth not with vertue and honestye." " The companions of shootinge, by providentness, are good heede givinge, true meetinge, honest comparison, which thinges agree with vertue verye well." He then passes to its uses in war, and here arises a keepe encounter of wits on either side, in the application of passages from ancient historians and poets, in praise and vituperation of the Bow. Passing on to modern times, Toxophilus affirms that " shootinge is the chiefe thinge wherewith God suffereth the Turke to punish our naughtye lyvinge withall," and narrows many of the choice deeds of English archery. After urging the necessity of rules and instruction in the art, if a man intends to shoot well, he hastens to comply with the request of Philologus, to shew him the theory as " far forth as he has noted and marked."

The second book is consequently more practical, and from it we shall endeavour to select all which appears explanatory of technical terms and particular precepts. To hit the mark two things are requisite, to shoot straight and to keep a length, or rightly measured distance. The instruments of shooting are, 1st, a *bracer*, or close sleeve, laced upon the arm. This both saves the arm from the stroke of the string, and the doublet from wearing, and also enabling the string to glide quickly off, gives a sharper shoot than the bare sleeve would do. Ascham nevertheless prefers so great a tension of the Bow as will prevent the string from touching the arm at all, and thus will supersede the necessity of any bracer. A good bracer should have neither buckles, nills, nor agillettes, (*sigillettes*, tags) for any of these may raze and

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fret the Bow, and stop the ready passage of the string. 2d. A shootinge glove to save the fingers. The first finger and the ringman require most protection. Leather next the skin grows hard and chafes, therefore scarlet, (which was once supposed to possess peculiar medicinal virtues. See Volpone, iii. 1.) is good to sew within the glove. The fingers should be cut short, and trimmed with some ointment, that the string may glide well away ; and great care should be taken to abstain from shooting when the hands are galled, for no man can then shoot to any purpose ; and by repeated hurts the fingers will become so chafed that it will be " longe and longe to or you shoote agayne." Two precautions are recommended to prevent rubbing off the skin of the shaft-hand by holding the nock too hard. One, to sew a goose-quill spinnetted (slit and opened) and sewed against the nocking, betwixt the lining and the leather ; the other to have a roll of leather sewed between the fingers, at the setting-on of them, which shall keep them asunder so far as to hinder them from holding the nock immediately fast. We doubt whether either of these precepts is sufficiently clear to save the tyro from a faying. 3d. The string. This is of two kinds ; the great string, surer, more stable to the mark, but slower ; the little string, not so sure, and fitter to shoot far than to prick near. In stringing, the fit length of the Bow is to be marked ; and the nocking of the Bow must be observed, that it be not too sharp for the string. The string must be set on perfectly straight ; and discarded as soon as it begins to wear even a little. If the Bow be strung with a little bend it shoots farther and faster. If it has a great bend the shooting is easier, no bracer is needed, the shaft fether is unhurt, and the mark more readily spied. Ascham, therefore, recommends " a good bigge bend, a shaftment (half a foot) and two fingers at the least." 4th. The Bow. The best wood is yew. The Bow should be " small, longe, heavye, and stronge, lyinge straighte, not windinge, nor marred with knotte gauls, winde-shake, wem, (spot,) frest, (canker,) or piack." The colour should be uniform. Those made of a bough for the most part are knotty, weak, and seldom wear to a good colour, the plant is better ; but the bole of a tree is best of all. It should be carefully wrought with the grain, rubbed every day with a woollen cloth well waxed, and well guarded from the damp. The case is better of wool than of leather, for leather imbibes moisture. It should never stand near a stone wall, nor a fire. Frost is a great enemy to a Bow ; and in winter, if a man shoots, he should gradually temper the Bow with friction before a fire. 5th. The shaft. This has three parts ; the *stéle* (*stave*, stalk) the fether, and the head. The *stéle* is commonly made of some of the following woods, " Brasell, Turkie woode, fusticke, sugarcane, hardbeame, beche, asche, oake, servistree, hulder, blackthorne, herrye, elder, aspe, malowe. The four first make dead, heavy, lumpishe, hobbling shaftes." Hulder, blackthorne, servistree, beche, elder, asche, and snowe make " holow, starting, scudding, gaddlinge shaftes." The other woods are better, and of all ash is the best. The *stéle* should be made with the grain, and well seasoned against warping. In a small shaft it should be free from knots. The shaft should be made round, nothing flat, without gall or wem. Wide nocks are to be avoided. Shafts are sometimes pierced with

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heavy wood towards the nock to counterbalance the weight of the head, sometimes they are loaded also with lead : Ascham, however, considers the feather sufficient to bear up any necessary weight. The feather is the most important article in shooting. The Lycians use the only people on record who have used arrows without feathers, (*ἀνέκοντες αὐτὰρ ἄνθρωποι*, Her. vii. 37.) a feather is the only fit substance which can be used for the purpose to which it is applied; and of all feathers a goose's is the best, that of peacock's being only ornamental. The feather of an old goose is fittest for a dead shaft, that of a young goose for a swift shaft; and there is much the same distinction between the goose and the gander. The pinion feather is the choicest. The colour matters little. In feathering, that which stands above in right nocking is called the cock feather; and the position of this must be observed, in order that the other feather may not run on the Bow : the cock feather, therefore, is generally black or grey, that it may be easily distinguished. The length of the feather should depend upon the weight of the shaft, (this is usually one ounce, and in technical language is said to weigh so many shillings.) The heads of arrows have varied among different nations. The Greeks tied their heads on with string, and used to carry their shafts without heads till they wanted them for use. Of the first we have a proof when Menelaus is wounded by Pandarus,

*Τρυφῶν δὲ καὶ δούρι ἀρπυγίῳ Μενέλαον,
'Ὅν ἐ' ἔλεον ὑπὲρ τε καὶ ἄρσενος ἔδωκε δούριον,
'Αφ' ὧρον αἰ δούριον ἐπὶ στήθεσσι δριμύτη.*

Iliad. B. 150.

So when Penelope brings down the Bow of Ulysses to the suitors, she carries also a case containing iron and brazen heads. The word, indeed, *δούριον* is used no where else, hat its meaning is obvious.

*Τῷ δ' ἄρ' ἂν ἀρπυγιάδης φέρον δούριον, ἔρθε σιτήρον
κίλτο πάλιν καὶ χαλκόν.* Od. 4. 61.

Julius Pollux (l. 10.) distinguishes between the *δούριον*, the broad arrow head, or swallow tail, and the *πύλον*, or forked head. The English head, which has smaller bars than either, is the best of all, since it enables the shaft in its flight to revolve more freely. The head ought to be set full on, that is with the wood full up to the end of the head; and close on with wood enough on every side of the shaft to fill the head. Short heads are better than long, an assertion which is confined to archery only.

The principal divisions in the art of shooting, are "standing, nocking, drawing, holding, and lowering." The defects in them Ascham has painted so virally, that we must give them in his own words.

"All the discommodities which ill custome hath gradded in archers, can neither be quickly pulled oute, nor yett some reckoned of now, there be so many. Some shooteth his head forward, as though he would bite the marke : another stareteth with his eyes, as though they should flye out ; another winketh with one eye and loketh with the other ; some make a face with writhing their mouth and countenance so, as though they were doinge you wotte what ; another blereth oute his tongue ; another byteth his lippes ; another boldeth his necke awrye. In drawinge, some fet such a compasse, as though they would turne

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about, and blesse all the field ;* other heave theyr hand now up now downe, that a man cannot deerne whereth they would shoote : another waggeth the upper end of his Bow one way, the nether onde another way. Another will stand pointing his shaft at the marke a good while, and, by and by, he will geve him a whippe, and away or a man wytte. Another maketh such a wrestlinge with his gere, as though he were able to shoote no more as long as he lived. Another draweth softlye to the middes, and, by and by, it is gone you cannot know howe. Another draweth his shaft lowe at the breast, as though he would shoote at a roving marke, and, by and by, he lifteth his arme up pricke height. Another maketh a wrynelinge with his lacke, as though a man pinched him behinde. Another coureth downe, and layeth out his buttockes, as though he should shoote at crows. Another setteth forwarde his left legge, and draweth back with heade and shoulders, as though he pulled at a rope, or else were afraied of the mark. Another draweth his shaft well, until within two fingers of the heade, and then he staiteth a little to loke at his marke, and, that done, pulleth it up to the head, and lowseth : which waye, although some excellent shooters do use, yett surelye it is a fault, and good mennes fautes are not to be felowed. Some drawe too farr, some too short, some too slowlye, some too quicklye, some hold over longe, some let go over sone. Some sette theyr shafte on the gronde, and fetcheth him upwarde ; another pointeth up toward the skye, and so bringeth him downwardes.

"Ones I sawe a man which drew a brace on his cheeke, or else he had scratched all the skine of the ooe syde of his face with his drawinge-hand. Another I saw, which at every shote, after the loze, lifted up his righte legge so far that he was ever in jeopardye of faulging. Some stampe forwarde, and some lespe backward. All these fautes be eyther in the drawinge, or at the loose ; with many other mo, which you may easely perceyve, and so go about to annoyne them.

"Now afterward, when the shaft is gone, men have many fautes, which evill custome hath brought them to, and speciallye in cryinge after the shaft, and speakinge wordes scarce honest for such an honest pastime.

"Such wordes be very tokens of an ill minde, and manifest signes of a man that is subject to incommurable afflictions. Good mennes eares do abhorre them, and an honest man therefore will avoide them. And besydes those which must needs have theyr tongue thus walkinge, other men use other fautes, as some will take theyr Bowe and wrythe and wriche it, to pull in his shaft, when it flyeth wyde, as if he drave a cart. Some will geve two or three strydes forwarde, daunsinge and hoppinge after his shaft, as longe as it flyeth, as though he were a madd man. Some, which feare to be to farr gone, runne backwarde, as it were to pull his shafte backe. Another runneth forwarde, when he feareth to be shorte, heavinge after his armes, as though he would helpe his shafte to flye. Another wrythes, or runneth asyde, to pull in his shafte straight. One lifteth up his heele, and so holdeth his foote still, as longe as his shafte flyeth. Another

* This alludes to the actions of the Romish priest in public benedictions. This passage may explain a very obscure phrase in Spenser, who calls waving the sword in circles, blessing his sword.

BOW. casteth his arme backwarde after the lons. And another swynges his Bowe about him, as it were a man with a shafte to make rounne in a game place. And manye other fautes there be, which now come not to my remembrance. Thos, as you have hearde, many archers, with marringe their faces and countenance, with other partes of theyr bodye, as it were men that should dance antiques, be furre from the comely portie in shootinge, which he that would be excellent must luke for.

"Of these fautes I have very many myselfe, but I take not of my shootinge, but of the general nature of shootinge. Nnw ymagene an archer that is cleane without all these fautes, and I am sore every man would be delighted to see him shoote." 196. Walter's Ed.

In *Standing*, a posture should be taken both comely and profitable, the one foot must not stand too far from the other, lest we stoop too much, nor too near lest we stand too stiffly. *Nocking* is the easiest point in shooting. The shaft is to be set at a proper height, even and streight overharte the Bow. The cock feather, as has been before stated, is to be nocked upwards, and care is to be taken that the string does not slip out of the nock. The ancients in *Drawing* brought the string to the right breast, the English bring it to the right ear, by which they shoot stronger and longer. *Drawing* should be performed uniformly without wagging of the hand. *Holding* must not be long, and *Loosing* must be clear, care being taken by the archer not to strike any thing about himself.

The wind and the weather are the two great obstacles to hitting the mark in shooting. A side wind is most trying. In this the *Standing* should be taken somewhat cross to the wind. The great cause of not shooting straight is looking at the shaft instead of the mark. The only way to shoot straight is to keep the eye fixed on the mark; and the easiest mode of acquiring the habit is by shooting at a light by night.

The *Trotophilus*, as may be seen from this brief abstract, is an excellent practical manual of archery. Besides this it may be read with great delight for its copiousness of expression, its occasional richness of imagery, its store of erudition, and the general tone of high moral feeling which pervades it. Gervase Markham, in 1634, published a short tract under the title of the *Art of Archery*, which was only an abridgement of the precepts contained in Ascham's work.

In the reign of Elizabeth, are to be found many controversial tracts discussing the comparative merits of archery and artillery. Fire-arms were in those days most unskillfully contrived, and it was calculated that an archer could shoot six arrows in the time required to charge and discharge a musket once. Moseley narrates a gentleman who could shoot twelve arrows into a circle not larger than the circumference of a man's hat, at the distance of forty yards, in a minute; but we believe that a musket is the present day may be charged and discharged sixteen times in a minute. One author, who is 1596, under the initials R. S., wrote *A briefe Treatise to prove the necessity and excellence of the art of Archerie*, adopts much of Ascham's reasoning, and comes at length to his conclusion, that "if a man should peruse all pastimes and exercises profitable to be set by of every man, worthy to be rehinted of so man, fit for all ages, persons, and places, and a medicine to purge the whole land of all pestilent gaming, onlie shooting

shall appeare wherein all these commodities shall be found." In opposition to this high praise, Sir Roger Williams, in his *Brief Discourse of Warre*, has a chapter to prove "Bowmen the worst shot used in those daies;" and Humfrey Barwick, "gentleman, souldier, et eneor plus Oultre," wrote an express book on "the disability of the Long Bow compared with fiery weapons." Nevertheless Sir John Smythe in his *Certain Discourse*, projected an extensive revival of the ancient British weapons; and gave his advice "to raise a corps of cavalry Bowmen; all the Crossbowmen on horseback should be under sufficient conductors, well skilled in that weapon. I would they should have Crossebowes of two pound and a halfe of the best sort, with crooked gaffes, (the lever by which the Bow was drawn,) hanging at their stroag girdles after the manner of Germanie, that they might on horsebacke hende their Crossebowes the more easily and readly, with foure and twentie quarrels in a case, well and fitly set at their saddle pommels, mounted upoa good cold geldings, of meane size, themselves armed with good murriars of the Spanish fashion upon ther heades, collars, light and short waisted curasses and backes, with sleeves of maille, or chained with maille; or else that they should be armed with murriars, light and easie brigandines, and sleeves chained with maille, with broad short swords by their sides of not above a yard in length, and short daggers. The archers on horsebacke under their Capatains or conductors skilful in archerie. I would likewise have mounted upon good quiet geldings of meane size, with deep steele skulls on very narrowe hrimhed hats, well stuffed for the easines of their heades, and either jockes of maille, according to the ancient manner when they were called *Loricati Sagittarii* or else light and easy brigandines, or at the best llet-holed doublets verie easie and well fitted to their bodies, their sleeves chained with maille, with broad short swords, and short daggers, their Bowes of good yeugh, long and well nocked and lucked, and all their strings well whipt, with shesfes of four and twentie arrowes apiece, with shooting gloves and bracers after the manner of our archers in times past. And all these, both archers and Crossebowmen, I would have them to be well practised, that they might know how to discharge their arrowes and quarrels galloping upoa the hand, and in all other motions of their horses, and the Crossbowmen to bend againe with great readines." 46.

The dress here propoused differs in some respects from that usually worn by English Archers. They were apparelled in a coat of mail, which easily accommodated itself to the motions of the body, with a helmet or close skull cap. The weapons were, besides the Bow, a target, and sword suspended at their left side while they shot. The quiver, containing twenty-four arrows, hung at their back on the right side; and the arrows in action were held under the sword belt. Each man carried a leaden man at his back, with a handle five feet long, and sometimes weighing twenty-five pounds, to despatch the wounded; and it is with this weapon as well as the Bow that the Scandinavians represented their God Thor. Occasionally each Bowman carried with him two or three sharp stakes, (the *valla* of the Romans,) with which as need required, they could erect a sort of *chevaux de frise* against the attack of cavalry.

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From the days of Elizabeth, notwithstanding those strenuous exertions of Sir John Smythe, archery must be regarded more as an amusement than as a part of the art military. Charles I. patronised the Bow, and in the frontispiece of Markham's *Art of Archery*, he is represented in the attitude and dress of a Bowman. During his reign we meet with a project which in some measure anticipated our modern discovery of Congreve rockets. A tract was printed in 1638, entitled *A new invention of shooting fire shaftes in Long Bowes*, &c. Published by a true Patriot for the common good of his native country of England. The mode was as follows:

"How to make and shoote fire shafts out of the Long Bowe.

"Let the fire shafts have one end feathered and shaped after the manner of an ordinary arrow, and the other end fitted with a pipe of latten, ten inches long or more, at discretion; a bearded head of iron fast glued into it, with a socket of wood, and a touch-hole made clear hy it, with some little reverse to stop the arrow from piercing so deepe into a man's cloaths, the flanges of a horse, or other marke of easie passage, as to choke the fire. The shaft may be made fast within the pipe (if men so please) with hard waxe, which melting as the pipe groweth hote, will make it very difficult to draw the arrow from where it lights. The pipe is to be filled with equal proportions of gunpowder and saltpetre, half as much brimstone, and (if men please) a small quantity of camphor; the touch-hole to be stopped with a match made of cotton candlewick soaked in vinegar and gunpowder. The fire shaft being made and filled in this manner, take the Bowe with a match well lighted into your left hand, after the manner of unquieeters; then hold the arrow ready nooked in the Bowe, after the manner of archers. Lastly give fire, retorne your match, and deliver the arrow.

The invention however was not entirely new. The Persians in the siege of Athens employed arrows, round the heads of which they fastened lighted tow; *καὶ ὁμοίως ἐπεὶ τοὶ ἄλλοι ἀρχέοντες ἄλλαν, ἐκείνους δὲ τὴν φάλαγιν*. (Her. viii. 52.) The *fulguris*, the terrific weapon which the Saguntines used, unappoly, in ruin in their memorable defence, was of similar construction, (Liv. xxi. 8.) as was also the *malloctus* described by Ammianus Marcellianus (xxiii. 5.) It used to be calculated that an ounce weight of combustible matter might be carried twelve-score yards by an arrow. Fiery arrows are employed by the American Indians; and Charles XII. was driven from his house at Bender after his almost supernatural resistance, by lighted arrows which were shot upon the roof.

In the reign of James I. (A.D. 8.) a commission was granted to many persons of quality, reciting the statutes ordinances and proclamations which had been issued heretofore relative to archery. It forbade the enclosure of grounds formerly appropriated to the practice of the Bow, and ordered that after a diligent survey, the lands in the suburbs and within two miles of London, should be reduced to the same order for archers in which they stood during Henry the Eighth's reign. Charles I. confined and repeated the commission. The Finsbury fields had long been set apart for the exercise of archery, and in these the Lord Mayor, Sheriffs, Aldermen and civil authorities were accustomed to divert themselves. Even so late as the year 1746, the com-

mission of Charles I. was acted upon, and the Artillery Company compelled a cowkeeper named Pitfield, who had encroached upon one of their marks, to renew it, and inscribe it with the words *Pitfield's repentance*. Mr. Duines Barrington has given a plan of the Finsbury marks as they stood in 1737.

In the descent on the Isle of Rhé in 1627, archers were employed, (P. Duval,) and they are mentioned also in a precept issued by the Earl of Essex in 1643, for raising men for the service of the King and Parliament. In Montrose's victories over the Scots, Bowmen are repeatedly spoken of. After the Restoration, many splendid pageants of archery are recorded by William Wood (in a tract entitled *The Bowman's glory*), whom Charles II. afterwards knighted for his excellent shooting. On the 26th of May 1675, the citizens of London met before the King, the Dukes of York and Monmouth, and a splendid cortege in Totthill-fields. They first assembled in their ground at Bloomsbury, and proceeding six abreast, so numerous were they that when their van had reached Whitehall, their rear had not passed Temple Bar. The *whistling arrow* (flights of which they shot before the King,) according to Mosley (*Essay on Archery*, 135.) is made in two different ways. "The one is by having a ball of horn perforated with holes at the cod, and fastened to the arrow by the wood passing through it and fitting tight." The other, "which have a deeper tone, are made with a screw in the middle of the ball." It is not by any means clear to us from these descriptions, especially the last, how the desired effect was produced.

In the year 1676, Queen Catherine permitted the London Archers to bear her name, and a silver badge was made for the ornamental of the fraternity, representing an archer drawing his Bow, with the inscription REGINÆ CATHERINÆ SAGITTARIÆ. A heroic poem also, *Archerie revived, or the Bowman's excellence*, was addressed to Charles II. by that poet aside of rhymesters Robert Shottel and Thomas D'Urfey, "Gentlemen." Mr. Duines Barrington mentions the existence of a good portrait of Sir William Wood belonging to the Artillery Company, and kept at the Blue Anchor public house in Bunhill-row, which overlooks their ground. He subjoins his epitaph in Clerkenwell Church on the south side.

Sir William Wood lies very near this stone.
In 's time of archery excelled by none;
Few were his equals, and this noble art
Hath suffer'd now in the most tender part.
Long did he live the honour of the Bow,
And his long life to that alone did owe;
But how can art secure, or what can save?
Extreme old age from an appointed grave?
Surviving archers much his loss lament,
And in respect bestow'd this monument;
Where whistling arrows did his worth proclaim,
And eterniz'd his memory and name.
Oblit. Sept. 4. a. n. 1691. Æt. 92.

In 1696, a widow lady, Mrs. Elizabeth Shakerley, left thirty-five pounds to be distributed to the fraternity in prizes. In Queen Anne's reign, several of the nobility used to practice archery in the neighbourhood of London; and as late as 1733, the butts were regularly erected in Finsbury-fields during the Easter and Whitsun holidays, and the two best shooters were appointed Captain and Lieutenant for the ensuing year. In more recent times, occasional and partial attempts have been made to establish Archery clubs; and we

BOW.

BOW. believe that even now many social and convivial unions of this nature exist in several parts of England.

We have already mentioned the cultivation of archery by James I. of Scotland. He is believed to have instituted the Royal Company of Archers, revived in 1676 and still existing, which claims the honour of forming the King's body guard within seven miles of the metropolis. The Company numbers among its members most of the Scotch nobility, and many persons of high distinction. Frequent meetings take place, and numerous prizes, many of them instituted long since, are annually contested for.

The Bows used in England in our own days, are principally made of foreign woods, of which the cocoa tree seems the favourite. The yew is out of repute. They are constructed in two pieces; a body part of elastic wood and a thin strip of ash, elm or hickory firmly affixed on the back of the nether. The marks shot at were formerly of earth. Straw manufactured like bee hives is now preferred. They are usually four feet and a half in diameter, i. e. twice the length of an arrow, and are divided into five concentric circles, equidistant from each other and painted as follows: 1. outer, white; 2. black; 3. inner, white; 4. red; 5. gold. The centre is termed the *pricke*. *End* is the exact distance from *butt* to *butt*. The *butt* is a mark of certain length "of compass" as it was termed, shot at point blank. The *rover* is of uncertain length and requires an elevation; and the arrows shooting at rovers were called *flights*, being longer and lighter than those employed for butts. For these marks were sometimes substituted a hazel wand, a rose garland, &c.

Of the power of the Bow and the distance to which it would sometimes carry, many marvellous anecdotes are related. Xenophon mentions an Arabian, Bazine, whose head was shot right through by one of the Carduchian archers, although Schneider. It is true, hesitates, and is inclined to divest the passage of its wonderment by a slight change of reading. (*Anab.* viii. 1. 18.) Lord Bacon speaks of a Turkish Bow which has been known to pierce a steel target, or a piece of brass two inches thick. (*Nat. Hist. Exp.* 704.) In Edward VI. Journal, it is stated that 100 archers of the King's guard, that at an inch board singly, two arrows each, and afterwards all together; some of them passed through this and into another board behind it, although the wood was extremely solid and firm. Stuart mentions a random shot of Hassan Aga, the governor of Athens, which he measured and found to be 584 yards; (*Ath. Ant.* vol. i.) and Mr. Strutt saw the Turkish Ambassadors shoot 490 yards, in the archery ground near Bedford-square.

It has been much the custom with barbarians to poison the heads of their arrows. Homer informs us that Ulysses visited Theoprotia in order to learn this secret.

Θήρακος ἀντιπόροτος δὲ δῖος Ὀδυσσεύς
 ἦντις χρίεσθαι χαλκήρεα. *Od.* A. 261.

Ameyus, one of the companions of Æneas, is described by Virgil as a hunter,

— Quo non felicius aliter
 Unguere tela manu ferrugine arasse venas. *Ea.* ix. 772.

The *envenate sagitta* are mentioned by Horace as a part of Maoritanian Archery. (l. 93.)

Ptolemy with many others, was wounded by a poisoned arrow during the siege of an eastern town, (*Urbs Antiqua*

regis, Justin. xii. 10. or as Diodorus gives it, xvii. 102. Sami, Curtius, ix. 8. Sami.) and was saved by an antidote shown by the natives to Alexander, (*herba in potu accepta*). Pliny mentions a plant *Linacum*, with which the Gauls besmeared their arrows in hunting, and to which in consequence they gave the name *cerrarium venenum* (xvii. 76.) In another place (xxv. 35.) he speaks of hellebore as applied to the same purpose, and that the natives, after cutting away the flesh about the wound, consider that the meat becomes more tender from the poison. The same fact is affirmed by Gellius (xvii. 15.) and by Celsus (v. 27.) The practice of poisoning arrows among the moderns, has been confined chiefly to the East and to America; and many fabulous stories have been circulated relative to the venom employed for the purpose. The *Mancanilla* tree of the American, rests on equal authority with the *Uppas* tree of Java. The poisoned arrows used in Guiana are not shot from a Bow, but blown through a tube. They are made of the splinters of the hard and solid substance of the *Cokario* tree, about a foot in length, and of the size of a knitting needle. One end is sharply pointed and dipped in the poison of *Worrai*, the other is adjusted to the cavity of the reed from which it is to be blown, by a roll of cotton. The reed is several feet in length, and a single breath carries the arrow thirty or forty yards. The Indians are extremely dexterous in its use. Such is an outline of the particulars stated by Bancroft in his *History of Guiana*. Tavernier, in his travels, has left a similar account of the arrows used in the Isle of Celebes. Many experiments were made by a French chemist, M. Herissant, upon the poison of the *Lomax* and *Treuxas* which M. de la Condamine brought from South America, about the middle of last century. In all of these immediate death was the consequence to the unhappy animal inoculated by it.

The *Bowyers* were incorporated in the eighteenth year of James I. as a London trading Company; and it is somewhat remarkable that this recognition of them should not have taken place till the use of the Bow as a military weapon was declining. This Company has a livery but no hall. The *Fletchers* are not incorporated; they have a livery, and once had a hall in St. Mary Axe.

The principal authorities for this article are stated in its course.

BOW ISLAND, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, situated towards the extremity of the Society group, about the 19th degree of south latitude and the 142nd of west longitude. It was discovered on the 5th of April 1769, by Captain Cook, during his first voyage, and is about ten or twelve leagues in circuit, and shaped like a bow, from which it derived its name. Only the nec and ebor however are land, while the space between them is occupied by water; and hence the island has the peculiar shape of a ring of land enclosing a great lagoon; the string is represented by a flat beach, about four leagues in length, wholly destitute of vegetation; while two large tufts of coconuts mark the extremities of the bow, and most parts of the arch were more or less covered with wood. Openings, however, were perceived in some places, and smoke was seen rising from the island, affording a proof of its being inhabited; but no very close inspection appears to have taken place, either by Cook or any subsequent navigator.

BOW ISLAND.

BOWEL.
BOWER.

BO'WEL, v. } Fr. *boyer*, *bozay*. But Junius
 BO'WEL, s. } observes, that the English word
 BO'WELS, } seems to be taken from *bow*, to
 BO'WELLESS, } bend, to wind, to twist; as the
 BO'WEL-FRIER. } Gr. *βωλεω*, *rapid* & *βωλεω* *hurricane*,
 on account of their folds or convolutions within us;
 — *quod intus convolutum in gyrum*. Surrey uses,
 debowel.

But the actor of Polycreonism sayth, he was *bowel'd* at
 Croydon Abbey and buried at Worcester, in the middle of the
 quiet of mink, when he had rynged xlv. yere, vi. monthes,
 and iiii. dayes.

Thou was the body *bowel'd*, enwombed, and eered, and
 secretly amongst other stuffe convey'd to Newcastle.

Hall. *King Henry VIII.*

She took hereafter the *bowels*
 Of the sea foule, and for the hole
 Of Eam, with a thousand us
 Of thynges, that she had tho
 In that calidron.

Guar. *Conf. Am.* book v. fol. 106.

I therefore exhorte your excellent majestie in the bowels of
 Jesus Christ.

Bacon. *Apology*, p. 61.

The angrie and outrageous woman, [Q. Isabel] who com-
 manded the arie [High Spanner] to be bound, and without
 question or answer to bee drawn & hanged in his anoynt,
 taken down alive and *bowel'd*, his *bowels* burned, then his
 head smitten off, and his bodie hanged up againe, and after foure
 dayes to be cut all to peeces and cast to dogges to be eaten.

Stow. *Anna*, 1526. *King Edward II.*

And verily, Homer seemeth not to be ignorant of this difference
 whereof we speak; for of diviners and soothsayers, some he
 calleth *lawerthens*, i. e. *seers*, that is to say soothsayers or
 observers of birds; others *lawis*, that is to say, *bowel-priests*, that
 spie into the inward of sacrifices.

Holland. *Plutarch*, fol. 995.

And the *bowel-prying* soothsayer, (as it is reported) shew'd to
 Decius the bend of the liver on the inner side wounded (as it
 were) and cut off.

Holland. *Livius*, fol. 287.

Nar to the surface of enliven'd earth,
 Graceful with hills and dales, and leafy woods,
 Her liberal tresses, in thy fierce confus'd;
 But to the *bowel's* cavern daring deep,
 The mineral kinds confess thy mighty power.

Thomson. *Summer*.

Miserable men commiserate not themselves; *bowel-less* unto
 others, and merciless unto their own *bowels*.

Brown. *Christian Miracle*, l. 7.

She-wolf of France, with warbling fangs,
 That tears the *bowels* of thy mangled mate,
 From thee be born, who o'er thy country hangs
 The scourge of her's.

Gray. *The Bard*.

BO'WER, v. } "A. S. *bur*, *bur*, *conclave*, an inner
 BO'WER, s. } chamber, a parlour, a bower." Som-
 BO'WERM, } ner. Dutch, *buur*, *figurum*; Ger.
 BO'WERY. } *buuer*, from Ger. *bauen*; A. S. *lgan*,
 to inhabit, to indwell. Applied to

A habitation, a dwelling, an apartment in a dwelling;
 now usually applied—to some shaded place of retire-
 ment formed of trees or the bows or branches of trees.
 And Junius thinks *bowers* is so called because formed
 of the bows or boughs of trees.

— Justice some
 Beside him to be *bowers*. *per* *his* *berde* *dwell'd*
 Confortyngs *buur* as *pel* *crouche*.

Piers *Plowman*, p. 38.

So mowe I thrive, I shal at cockes crow
 Fol privily go kate at his window
 That stant ful low upon his *bowers* wall.

Chaucer. *The Miller's Tale*, v. 3674

BOWER.
BOWL.

And in a bouside, upon an hill of flowers
 Was set this noble goddess Nature
 Of branches were her halles and her bowres
 Yawwrought, after her craft and her measure.

Chaucer. *The Assembly of Foules*, fol. 246.

Give me my love in bed now as I lie
 And locke the doores of mine valentine's bowers:
 So shall my voice be mournfull verbe dicke
 The secrets smart which canst me to lover.
Georgique. A Lady, &c. doth thus leaving her Grief.

The next day the lordes of France, who hadde lost their tentes
 and their provisions, thence took comynage to lodge in bowers
 of trees, more ower to the towne.

Prosaic. *Georgique*, v. l. C. 80.

Three lastly nuptial bowers, by me adord
 With what to sight or smell was sweet: from three
 How shall I part.

Milton. *Paradise Lost*, book xi. v. 290.

"Come, kinsman," said the little god,
 "Put off your wings, lay by your rod;
 Retire with me to yonder bower,
 And rest yourself for half an hour."

Prior. *Mercury and Cupid*.

More happy I laid where trees with trees enclad
 In bowery arches tremble to the wind,
 With innocence and shade like Adam bent,
 While a new Eden opens in the breast.

Brown. *Epos*, to Mr. E. Festus.

He keeps a garden where the spices breathe,
 Its bowring borders like the rale hermit;
 'Tis there he gathers lilies, there he dwells,
 And blanda his flowers to unite their smells.

Parvick. *The Gift of Poetry*.

(He) play'd thy green and grassy shrine,
 With mystic bowers'd and jessamine.

Warren. *Ode on the approach of Summer*.

Far happier thou, in this sequester'd bower,
 To shroud the poet, who, with fainting hand,
 Here bade thee flourish, and with grateful strain
 Now chants the praise of thy maturer bloom.

Mason. *The English Garden*, book iii.

O! what descriptive eloquence can tell
 The woods, and winding walks of Buscombe?
 The various vices, and the grassy glades,
 The bowery covert in sequester'd shades?

Faust. *Breakfast Park*.

BOWGER, in Zoology, a name of the *Alea Arctica*
 or Puffin.

BOWL, v. } Fr. *bole*; It. *balla*, *dolla*;
 BOWL, s. } Sp. *bol*; Dutch, *bol*; Ger.
 BO'WLER, } *bol*, from the Ger. *bol*, to roll.
 BO'WLING, } Any thing round or rolling. See
 BO'WLING-GREEN. } BALL.

Bowl; *patera rotunda*; A. S. *bol*; Ger. *ball*,
 Wächter derives from the same verb, *bol-en*, *volere*,
 to rotate.

And while the kyoge was shippage of his men, one broughte
 forthe a *bolle* full of mead or meih to drynke upon bow yage,
 and after that came *bowt* after *bol*, so that after drynke came
 drunkenness, and after *bowyng*, and *bowyng* turned into
 strife, and strife turned into fyghting, where through many
 were slayne.

Polypus. *Kilward the Confessor*, anno, 1053.

The *bowle* is round, and doth down slide,
 Echo one turneth, none doth upslide,
 A fall failes not, where blinde is guide,
 The stay is gone, who can him hold?

Flaccus. *Antechus*. *Totus Mundus*, &c.

A gentle state, where two such tennis balls
 Are tossed still and better bowles let lie.

Georgique. *Pygmy into Holland*.

Garlick indeed should not be suffered to *bold* and run up to
 seed, and therefore the blade thereof ought to be weeded.
 Holland. *Plinio*, ii. fol. 22.

BOWL.
—
BOW-
SENING.

While one doth bring
A carved bowl we'll wrought of beechen tree,
Praising it by the store, or the frame,
Or want of use, or skillful maker's name.

Placed it (the obolike) in the midst of the show-piece,
And upon it a bowl or globe of beechen set, glittering with thin
plates of gold. *Holland. Amianthus, fol. 84.*

He [Antigonus] replied upon a time within his camp, certain
common soldiers playing at the ball and bowling, having their
carpets on their backs, and their morions upon their heads, he
took a great pleasure therein. *Holland. Ptolemy, fol. 341.*

AN. Also I had rather be set quick 'till earth,
And bowl'd to death with tennis. *Shakespeare. Merry Wives, fol. 52.*

Breaks all the spokes and falls from her wheels,
And bowls the round name down the hill of heaven,
As low as to the fiends. *Id. Hamlet, fol. 264.*

The captains and commanders were then it across at bowls
upon the line at Plymouth; and the tradition goes, that Drake
would needs see the game up; but was soon prevailed on to go
and play out the rubbers with the Spaniards.

Oldys. Life of Raleigh, xlv.

The right side of the pall old Egges kept,
And on the left the royal Theusus wept;
Each bore a golden bowl, of work divine,
With honey still'd, and milk, and mix'd with roddy wine.

Drayton. Palamon and Arcite, part iii.

Another evil faculty he has, in making the bowling-green his
daily residence, instead of his church, where his curate reads
prayers every day. *Foster, No. 71.*

The midnight reveller's intemperate bowl,
To rage and riot first his furious brain;
Remorse ensues, and agony of soul,
His future life condemn'd to excruciating pain.

Drayton. Pain and Patience.

BOWLING, a game played either on open greens, as
in the present days, or in clove allies, as was formerly
much the fashion. Strutt has given a plate from a manu-
script preserved in the Royal Library, (20 Ed. iv.)
which represents Bowling as early as the thirteenth
century. Though now but little practised, Bowling
was, at one time, a game in great repute among the
higher ranks. Charles I. was fond of it, and it formed
according to the lively historian of the Comte de
Grammont, a daily share in the diversions of Charles
the Second's court at Tonbridge. "Des que le soir
arrive, chacun quitte son petit palais pour s'assembler au
Bowling." Both the terms used in playing and the
laws of this game, appear to have been very arbitrary.

BOWSENING, a singular practice formerly ob-
served at certain springs in the county of Cornwall, of
which Carew in his Survey has given the following
description. "The water which run from the well,
fell into a square and close-walled plot that might be
filled to any depth thought necessary. The insane
person," for such were the patients whose cure was
undertaken, "was made to stand on the wall with his
back towards the pool, into which by a blow on the
breast, he was suddenly plunged headlong. While
here a strong fellow provided for the noose took
him and tossed him up and down along and athwart
the water, until the patient by forgoing his strength,
had somewhat forgot his fury. Then was he conveyed
to the church, and certain masses sung over him;
upon which handling, if his right wits returned, the
patroness of the well had his thanks; but if there
appeared small amendment, he was bowssened again
and again while there remained in him any hope of
life for recovery."

BOX, v. } Ger. *box*; D. *boss*, *buss*; It. *bosso*; Fr. *BOX.*
box, n. } *bolle*; so called because made of the
Bo'XEN. } box-as or box-tree. Chaucer and Mande-
ville adopt the Fr. *bois*, q. v.

That fond his master wel in his chaffers,
For ofte time he frod his box full bare. *Chaucer. The Cook's Tale, v. 4388.*

This cursed man hath in his hood yest
This poison in a box, and ewilhe he me
into the next strete. *Id. v. 12802.*

And whan he had it thirce raddle,
To open a box she him badde,
That she there toke hym in present,
And was full of such oignement,
That there was no veyrm none,
That shoulde fasten hym vpon,
Whan that he were anyot withall.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 163.

And in a synful woman that was in the cytar as sche knewe that
Jhesus sat at the mete in y^e Pharisee house, she brought
an alabaster box of oymment; and sche stood byhynde byndis
hise feet; and began to mouste hise feet with tereris, and wypte
with the heereis of hir heed, and kiste hise feet; and assoyntle
with oymment. *Wyclif. Luke, ch. vii.*

And beholde a woma in that cite, while was a yonger, as she
knewe that Jhesus sat at mete in y^e Pharisee house, she wrought
an alabaster box of oymment, and she stode at his fete behynde
him wepinge, and began to wush his fete with teares, and dyd
wypte the with y^e heeres of her heade, and kised his fete, and
assoynted them with oymment. *Idem, 1551.*

In this meantime returned from France the Lord James, who
beside his great expenses, and the loss of a box wherein was his
secret purse, engaged a desperate danger in Paris.

Knox. History of the Reformation, fol. 220.

And when she could not prevail with them to stay, being but
few in company, though the natives had no edge-tools of iron or
steel, and had proffer'd a great box of pearl for some armor and
a sword, she sent her women to watch them all night in their
ships on the bank-side. *Oldys. Life of Raleigh, xxv.*

Canst thou not find, among thy onerous race
Of kindred, one to tell thee that they plays
Are taught at by the pit, box, galleries, stage?

Sherrill. Epistle to Mr. E. Howard.

Those who sat in the boxes appeared in the most unhappy situa-
tion of all. The rest of the audience came merely for their own
amusement; these rather to furnish out a part of the entertain-
ment themselves.

Gildemith. Criticism of the World. Letter 21.

Yet, since his neighbours give, the churl aulchre,
Darning the poor, his triple-bolted box.

Warren. Fashion.

I mention these particulars, to let you see how much he will
be obliged to me, as I shall be to you, if you can help him to this
convenient little box, at a price which he shall have no occasion
to repent. *Melmoth. Pung. Letter 24. book 1.*

As sweetly he
Who quits the coach-box at the midnight hour
To sleep within the carriage more secure,
His legs depending at the open door.

Cropper. The Task, book 1.

Box, Fr. *buquer*, to knock or rapp. Cotgrave.
Ger. *bocken* or *pocken*, to knock, to strike, to beat, to hit.

Cleopatra was in such a rage with him, that she flew upon him,
and took him by the hair of the head, and bowed him with
favouredly. *North. Plutarch, fol. 783.*

A Gellius tells of a boy that would give every one that he met
a box on the ear. *Twyn. Sermon xxv. l. fol. 232.*

Faith, they may hang their burps upon the willows;
'Tis just like children when they box with pillows.
Drayton. Epilogue for the King's house.

BOX.
—
BOY.

Whether a man may put up a bar on the ear received from a stranger in the dark; with several other subtleties of the like nature. *Tatler*, No. 250.

Where Slack is made to bar with Broughton,
I see the very stage they fought on.
Cambridge. A Dialogue.

A tilt or tournament, the martial diversions of our ancestors, was however an unlawful act; and so are boxing and sword playing, the succeeding amusement of their posterity.
Blackstone's Commentaries, iv. 183.

He grew one day very uneasy in bed, and a gentleman who watched him, desirous of curing him up elbow, received from the patient a violent bar on his ear.
Goldsmith. Particulars relative to Charles XII.

Thrice with an arm, which might have made
The Theban bearer curse his trade,
The dream he shook, who rear'd the head,
And thrice fell backward on his bed.
Clarendon. The Ghost, book iv.

Box, v. } A. S. *boxe*; Ger. *buchs*; Lat. *burus*; Gr.
Box, n. } *βύξινος*, from *βύξινω*, I thicken, I con-
Bo'XEN. } dense.

The most massive and fast wood, and therefore the weightiest of all other, by judgement of men, is that of the yew and the haw.
Holland. Pinet, v. l. p. 496.

A youth, once fowling in a shady grove,
On a tall bar-tree spied the god of love,
Perch'd like a beauteous bird; with sudden joy
At sight so noble leap'd the simple boy.
Pope. Essay, lib. ii.

He withers at his heart, and looks as wan
As the pale spectre of a morient man;
That pale turns yellow, and his face receives
The faded hue of asplene barren trees.
Dryden. Palamon and Arcite, book i.

BOXTEL, a market town of the Netherlands, situated on the Dommel, in Dutch Brabant. It contains a population of about 3000 individuals, and is provided with several sluices. It was near this town that the engagement took place, on the 14th of August 1794, between the French army and allied British and Dutch troops, under the command of his Royal Highness Duke of York, when the latter were defeated, and obliged to retire behind the Maese. It stands about five miles south of Bois-le-Duc.

BOY, v. } Ger. *bube*. Wächter observes, that
Boy, n. } the Latin *pupus* is a little boy; and
Bo'VLEND, } *pupus*, a little girl. But of *pupus* the
Bo'VISH, } origin is unknown.
Bo'VISM. }

By Christ and Peers Floukman Jo, Joes prijs wolle ik showe
To beggars and to begots. *Jes loka ben to wuerke.*

Pierre Floukman, p. 142.

Big ladders and steeplejacks run quite away from the parents
of bachelors to beguill wrongetime.
Udall. Luke, ch. iii.

And all about her necke and shoulders flew
A flock of little loons, and sports, and loyes,
With cimble wings of gold and purple hew;
Whose shapes seem'd not like to terrestrial loyes,
But like to angels playing heavenly toys.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, book iv. can. 10.

They called the children that were past infancy two years,
Irene; and the greatest loyes, Mellicreus; as who would say, ready
to go out of *boyery*. This boy who was made overcoat of them
was commonly twenty years of age.

North. Pastorel, fol. 42.

In his a boyish fault, that you should deem
A whipping, meet and ample punishment.
Beaumont. Pygmalion, can. xliii. st. 235.

VOL. XVIII.

BOY.
—
BRA-
BANT.

And is *perit* he alone, said murmuring they,
His fathers lawfully-begotten child,
And we by-blows? Or must his boyish prey
On all our secretions? *Beaumont. Pygmalion*, can. l. st. 86.

He [Orvid] had complain'd he was farther off from possession,
by being so near, and a thousand such *supponas*, which *Chaucer*
rejected as below the dignity of the subject.

Dryden. Pref. to Fables.

— Nor can I think
He has forsaken her: my whilst she please,
I know his curious eye, or say he had,
But can he could be so lay-blond and foolish,
Yet still I fear she keeps the contract with her.
Beaumont & Fletcher. Loves Pilgrimage, act iii. sc. 2.

One boy of ten, and another of nine years old, who had killed
their companions, have been sentenced to death, and he of ten
years actually hanged; because it appeared upon their trials,
that the one had himself, and the other had the body he had
killed, which hiding manifested a consciousness of guilt, and a
discretion to discern between good and evil.

Blackstone's Commentaries, iv. 23.

Then Milton had led a poet's charms:
New to my taste, his Paradise surpass'd
The struggling efforts of my boyish tongue
To speak its excellence.

Cowper. The Task, book iv.

BOYLE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Roscommon, pleasantly situated on a river of the same name, and near twenty miles south of Sligo. Before the Union it sent two Members to the Irish Parliament; it flourishes principally through the linen manufacture. On one of the stone bridges which cross the river, there is a statue of King William III. and near it the remains of a round tower, as well as of a Cistercian abbey.

BOYNE, a river of Ireland, which rises near the source of the Barrow, about forty miles west of Dublin, whence it flows towards the north-east; and being increased by several streams as it passes through the county of Kildare, it becomes a fine river before it enters that of Meath. It then increases both in beauty and magnitude, till it falls into the Irish Channel, below Drogheda, after a course of about fifty miles. The Boyne admits ships to Drogheda, and opens an internal communication with other parts of Ireland, by means of its connection with canals. It was near the banks of this river that the engagement took place, in 1690, between the adherents of James II. and William III. which obliged the former to seek refuge on the continent.

BRA, a town of Piedmont, situated on a declivity sloping to the banks of the Stura, opposite Cerasasco, and but a short distance from Tanaro. It stands in a fertile territory, which produces abundance of corn and wine, with silk of a superior quality; and is much celebrated for the salubrity of its climate. It contains several parish churches, with a population of about 10,000 individuals.

BRA-BANT, DUCHY OF, one of the most important Provinces of the Kingdom of the Netherlands. It is bounded on the north by Holland, and Gueldersland; on the east by Limburg and Liege; on the west by Zealand and Flanders; and on the south by Hainault and Namur. This Duchy forms a central and valuable part of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, and is divided into two Provinces of North and South Brabant, which are separated from each other by the Province of Antwerp, which formerly made a part of the Duchy. The first of these Provinces contains a population of 500,000.

Situation.

Division.

Population.

5 D

BRA-
BANT.

about 252,000 individuals, and the latter about 366,000; making together 618,000, independently of those in the intermediate Province of Antwerp. Brabant was first erected into a Duchy in the seventh century, and for some ages belonged to the Frankish Monarchy, but subsequently became a fief of the German Empire. At all periods of the history of the Belgic Provinces, this Duchy appears to have held a preeminence among the States. While under the successors of Charlemagne, the Dukes of this Province exercised a considerable influence over the Sovereigns of the other Belgic territories; and in more recent times, its Deputies held the first place in the General Assemblies of these States, and gave their votes before the others.

Progressive
geography.

The last Duke of Brabant, descended from Charlemagne, was Otto, who died in 1005, when the Duchy and title devolved upon Lambert I. Count of Louvain, who had married the sister and heiress of Otto. By his posterity it descended to Philip II. Duke of Burgundy, and from him, through the line of his family, to the Emperor Charles V., and thence to Philip II. King of Spain. In the seventeenth century, the Republic of Holland took possession of the northern part of this Duchy, which it retained in the Peace of Westphalia, and whence it became known by the appellation of Dutch Brabant. The other part was possessed by Austria. A small part of this Duchy, towards the south, was called Walloon Brabant. The Duchy is sometimes spoken of, as divided into the quarters of Louvain, Brussels, Antwerp, and Bois-le-Duc; the whole comprising about twenty-eight towns, most of them fortified, and nearly 700 villages: the Austrian part was seized by the French in 1746, but afterwards restored by the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was, however, reconquered by them in 1794, and its possession confirmed by the Treaties of Campo Formio and Lunéville, which were signed in 1797 and 1801. In the subsequent division of the French dominions, the northern part of this acquisition formed the department of the Deux Netthes, and the southern that of the Dyle. Dutch Brabant was also united to the French Empire in 1810, and with part of Guelderland, was formed into the Department of the Mouths of the Rhine. That portion of Brabant which was subject to Austria, while under the dominion of that power, had its own States, which consisted of two Bishops, and eleven Abbots, with the Barons and seven Deputies chosen by the magistrates of the three cities of Brussels, Louvain, and Antwerp; and the privileges were, at one time, held in such high estimation, that they became an object of desire to great numbers; and mothers when advanced in pregnancy, frequently went to reside within the dominions, that their children might become inheritors of the chartered rights. Since the formation of the new Kingdom of the Netherlands in 1815, North Brabant sends seven, and the southern part of the province eight Members to the Representative Assembly of the Kingdom. Antwerp likewise sends five, which together make twenty for the whole of the former Duchy. Much of the soil of this Province is fertile, especially in the southern part, and produces large quantities of grain, as well as affords excellent pasturage. Considerable tracts in the northern division are covered with moss, heath, and wood, but others yield large crops of wheat, hops, and flax; and the yearly produce of grain is often nearly double of that which is required for the consumption

Physical
state.

of the inhabitants. Though a great part of the population of both these Provinces is employed in agriculture, there are also manufactures of cloth, lace, linen, and several other articles. The chief rivers are the Dommel and the Demer, with the Dyle and the Nethe, which, with several canals, greatly facilitate the internal commerce of the Duchy, which has become considerable since the opening of the Scheldt. In the northern part, the majority of the inhabitants are Protestants; in the southern, most of them are Catholics; and before the French revolution, they were considered as among the most ignorant, degraded, and superstitious in this part of the continent. Mr. Foster, who traversed the country in 1790, gives a very unfavourable account of the effects which civil and religious tyranny had produced upon those otherwise humane, friendly, and good natured people. These, he considers, as having at that time so far degraded the understanding, that he adds, "never, since they were deluged with blood by Philip and Alva, have these provinces attracted the notice of mankind, except when foreign armies made them the theatre of war, or when, like absolute property, they were transferred from one princely family to another." Recent events, however, have weakened these causes, and roused the inhabitants from their long cherished lethargy; and it is hoped, that their connection with a Protestant Kingdom, and a new form of government, will gradually tend to produce a more enlightened and energetic character.

BRA'BBLE, v.
BRA'BBLE, n.
BRA'BBLE, n.
BRA'BBLE, n.
BRA'BBLE, n.
BRA'BBLE, n.

To brabble or brawl; in Dutch, *brabbelen*; Fr. *braviller*, (to emulvill,) is to confound, to mingle, to disturb, to trouble, to disorder, to squabble, to rail.

Assuredly these callers make the blind, more blind than he was before. But the Apostles obeying their masters' commandment, called this man Jem, and so true is it, y^e they did not cry, & boote against him, as the people did, that they put him (having good hope already) in more hope and comfort, saying: be of good cheere, ayres Jesus callith thee.

Udall. *Moor*, ch. 2.

Amongst the poets new of noid,
where dost he place him (so).
Amongst good, or bad: is sadnes now
to exclude all breaking mood,
How many winters do you weat
will make a poore good.

Draut. *Hervey*, G. 1. 2.

Y^ell came entreat hym to heare and abide the breaking of Tyndales tongue, as I trust yet to intreat hym hereafter.

Sir Thomas More. *Works*, fol. 418.

In having our wines with y^e still in company, we should lisse ever dying, for we should passe the nights in hearing their complaints and the daies in suffering their breakings and chiddings.

Golden Book, l. 1. 1.

I do not wote the of these things without a cause, for there be many wayward persones breakers and deceyvers of women mynnes.

Udall. *Thm*, ch. 1.

And although S. Hierome would have no body to be patrician, when he is suspected of heretie, yet we deale herein rather bitterly not *heretie*, nor yet be carried away with anger & hate: though he ought to be reckoned neither bitter, nor *heretie* y^e speaketh y^e truth.

Jewel. *A reply to M. Harding*, li. fol. 44.

If they meet with one who can relate the order of a feast or great dinner, *discourse* from point to point of a solemn shew or pounce, tell a tale of some dream, or make report of a quarrel and *breakdown* between him and another, they harken with great silence, bid him *go on*, and will miss never a circumstance.

Holland. *Pinterch*, fol. 44.BRA-
BANT.

BRABBLE

Late de-
graded
state of the
inhabitants

BRABBLE
—
BRACE.

ABON. Away I say,
Now by the Gods that warlike Goths adore,
This pretty *brabble* will adduce us all.
Shakespeare. Titus Andronicus, fol. 36.

BRABEJUM, in Botany, a genus of plants, class Polygamia, order Monocœcia. Generic character: *hermaphrodite flower*, catkin, calyx scaly; corolla four-partite, revolute above; stamens four; pistil one; stigma two; drupe: *male flower*, scales of the catkin three-flowered; corolla four to five partite; stamens four or five, inserted into the faux; style bifid, abortive.

The only species of this genus, is the *B. stellatifolium*, or African Almond, native of the Cape of Good Hope. *Breasil Fontes, Godani, 1739.*

BRACE, *n.* *Lat. brachium; It. braccio; Fr. bras, a.* *brac*, the arm; applied to that which embraces, or holds, as the arms do.—*BRACELET.* *Bracelet; Fr. bracelet; It. braccialeto.* *BRACING.* To hold, bind, or tie together; to tighten, to strengthen, to fasten, to confine, to restrain.

A brace of dogs, as Skinner remarks, is a couple of dogs, dogs braced or coupled together; and, from usage, restricted in number to two. *Brace*, the *n.* and *bracelet* are applied, particularly, to armour, or ornaments bracing or biolding the arm; *brace*, to a certain part of the rigging of a ship; to certain timbers which are to brace or hold together.

Upon his arm he bore a girdle *bracer*,
And by his side a sword and a halberd.
Chaucer. The Prologue, v. 111.

In precious clothes his legs the chieftains ties,
Nought could the man from blood and fight debar,
A sturdy lance in his right hand he braced,
His shield he took, and on his helmet laced.
Pierces. Geoffrey of Ransgare, book ii. st. 75.

I tyle a *bracer's* bound about mine arms,
Which to my shadowe seemeth thus to saye,
Believe not me: for I was but a charon,
To make the sheepe, when others went to playe."
Geveling. Don Bartholomew of Bath.

Which York yokes; and up King Henry comes,
When for his guidance he had got him room;
The dreadful bowelling of whose straight *brac'd* drums,
To the French sounded like the dreadful doom.
Drayton. Battle of Agincourt, fol. 17.

An echo with the clapper of thy drumme,
And euen at hand, a drumme in *readie brac'd*,
That shall reverberate all, as loud as thine.
Shakespeare. King John, fol. 20.

When we consider
Th' importance of Cyprus to the Turke,
And let our actions againe be judicious,
That so it more concerns the Turke then Rhodes,
So may we with more facile question heare it,
For that it stands not in such warrelke *brave*,
But altogether lackes th' abilities that Rhodes is *dread'd* in.
Id. Cædilla, fol. 313.

And newe they came not to him with extenuance and humble
ente, as by the way of petition, but with faine and *bracing*.
Hiding him falth his warres alone with his father Hammo, &
then go set light by his souldiours.
Arthur Golding. Justine, fol. 63.

And when with little hands they stroke thy face
As in thy lap they sit (ah, careless!) playing,
And stammering ask a kiss, give them a *brace*,
The lost from me.
P. Fletcher. Eliza, an Elgy.

Wherewith he set his souldiers on such a courage, that taking
more thought for their buriall thē for their lives, every manne
put aboute his righte arme a *bracer*! wherein was grauen his owne
name, and the name of his father.
Arthur Golding. Justine, fol. 24.

They carry also certaine little long bagges about an hand
braced tyed to their left arme, which serue them also in stead
of *bracers* for their bowes, full of the powder of a certaine hearbe
whereof they make a certaine beuenge.

Hakluyt. Voyages, 4v. Perseusus Atterch, v. li. fol. 427.

Meanwhile the combatants, of mind elate,
Drove on their heads the dreadful glories of fate!
The leathern thongs that *brac'd* their shoulders round,
Firm to their arms the ponderous gambells bound.
Faccha. Theatrus, libel, 22.

The K—g, who was then at Newmarket, heard of it, and was
pleas'd merrily and graciously to say, he could not be there
himself but he would send them a *brace* of locks.

Spectator, No. 79.

But then—her voice! how fram'd 't tender!
The music of the gods to hear!
Wilt that so pierc'd, without offence,
So *brac'd* by the strong nerves of sense.

Smart. Ballad, 1.

It could not sail if I carried the flat. I'll undertake to set down
a brace of dukes, two dozen lords, and half the lower house, at
my own peril.

Goldsmith. The Good-nester's Men, act iii.

She took, she kiss'd the present, and disguis'd
Her conscious trouble under busy care
To fix the *bracer* in his lovely seat.

Glover. The Atheniad, book xviii.

BRACH, Dutch, *brach*; *Fr. brague; It. braccio.* Cot-
grave says, that the French *brague* is a kind of short-
tailed setting-dog, ordinarily spotted or partly coloured.

The Scotch *ruch*; Eng. *brach*; are applied to a
hound, cross comicals; to a dog that scents out, or
traces out by the scent; perhaps each good *brach*, are
race, *be-race*, *bracer*, from the A. S. *rac*, from *racen*,
to race, to send forth a fume or scent; Ger. *richen*,
be-richen, to scent out, to trace by the scent or
odour. (*Odorem spirare et odorem percipere*, Wachter.)
Rachaloo occurs in *Lybeus Diaconus*, Ritson, *Romances*,
v. li. p. 46.

Mr. Steevens quotes the following passage from Sir
Thomas More's *Comfort against Tribulation*, book iii.
ch. xxiv.

Here it must be known of some men that can skill of hanting,
whether that we mistake not our terms, for then are we utterly
ashamed as ye wott well.—And I am so cunning, that I can not
tell, whether among them a *bitch* be a *bliche* or so; but I
remember she is no *bitch* but a *brache*.

Young. He do't: hark, hither, is that your brother?

El. Lo. Yes, have you lost your memory?

Young. As I live he's a pretty fellow.

Yo. Lo. O this is a sweet *brache*.

Steevens and Fletcher. The Scornful Lady, act i. sc. 1.

For as the dogs pursue the silly doe,
The *brach* behind, the hounds no every side;
So *trac'd* they me among the mountain's side.

Planch. Legend of Owen Glendower.

Lye still ye theefe, and heare the lady sing in Welsh.
Hotsp. I have rather heare (Italy) my *brach* howle in Irish.
Shakespeare. Henry IV. First Part, fol. 62.

As they ryde talkinge

A *rac'd* their own *fyngynge*

Overtwent the way

Thanne seyde old and yunge

From her first *fyngynge*

They no more woulde seer to gay.

Lybeus Diaconus, Ritson. Rom. li. 46.

BRACHINUS, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the
order Coleoptera, family Carabici. Generic character:
external maxillary and labial palpi filiform; the last
joint attenuated at the base; antennæ filiform, longer
than the thorax; lower lip entire, produced, sub-
quadrate; the angles of its apex acute; body oblong,
obovate; glands at the anus emitting a caustic

& p 2

BRACE.
—
BRACHINUS.

BRACHINUS.
—BRACK.

vapour. *B. crepitans*, the type of this genus, is not a very uncommon insect in this country. When pursued by its great enemy *Calosoma Inquisitor*, it has recourse to a very singular mode of defence. At first it seems incapable of escaping, but at length a considerable explosion of a blue vapour takes place from the anus, accompanied with a most nauseous smell, which immediately stops its assailant. This can be repeated, if necessary, as many as twenty times in succession. Another species *B. diplosor*, has a similar power; indeed so many of the *Crabrid* possess it, that one division of that family has acquired the name of Bombers. (*Crepitantes*, Lat.: *Latr. Hist. Nat.* tome viii. p. 243. Kirby and Speece, vol. ii.)

BRACHIONUS, in Zoology, a genus of the class and order Polypi Ciliati, of Lamarck; *Infusoria rotifera* of the *Rigue Animal*. With rotatory organs, and covered with a kind of membranous or shelly shield, similar to that of many *Monoculi*.

BRACHY CERUS, in Zoology, a genus of insects, of the order Coleoptera, family Curculionites, Latr. Generic character: antennae short, straight, with nine articulations; the last forming a truncated club; rostrum rather short, thick, broad, bent downwards; body ovate, turgid, rough; elytra eonate; no scutellum; all the joints of the tarsi undivided. This genus was established by Olivier. *Curculio apterus*, Lin. is the type. The species are generally inhabitants of hot climates.

BRACHYGRAPHY, } From the *Gr.* $\beta\rho\alpha\chi\upsilon\varsigma$, short,
BRACHYGRAPHER, } and $\gamma\rho\alpha\phi\iota\alpha$, I write.
Writing in a short or small space. Also by "short marks," oow called short hand.

Look upon all the sad mortal objects in the world, betwixt whom all our compassion is wont to be divided; first the bankrupt rotting in a gel; secondly, the direful bloody spectacle of the soldier wounded by the sword of war; thirdly, the malefactor heaving under the stone, or gasping upon the rack or wheel; and fourthly, the pulpit person on the scaffold or gallows ready for execution; and the secure, senseless sinner in the brachygraphy of all these.

Hammond. *Sermon* ill.

He beheld himself, and sermon-writer; and did not know which most to wonder at, his own *drunken*, or the fellow's *scutene*. At last, he asked the *brachygrapher*, whether he wrote the notes of that sermon, or something of his own conception.

Guyton. *Notes on Don Quixote*, l. 8.

BRACK, a breach, any thing broken: A. S. *bræccan*, to break.

Called I was William De la Poole,
Of Suffolk Duke in Queen Margaret's dales,
That found the meane Duke Henries blood to coole,
Whose vertue such deserve overall praise,

Whereby I note that fortune cannot raise

Any sloth, without some others wracke:

Flouds drowne no fields before they find a bracke.

Mirror for Magistrates, fol. 340.

You find time out in eternitie,
Deceit and violence to heavenly justice,
Life in the grave, and death among the blessed,
Ere stain or brack in her sweet reputation.

Bonavent and Fletcher. A Wife for a Month, act i. sc. 2.

— A cord that would out slip
For lants, and brack, about the mouth of it,
Made serve the turn.

Chapman. Homer's Odyssey, book xvii. fol. 262.

Tis but my cloze pressing to the fire
In th' morning's cold, because, my weeds, you know
Are passing thin: for I made bold to show
Their brackes to you, and pray'd you kinde supply.

Id. Th. book xvii. fol. 273.

BRACK, } *Brack*, Dutch, *salsus*; a word BRACK.
BRACKISH, } still in use in Lincolnshire, says BRACK-
BRACKISHNESS, } Skinner. He would derive it from BRACK-
BRACK, } the Dutch, *bracken*, *romere* (*pre-* LEV.
rusper in *Vomitus*, Kilian,) because salt and salt water provoke vomition. Dr. Jamieson has justly observed, that *bracken*, *romere*, is merely a different application of *bracken*, to *break*; sc. to break or burst forth. G. Douglas renders, *etæque salina Porricum in fœtus*.

The entrevils che fer in the Rodis bracke
— I shall slay.

Excedes, book v.

Upon whose moisted skirt, with sea-weed fringed about,
The bastard coral breeds, that, draws out of the brack,
A knittle stalk becomes, from greenish turn'd to black.

Drayton. Poly-sidon, Song ii.

But when I waken and finds away

That did delight me
Then I a chosen care to pleasure's place
That makes my limbes to quake,
That all besprent with brackish bryas
(O bed) I thee forsake.

Turberville. The Lamer to his Careful Bed, &c.

A great number of them rebell against *Syracusa*, went and camped themselves by the Lake of Lucania, which water by report hath this variable property, that at certain times it changed and becometh very sweet, and at some other times again so salt and brackish as no man can drink it.

North. Plutarch, fol. 471.

But the soldiers were driven to take sea-weeds called *Alga* (washing away the brackishness thereof with fresh water, putting to it a little herb called *Dogs-tooth*) to cast it so to their horse to eat.

Id. Ib. fol. 610.

And, what the famous flood far more than that enriches,
The brackish fountains are, those two renowned riches,
The Nant-wych and the North.

Drayton. Poly-sidon, Song.

Some are in a secret discontent at God's afflictive providence; and this miseth the memory of former mercies, and takes away the relish of present mercies; as the sweet showen of heron that fall into the sea are turned into its brackish taste: such neither enjoy God nor themselves.

Bute. The great duty of Resignation.

BRACKET. A bracket or brace in Printing, is a certain mark bracing or confining words or lines together.

So much of the verse as is explained, is included in one, if it be from the beginning of the verse, or, if not, in two brackets [] so that the rest of the text, which is excluded by the brackets, may coherently be read with the paraphrase of that which is included, and the sense continue undisturbed by that means.

Hammond. To the reader.

At the head of each article, I have referred, by figures included in brackets, to the page of Dr. Lardner's volume, where the section, from which the shridgement is made, begins.

Pelcy. Residence, part ii. ch. vi.

BRACKLEY, a Borough in the county of Northampton, near a branch of the river Ouse, formerly of considerable note, though now retaining few vestiges of its ancient prosperity. It was incorporated in the reign of Edward II. and sends two Members to Parliament. In his *Itinerary*, speaks of it as once having been walled, and as possessing a castle. In its immediate neighbourhood, is a piece of land called *Byard's green*, once much frequented to the days of tournaments. Two are recorded as having been kept there in the reign of Henry III. The church is a vicarage, in the gift of the Marquesses of Stafford. Population in 1851, 1851. Distant sixty-seven miles north-north-west from London, seven from Buckingham, and thirteen from Northampton.

BRACTEA
—
BRADY-
PUS.

BRAD, in *Carpentry*, a small nail without a spreading head.

BRADFORD, a large market town and parish in the county of Wilts, on the river Avon. It manufactures broad cloth very extensively. The church is a vicarage in the gift of the Dean and Chapter of Bristol. Population in 1821, of the town, 3760; of the whole parish, 10,231. Distance 104 miles west from London, seven south-east from Bath.

BADFORD, a market town is the west riding of the county of York, on a branch of the river Aire. Iron works on a very extensive scale are carried on in it, and coal abounds in its neighbourhood. Besides these woollen cloth, yarn and cotton are largely manufactured. Population of the town in 1821, 13,064, of the parish, 52,954. Distant 201 miles north from London, ten west from Leeds.

BRADYPUS, from the Greek *βραδύς* and *πύς*, slow of foot. Lin., Cuv., Sloth, Péc. In Zoology, a genus of animals belonging to the family Tardigrada, order Edentata, class Mammalia. Generic character: molar teeth cylindrical, canine, and pointed; hind feet articulated obliquely with the legs; the toes furnished with long claws, enveloped in skin as far as the roots of the nails; fore extremities very long, so that in walking the animal trails along on its elbows; pelvis very wide, so as to prevent the apposition of the knees. Of all the animals in the creation, those which compose this genus would seem to be the most ill-conditioned and defenceless; we shall find, however, on inquiry, that they are not so, but are equally well suited to the situation in which they are placed, as those animals upon which nature has bestowed more personal beauty and activity. They have derived their generic name from the extreme tardiness of their motions, and from the following circumstance, that anatomical research has discovered a peculiar arrangement in the construction of their muscles, which is believed to produce that slowness of action; at the same time though their muscles act so slowly, they act very forcibly, and for a much longer continuance than those of any other genus; an extraordinary instance of which was exhibited in a Sloth retaining a Dog within its grasp, which had been set on to worry it, till the Dog died of hunger. In their gait they are extremely awkward as well as slow; the anterior extremities are so long, that in progression the animal walks upon his elbows, the upper arm being nearly as long as the thigh and leg together. In addition to this, the hind legs are articulated so obliquely with the feet at the ankle joint, that the sole of the foot is turned upwards and inwards, and the animal walks on the outside of the foot; this though very inconvenient for walking, enables him to climb trees with greater facility and on these he principally lives. The hands and feet are each provided with very long and strong claws, which are slightly hooked; these are completely covered with skin as far as the roots of the nails, and thus are connected with each other. The stomach consists of four pouches, which however are not coarctated or corrugated as those of ruminant animals; and the intestinal canal is very short, without any caecum. They live mostly on trees, and bring forth one at a birth, which they carry on their backs.

B. Tridactylus, Lin.; *Fa*, Buff.; Three-toed Sloth.

Pen., about the size of a large Cat; head flat, with a blunt black nose, small hairy ears extending from the outer angles of which is a darkish line; general colour dusky brown, with black line extending along the back, and the body irregularly spotted with black; the face, which is of a dusky white, is naked; but the hair on the limbs and body is very irregular and coarse; tail short; three long claws on each hand and foot; the fore extremities twice as long as the hinder. It is a native of South America, where it lives among the trees, climbing with great labour; and when it has procured as much food as it chooses, it forms itself into a ball, and drops to the ground to save the toil of descent. It has a very curious and plaintive cry according to Kircher, as now ascending and descending hexachord. It is very patient of hunger, and one which had suspended itself on a pole lived without food for forty days.

B. Didactyles, Lin.; *P. Uca*, Buff.; *Two-toothed Shrimp*. Pen. The length of this animal, a specimen of which is in the British Museum, is eleven inches, but Pennant believed it to be a young one; head round, with a short projecting nose; it has two long claws on the anterior, and three on the posterior extremities; the body covered with rough long hair, is some parts woolly, of a cinereous red above, and white below; no tail. It is an inhabitant of America and Pennant saw also of India, but this is much disputed.

The animal described by Dr. Shaw under the name of *Bradypus Ursinus*, is not a Sloth; for an account of it see *PAGGULUS*.

See Linnæi *Systema Natura*; Cuvier, *Règne Animal*;
Pennant's *History of Quadrupeds*.

BRAGG, v. Dutch *braggeren*; Fr. *braguer*.
 BRAG, s. Junius has observed that *brag*, in
 BRAG, s. Scotch, is *fear, terror*; and he quotes
 BRAG, s. several instances from G. Douglas
 BRAG, s. of the word so used. The Glossarist
 BRAG, s. has also remarked, *that to boast and*
 BRAG, s. *brag* one, is, *to threaten, or sharply*
 BRAG, s. *reprove* one. And hence was
 BRAG, s. deduced, as Junius believes, the
 BRAG, s. English application of the word
 BRAG, s. to show, or to endeavour to strike
 BRAG, s. terror into their opponent by the
 BRAG, s. *assurances* of their threats. The
 BRAG, s. word itself he refers to the A. S. *brag-an, terrene*, to
 BRAG, s. *terrify*. Skinner, on the other hand, says,—perhaps
 BRAG, s. from the Lat. *frago*; *qui* (sc.) *fragorem magnum* edicit.
 BRAG, s. G. Douglas writes, “with *brag* and *boist*,” which, as
 BRAG, s. the Glossarist seems to consider, can be merely the
 BRAG, s. word *brag*, differently written:—and this suggests the
 BRAG, s. A. S. *brac-an, frangere*, to break; as the more probable
 BRAG, s. etymology. *Brag-an, terrene*, is (there can scarcely be
 BRAG, s. a doubt) *brac-an, frangere, contemner*, differently written
 BRAG, s. and applied. Our older English writers, as well as
 BRAG, s. modern crack, supply us with a word similar both in
 BRAG, s. origin and use: viz. to crack, a crack. (q. v.) To
 BRAG, s. brag then is

To break or hurst out, sc. in noisy threats, or boastings; in clamorous pretensions; and thus to proclaim ostentatiously, to vaunt, to boast, to exaggerate. Bale uses the expression, "hragge boastynge."

An horn blew with many boustous bragge,
Which all this world with war hath made to wagge
Chaucer, *The Testament of Cresside*, fol. 195.

BRAO.

But did I then dinne with eruelie
(As trouts do) to kill the yielding prey?
Or did I *bragger* and boast triumphantly
As who should raze the field were mine that day.
Gauvigne. The Lovers of a Loner Forsaken.

My brainless Baerian *brag*
or boast himself as free?
Not I, but Artydina's crew
shows him in how to be.
Turkville. To a late acquainted Friend.

Here place, ye lovers, here before,
That spent your basics and *bragg* in vain,
My ladies beauty passeth more.
The date of yours, I dare not say.
Surrey. A Warning to a Loner.

The chiefs came of this hall, because the cruel contempt of holy
weddicks, and the *bragg* boasting out of their valour
chastity. *Bale. English Valour, part 1. The Conclusion.*

These vaunting verses with a many mo,
(To his mishap) have come raze my hands,
Where the rest bidden he sailed so,
In *bragg* boasts which set justice on ashes,
And brought him the fast bound in folly hands,
Of courtesy I keep them from your sight,
Let those suffice which of myself I write.
Gauvigne. Dun Bartholomew of Bath.

All the nobles of the French courts were in garments of many
colours, so that they were not known from the *bragg*.
Hall. The 1st. Year of King Henry VIII.

The French King did not only outstep his proud words,
and laugh at his merriment and bold *bragg*, but soberly
answered, that without enraging of any league or treaty he
lawfully might and would help his friends.
Id. The 1st. Year of King Edward IV.

None bewail more *bragg* Germanian death in outward
show, then such as in their hearts are most glad.
Gauvigne. Tacitus, fol. 58.

Dro. The brute is, Hector's shame, and by Achilles,
Alas. If it be so, yet *bragg* let it be,
Great Hector was a man as good as he.
Troilus and Cressida, fol. 165.

Seest not thine same hawthorne studds,
How *bragg* it begins to budle,
And utter his tender head?
Flora now calleth forth each flower,
And bids make ready Maia's bower
That new is upris from bed.
Spenser. Shepherd's Calendar, March.

To the only shadow of whose worth yet, I entice not the bold
rimer of every upish and insolent *bragg*, (though he dares
assume any thing) such I turne over to the weaving of cobwebs.
Chapman. Preface to Reader.

His steward was his kinsman, vale expence,
Who proudly strove in matters light to show,
Heroic mind in *bragg* affluence.
F. Fletcher. The Purple Island.

Then
Shall I, none's slave, of high born or rain'd mee
Fraz frowns; and my mistress Truth, betray thee
For the huffing, *bragg*, puff nobility?
Doune. Satire 4.

O my fair mistress, Truth! shall I quit thee
For huffing *bragg* puff nobility?
Pope. Imitation of Donne.

Pao. Why Valentine, what *bragg* is this?
VAL. Pardon me (Prothens) all I can is nothing,
To her, whose worth, make other worthies nothing,
She is alone.
Shakespeare. Two Gentlemen of Verona, fol. 26.

CRAIG. Alas! if I am such a creature,
To grow the worse for growing greater,
Why faith, in spite of all my *bragg*,
Thou Pope must be ashamed of Craggs.
Pope. A Dialogue.

Up spring the tapers as before
The fairies *bragg* foot the floor,
And music fills the hall.
Fennell. A Fairy Tale.

Nor have I hazarded my art,
And such, so long on the state's part,
To be expos'd, I'd and to suffer
By such a *bragg* deceiver suffer.
Bailett. Hudibras, part II. can. 3.

What if, when a pudding for dinner he lacks,
He cries without scruple from other men's sacks;
In this right noble example he *bragg*,
To borrow as freely from other men's bags.
Dowley. Song. The Miller of Mansfield.

Immortal Guy! who rear Wintonia's walls
With that gigantic *bragg* Colbrand high!
For a hoag summer's sole fight maintain'd,
But huge gigantic stay, and *bragg* nath,
And sword or many club, durst not thee out.
Jago. Edge Hill, book II.

As yet, notwithstanding the strutting and lying independence
of a *bragg* philosophy, nature maintains her rights, and great
names have great prevalence.
Burke. Appeal to the Old Whigs.

BRAO, a game at cards formerly much in fashion.
By many persons as the cards will supply may play,
each depositing three stakes: the sum of which is
divided into three unequal portions. Three cards
are dealt at once to each person, the last being turned
up all round. The first stake is won by the player
to whom the highest card is turned up. The ace of
diamonds has precedence over every other card; and
if two players have cards of equal value, the eldest
hand has the preference. The second stake is won by
the *Brag*. A pair of aces is the best *Brag*; a pair of
kings the next, and so on in order. The knave of
clubs and the nine of diamonds combined with any pair
makes what is termed a *pair royal*, and has precedence
over every thing, except a natural *pair royal*, formed
of any of these similar cards. A natural *pair*, however,
does not supersede an artificial pair made by these
favourite cards. Sequences and flushes count after
these pairs. The sport of the game arises at this point.
Any player who *Brags* that he holds a better hand than
his neighbour, may stake upon it according to his
degree of confidence; and the player who *Brags* longest
and ventures most, sweeps the stake, although, perhaps
in truth, his hand is inferior in value. Either party,
however, may if he pleases, demand to see the other,
and then the strongest hand wins. The third stake is
won by the eldest player whose cards amount nearest
to thirty-one.

BRAO, an intoxicating liquor brewed in Russia
from wheat.

BRAO, one of the principal cities in the interior of
Portugal. It is well built, and pleasantly situated
about the middle of the Province of Entre Douro-
e-Minho, on the river Este, and contains a popu-
lation of about 13,000 individuals. The Archbishop
of Braga is Primate of the whole kingdom. Braga
is noted for its manufacture of hats, with which it
supplies a great part of Portugal. This city is
about thirty miles nearly north-east of Oporto; and
a district of the same name encompasses the city,
containing thirteen cantons. The Archbishopric of
Braga also contains one of the divisions of this pro-
vince; and in 1810, had nearly 640,000 inhabitants, of
which the number of females exceeded that of the
males, nearly in the proportion of 112 to 100.

BRAKANZA, one of the oldest towns in Portugal,
in the province of Traz-os-Montes, and on the banks

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of the river Fervensu. It is a fortified town, and has a good citadel, with a population of nearly 3000 individuals, many of whom are engaged in manufactures of taffetas and velvets. This small town is one of the most distinguished in the history of Portugal. Alphonso V. created it a Duchy in 1449; and John II. Duke of Braganza, was raised to the throne of Portugal by the revolution of 1640, as John IV. of Portugal, and from him the present reigning family are descended. While under the dominion of Spain, the Dukes of Braganza took precedence of all the Spanish grandees. They sat under the canopy of the King's throne, and had their usual residence at Villa Viçosa. This town and the surrounding district, containing several villages, still belong to the King of Portugal as Duke of Braganza,

independently of the rest of the kingdom. Latitude 41° 44' N. and longitude 6° 55' W.

BRAGGET, Scotch, *bragwort*. The etymology is unknown. A compound drink made of honey and spices. Grose. *Whalley adds, nle.*

*Thereto the coote sklp, and make a gume,
As any kid or calf following his dame,
Hire mouth was swete as broder on the meke,
Or hard of apples, laid in hay or keth.*

Chaucer. The Miller's Tale, v. 3261.

*Captaine, if ever at the boylng ken,
You have in draught of Darby drilled your men;
And we have were'd there armed all in ale
With the browne bowle, and charg'd in braggert stale,
Ben Jonson. Masques, Gypsey Metamorphosed.*

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BRAHMAN, with the Greek termination *Brachmanos*, and *Brāhman* in some of the spoken dialects, changed into *Brāhmā* by many modern writers, is the name of the first of the four tribes or castes into which the Hindu race has been divided from time immemorial. "In the first creation," says a text of the *Jñāna*, "*Brāhmanas* proceeded, with the *Veda*, from the mouth of *Brahmā*. From his arms *Cāhatriyas* sprang; so from his thigh *Vaisyas*, from his foot *śūdras* were produced." (*Asiatic Researches*, v. 54.) The *Brāhmanas* therefore form the first and most distinguished class, and as they issued from the head together with the holy *Vēda*, must necessarily be the depositaries of all the learning and theology of their countrymen. To study the *Vēdas* and other *Sāstras*, or holy books; to give instruction in the doctrines and duties of religion; and to perform sacred rites, were the occupations assigned by *Brahmā* himself to these his favorite children. All the power and influence therefore, which a monopoly of divine knowledge could give, were secured to this peculiar portion of the people; and the power thus obtained was strengthened and established by a multitude of regulations all designed to draw an inviolable line of distinction between the sacred and secular orders. The six duties prescribed by *Brahmā* were, as we before observed; 1. The study of the *Vēdas*. 2. Application to the other *Sāstras*, (i. e. every other branch of science.) 3. The instruction of others. 4. The performance of the *yajirya*, (jag in Hindi,) a peculiarly holy sacrifice, and *pūjā* or the ordinary worship of the gods. 5. The giving of *dāna* or charitable donations; and 6. Receiving them on account of the *Dēvōths* or *Devities* in honour of whom they are given.

The whole business, therefore, of the sacred order, was the performance of their own religious duties, or the superintendence of those performed by others. They were made at once the stewards and interpreters of the gods; the depositaries of their will, and therefore virtually the proprietors of every object peculiarly consecrated to their service. Issuing from the head of *Brahmā*, the seat and throne, as it were, of heavenly wisdom, it naturally followed that they, and they alone, were qualified to fathom the depths of revelation. Hence the study of the sacred books was

forbidden to the inferior classes; and the two lowest of them, the *Vaisyas* and *śūdras*, were not even to be orally instructed in the hallowed mysteries of the *Vēdas*. But if genuine *Hindūs*, born on the soil of the Holy Land, (*Punya h'bumi*) are not worthy of such sublime knowledge, far less can such an honour be merited by *Barbarians* (*Mlechhas*) from less favored regions; the meanest worshippers of *Brahmā* must be excluded in the eyes of a *Brāhman* far above the unholy wretch who scruples not to lay the hand of violence on the sacred cow; and it must be little short of profanation to suffer mysteries of the faith to be revealed to such degraded beings. Influenced by such prejudices, the Indian sages long resisted every temptation to give their conquerors the key to their hidden treasures, by instructing them in the sacred languages. Justice and benevolence on one side, and gratitude or self-interest on the other, have however at length vanquished their persevering repugnance. Privileges of such magnitude as those which they enjoyed, would easily secure the veneration of the multitude; and as the *Cāhatriyas*, or military class, issued from the arms only of *Brahmā*, even they, though next in rank, are far beneath the offspring of his head, the inheritors of his wisdom and knowledge; so that the *Brāhmanas* are looked up to by the chiefs and warriors, as well as by the artisans and labourers, as persons exalted far above them by birth as well as by acquirements.

Three of the six duties imposed upon this sacred order, were designed, according to the *Dhërma Sāstra* or moral code, for religious, and three for civil objects. By the latter they were to gain a subsistence. They were also allowed, in case they could not maintain themselves by their appointed occupations, to have recourse to those prescribed for the *Cāhatriyas*; that is to practise the secular arts and sciences, and to engage in military service. Thus has every possible method of establishing and maintaining their preponderance been secured by this artificial priesthood; and to hear that a *Brāhman* occupies each important post in the State, is nothing more than what so deeply laid a scheme of intellectual despotism would lead us to expect.

The clear unvarnished language of truth is so fatal to such a system, that the faithful history of real

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events, is of all branches of knowledge that least likely to be encouraged order its influence; and accordingly we find that scarcely any thing like real history exists among the Hindūs. Under the mask of piety, the Brāhmins affect to despise the contemplation of human affairs, and confine their historical inquiries to the genealogies and exploits of their demigods or deified heroes. These are to be found only in their sacred poems, such as the Mahābhārata, Rāmāyana and Purāṇas. Poetry, therefore, rather than prose, is the principal object of their studies: but some abstract sciences also have a share of their attention. Metaphysics, logic, the theory of morals, the science of numbers, geometry and astronomy, or the application of abstract mathematics, were anciently much cultivated, and are still pursued by some to a considerable length. They do not appear to have made any progress in the other branches of science; and we hear of no treatises on mechanics, optics, or hydrostatics by Hindū mathematicians among them; the reason of which is plainly this, that all their pursuits had a reference more or less direct to religion—the peculiar business of their order; and not to mention the connection of astronomy with the heavens, the supposed abode of the divinity, its intimate relation to astrology made it essential to a mystical and allegorical system of religion, in which the heavenly bodies were objects of worship.

Priests.

The proper office of the Brāhmins is to perform the rites of their religion, but some are more peculiarly qualified by their studies to officiate as priests, and their different spiritual ranks and degrees are these:

I. Purohita.

1. The *Purohita* or priest. His business is to assist in the sacrifices, or oblation to the manes of ancestors, in the ten ceremonies called *samsāra*; at *vrata*s or vows; festivals; burnt sacrifices. Some are retained to fast or bathe, instead of the persons who employ them; and others are engaged as family priests; and the same person sometimes acts in that capacity, by means of deputies, for upwards of 1000 families. Presents are made at the conclusion of every sacred sacrifice, and by them as well as the produce of the offerings, the *purohita* is maintained. This office is sometimes hereditary in a family, but is usually held by such as have acquired a sufficient knowledge of the requisite ceremonies; and possess the qualifications pointed out in the *sāstras*. 2. The *Achārya* is a Brāhmin capable of reading and teaching the *Vēdas*. Any one who can perform those offices is allowed the title and privileges belonging to this class, without any previous appointment. The *Achārya*s are commonly employed to read the proper texts at festivals, for which they receive twenty or thirty rupees, (£2. 10s. or £2. 15s.)

2. Achārya.

3. Sadāyā.

3. The *Sadāyā*s are a class of Brāhmins who direct religious ceremonies, and ascertain the correctness of the copies of the purāṇas. Their usual fee is from ten to fifteen rupees. 4. The *Brāhmā*s business is to supply the sacred fire with fuel; and 5. The *Hōta* throws on it gṛhi, or clarified butter; for which he receives the same fee as the *Achārya*. The offerings presented to agni, or fire, are divided between the officiating priests of the four last classes. They are themselves also the objects of a sort of worship, and receive donations of clothes, utensils, and other articles, in the form of oblations. Besides these five orders there are others, who act in inferior capacities as their assistants; the *Vara* who sweeps and decorates the temple, like

4. Brāhmā.

5. Hōta.

Vara.

the oecorus of the Greeks; the *ad hōtri* or purveyor; the *pājaka* or performer of *pāja*s; the *pūchaka* or cook; the *pat haca* or reader; the *d'hāra* or corrector; the *artha* or deputy hearer, and the *nai haca* or paraphrast of the sacred lessons. The whole class appears to have been formerly divided into ten different subdivisions, according to the manner in which the individuals composing each were employed. 1. *Dēras*, who perform sacrifice for themselves alone, and are learners not teachers; 2. *Muni*s, who do not perform the *hōma*, but are teachers; 3. *Dēvōjās*, who are active as well as passive agents with respect to all Brāhminical duties; 4. *Rājās*; 5. *Vaisya*s; 6. *Sūdras*, who perform the duties required from the castes whose names they bear; 7. *Biddhāras* or mendicants; 8. *Pishas* or reproaches, who neglect all rules; 9. *Mlechhas* or infidels, who adopt foreign usages; and lastly, 10. *Chandālas* or outcasts, who eat carrion, and are considered as the basest of men. Another division of this class, which deserves to be mentioned, is that derived from the countries whence they originally came. There were ten distinct families in Janbu dwipa, or Hindustān, and the western peninsula of India, the *Sārasvata*, *Cānyacubja*, *Gaṇa*, *Maitihila*, *Utena*, *Drāvida*, *Marabāhtra*, *Tailānga*, *Gujjara* and *Cāśmīra*, named from the countries in which they were established; viz. the banks of the *Sārasvati*, *Cauṣṭhī*, *Beṅgal*, *Tirhāt*, *Orissā*, *Travancore*, the *Marhattah* country, *Telingānah*, *Gujarāt* and *Cashmir*. These distinctions, like those of the twelve tribes among the Israelites, seem now to be lost; and all the Brāhmins in Bengal are considered as descended from five priests, invited from *Cānyacubja* (Cauṣṭhī) by Adishā King of Gaṇa (the western portion of the Province), supposed to have reigned about three centuries before Christ. Ballālā Sena, who reigned in the twelfth century of our era, determined the precedence of the 156 families which had at that period sprung from the five original colonists; and the distinctions then fixed are still retained. One hundred of these families were settled in Varāṇsī, the tract liable to inundation, north of the Ganges; and fifty-six in Rārā, the country to the west of the B'hāgrā'ha. They are now dispersed throughout the province; and there are also five families of Vaidika Brāhmins, whose ancestors were already settled there, when those from *Cānyacubja* were first introduced. The latter are allowed to intermarry with the Brāhmins of Rārā. Of the Varāṇsī Brāhmins there are eight families of *Coṭras* or nobles; as many *sūda*'ha *śrōtrīs*, or families of the second rank, and eighty-four *śaṣṭha* *śrōtrīs*, or families of the third rank. The Rārā Brāhmins have six of the highest and fifty of the lower orders. Those of the highest rank still preserve the distinctive appellation of the family from which they are derived; B'hāta, Daesha, Vēdagarva, Chandra and Śrī Herasha: hence the frequent occurrence of some of those names, in Indian history. Sarman, a surname common to the whole tribe of Brāhmins, is assumed by those of inferior rank, and was used in the time of the Greeks, who considered Sarmanos as a title equivalent to Brachmannos.

According to the letter of the *Sāstras*, every Brāh- Four man ought to pass through four states or degrees, *āśrama*, called *āśrama*, designed, it should seem, to occupy him during the four distinct periods of life; youth, manhood, old age, and decrepitude. These degrees

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Ad hōtri.
Pājaka.
Pat haca.
D'hāra.
Artha.
Nai haca.
1. Dēra.
2. Muni.
3. Dēvōj.
4. Rājā.
5. Vaisya.
6. Sūdra.
7. Biddhāra.
8. Pishaka.
9. Mlechha.
10. Chandala.

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confer the title of *Brahmachārya* and *Brahmachāryon*, *Grīhast'ha*, *Vānaprast'ha* and *Brahmājyotiṣ*. The first continues till marriage, and is a sort of novitiate; the second terminates at the age of fifty, and comprehends the whole period of active life; the third is devoted to religious contemplation in its strictest sense; and the last, which occupies the remainder of life, is considered as the highest pitch of human perfection, and consists in a complete abstraction from all human passions, and absorption in meditation on the Deity. The duties required, and forms to be observed, in these different states are minutely pointed out, in the *fasti*-*lutes* of Menu, and other sacred books: a few of them only can be mentioned here. The first step is the assumption of the Brahmanical thread, (*zunnār* or *pañā*;) the initiation into their religion, which may be received at any time between the ages of eight and sixteen. The sacred cord must be twisted by the father or spiritual director (*guru*) of the youth, and consists of three threads, each measuring ninety-six hands, twisted together, and then beat back in three parts of equal length, so as to form nine threads which are again twisted together; the cord thus made, is again folded back in three parts, and a knot is tied at each end. The whole is passed over the head, and rests on the left shoulder, hanging down on the right side as far as the fingers can reach. Four sacerdotal threads thus formed are worn by the Brahmins. The second thing is to learn the *Gāyatrī*, or mother of the *Vēdas*; an invocation of the *sua* as the illuminator of all objects, and the image of the divine spirit which enlightens the soul. This is considered by the Hindūs as a sort of confession of faith, like the *calimah* of the Mohammedans, (*la ilah illa'llah*;) and is not only held in the highest veneration, but is carefully concealed from all profane eyes and ears. A staff of palasa wood (*Butea frondosa*) is then presented to the novice, and he is removed from his father's house to the abode of his *guru* or spiritual guide, where he is instructed in the *Vēdas*. His dress, like that of other Indians, is very simple, consisting only of 1. the *langōḍī*, a cloth twisted round the waist and between the legs; 2. the *lungī*, another cloth covering the former; 3. a sheet without any seam; and 4. a linen cap. His head is closely shorn, leaving only one lock of hair hanging from the back of the crown. When the *Sāstras* are strictly followed, the life of a *Brahmachārya* is regulated by a most minute ritual. The day of twelve hours, from 5 a. m. to 7 in the evening, is divided into seven equal parts. On first waking, several invocations are prescribed, particularly one to *Arjuna*, or the Dawn, who is entreated to restore what may have been lost. Meditation on his *guru*, and an acknowledgment of his errors then follow. We cannot but admire this part of the ritual. The invocation of *Arjuna* is plainly allegorical, and implies that the approaching day may repair the omissions of that which has just passed by. The invocation of the spiritual guide is expressed in terms worthy of Christianity—"Oh, *Guru*! in obedience to thy commands, I descend from my couch! Oh, *Guru*! I know what is right, but I do it not! I know what is wrong, but I forsake it not!" Ablutions with water, and frictions with earth, or the mud of the *Ganges* then follow; these are performed with much exactness, according to the minute ceremonial before mentioned; and the particulars of which are detailed by Mr. Ward and Mr. Colebrooke in the works named

1. *Brahma-
chāri*.

below. Prayers called *Sind'hya*, and a *hōma* or burnt sacrifice conclude the first service of the day. The study of the *Vēdas* occupies the principal part of the time that elapses before the sun begins to decline, when the morning rites are repeated: after which the novice begs for food at a few houses, and having returned home, obtains his *guru*'s permission to eat. Graces are said before and after eating, and not a word is allowed to be uttered during the meal. The morning services are repeated at dusk; two or three hours more are spent in study, and he retires to rest on a truss of straw, or the skin of a wild beast. Dexterity and abstinence, in a very high degree, are required during this novitiate. "The *Brahmachāri*," says Abū'l fadl, "uses neither *surmah* (collyrium) nor oil, and never goes where there is singing, dancing or gaming. He never kills any animal, and has no commerce with women. He never eats of any dish till his instructor has tasted it. He is enjoined to abstain from lying, anger, avarice and envy; and is forbidden to speak ill of any one, even although he may deserve it." "A novice," according to the *Tantra sūtra*, "must honour his *guru* as one who rescues him from the path of sin, and places him in the way of holiness." This severe state of probation is sometimes continued for eight and forty years, but usually lasts only for five.

The second degree is commenced by a singular 2. *Grīhast'ha* form, bearing a resemblance to what might be termed the emblematical conditions required by some of our ancient tenases. The novice, taking up his staff, pretends to set out for the forest where he means to dedicate all his days to spiritual study and contemplation, becoming a complete anchorite, and living on the charity of the passing stranger: but his parents withhold him, exclaiming "Return, oh child! thou shalt not go into the wilderness. We will supply thee with alms! Marry, become a householder, and perform the duties of a *Grīhast'ha*!" For the twelve following days he must use extraordinary abstinence, and take the greatest care not even to see the face of a *sūdra*. On the twelfth he bathes as usual, and immediately afterwards throws his staff into the stream, repeating the formularies by which he renounces the state of a *Brahmachārya*. He soon afterwards marries, and then adds to his former acts of devotion daily oblations (*aridd'ha*) to the manes of his ancestors, libations of *g'hī*, or clarified butter, or the *hōma* (the sacred fire,) and adoration of the *Sūlagrāma* and the cow; of which the former is a perforated stone found in *Néplī*, and supposed to be the abode of Vishnu.

"When the father of a family," says Menu in his 3. *Brah-
man*. Institutes, "perceives his muscles become flaccid and his hair grey, and sees the child of his child, let him then seek refuge in a forest. Abandoning all food eaten in towns, and all his household utensils, let him repair to the lonely wood, committing the care of his wife to her sons, or accompanied by her, if she choose to attend him. Let him take up his consecrated fire, and all his domestic implements of making oblations to it, and departing from the town to the forest, let him dwell in it, with complete power over his organs of sense and of action. With many sorts of pure food, such as holy sages used to eat; with green herbs, roots and fruit; let him perform the five great sacraments, introducing them with due ceremonies. Let him wear a black antelope's hide, or a vesture of bark; let him bathe evening and morning; let him

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suffer the hairs of his head, his beard and his nails to grow continually. From such food as he may eat, let him, to the utmost of his power, make offerings and give alms; and with presents of water, roots and fruit, let him honour those who visit his hermitage. Let him be constantly engaged in reading the Védas; patient of all extremities; universally benevolent, with a mind intent on the Supreme Being; a perpetual giver, but no receiver of gifts; with tender affection for all animated bodies. Let him slide backwards and forwards on the ground; or let him stand a whole day on tip-toe; or let him continue in motion, rising and sitting alternately: but at sunrise, at noon, and at sunset, let him go to the waters and bathe. In the hot season, let him sit exposed to five fires; four blazing around him, with the sun above: in the rain, let him stand uncovered, without even a mantle, and where the clouds pour the heaviest showers: in the cold season, let him wear a humid vesture; and let him increase by degrees the nudity of his devotion. Then, having reposed his holy fires, as the law directs, in his mind, let him live without external fire, without a mansion, wholly silent, feeding on roots and fruit. Or the hermit may bring food from a town, having received it in a basket of leaves, in his naked hand, or in a potsherd; and then let him swallow eight mouthfuls. A Brâhman, becoming void of sorrow and fear, and having shaken off his body by any of those modes which great sages practiced, rises to exaltation in the divine essence." This is the state and penance of the Vânaprast'ha or anchorites of the forest; the third degree to which a Brâhman ought to aspire. It is worth observing, that the last clause in the passage, quoted from Menu, is well explained by another in the Ayin Akbari, which says, that if the Grîhast'ha be weary of life, he travels towards the east, or north, till he expires with fatigue, or throws himself into a fire, or precipitates himself from an eminence, or drowns himself; and is sure of being rewarded with mucta, or admission into heaven. Suicide and self-immolation, as is well known, are favorite doctrines of the Hindû creed.

Brâhm-
jyoti.

When he has become 'void of all sorrow and fear,' and is entirely absorbed in contemplation of the Deity, he has attained the last and greatest of the four degrees (âsram;) and is a Brâhmajyoti, one thoroughly acquainted with God! though all the four Védas are held in equal estimation, and are all studied by devout Brâhmans, some allowing twelve years for each of them, yet one is generally selected as the peculiar object of study; and hence four sects have arisen, according as preference is given to the Rig, Yajur, Sâm, or At'hervn Vêdn. The Brâhmans also belong to other orthodox sects, of Saivas, Vaishnavas, and Sâktas; and consequently place themselves peculiarly under the guardianship of Siva, Vishnu, or Durgâ, whose distinguishing marks are traced on their foreheads: but it is only in the first and third that many Brâhmans are to be found.

The sanctity and inviolability of a Brâhman is maintained, in the eyes of his countrymen, by a great number of most severe penalties. The murder of one of that order, robbing him, &c. or having intercourse with his wife, are placed in the list of sins almost inexorable; and completely shut the offender out of society. Even the slaughter of a cow belonging to a Brâhman, requires the following penance. A contin-

ance with the head shorn for thirty days in the cow-house, clothed in a cow's hide, and fed upon barley boiled in a cow's urine: a bath of the same fluid, during the two following months, are the beginning of the punishment. Dust raised by the feet of cows must be eaten, and the cow-house must be watched by the penitent, sitting upright and cross-legged through the whole night: and two cows with a bull must be offered to a learned Brâhman, to complete the expiation. The mere act of eating with a person of the lower castes, renders a Brâhman impure, and requires a heavy fine by way of atonement; extreme debasement in the oppressed, and excess of arrogance, self-sufficiency and vanity in the favoured classes, must be the consequences of such a system; and both of these we find existing; so that after making every allowance for prejudice and narrow views in some, as well as an ill-grounded partiality to others, who have given us accounts of the Hindûs, the result of a comparison of their varying statements, will be far from favourable to the Brâhmans considered as a body, or to the moral effect of the doctrines which they profess. The truth seems, as is usually the case, to lie between the two extremes; and, as there is more pure morality in the religion of the Hindûs, and less evil arising from the grossness of their mythological poems, than one party is willing to allow; so are the mischievous effects of their exclusive, ascetic doctrines, on the sacred order, and of their indolent exhibitions on the inferior classes entirely overlooked by the other. The well-informed, in short, and well-disposed, fix upon the good principles taught by their philosophers, and allegorize away the offensive parts of their parânas, as the Platonic philosophers did with regard to the Grecian mythology; while the vicious and illiterate have little or no check from their creed, and are often spurred on in their career by ceremonies and expressions which are understood by them in all their literal grossness.

Ancient
accounts.

On comparing the Gymnosophists described by the Greeks and Roman writers, with the Brâhmans of the present day, the coincidence in their habits and institutions, shew that the character and religion of the Hindûs has continued almost unaltered through a long lapse of ages. Their abode in the forests; application to astronomy; employment as ministers of the Indian Princes; and care to giving lessons of religion and morality to the people: their abstinence from animal food, severe penances, continual hymns and sacrifices to the Gods; frequent acts of derision and fasting; abstraction from all worldly pursuits, and desire of reunion with the Divinity, are mentioned by Porphyry, and others of the ancients, as claiming the admiration and reverence of the rest of mankind. According to Strabo, they selected the most promising children, in order to prepare them by education for admission into their order; for, as Arrim had been informed, they alone could adopt into their own members selected from the other castes. As it would be impossible to quote all the passages of the ancients, in which the Brâhmans are mentioned, and as most of the points in which their accounts are confirmed by recent observations have been already noticed, it will be sufficient to add a brief abstract of such peculiarities recorded by these, as are not found in the practice or writings of the Hindûs themselves. Hierocles says, that they wore garments made of an incombustible texture

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which was cleansed and whitened instead of being consumed by fire, and which must therefore have been asbestos. Divination was exclusively exercised by them, according to Arrian, particularly when unfavorable seasons, or public calamities were apprehended; but they never exercised their power of diving into futurity with regard to private concerns, restricting it entirely to public affairs. Silence was the only punishment inflicted on the soothsayer, who had failed a third time in his divinations. Their diet consisted not only in the fruit, but in the bark of certain trees, which was sweet and nutritious. Their mode of living was the most austere and remote from all indulgence; and that, he intimates, was the reason why they were allowed to adopt individuals belonging to the other castes. Strabo observes, that they did not seek for scholars, but gave instructions to such as would come to hear them; if, however, their disciples spoke, or even spat, they were excluded for that day from hearing their discourses. After a period of thirty-seven years, their disciples were allowed to relax from such excessive rigour; to indulge in animal food, provided they abstained from the flesh of such beasts as labour for man; they were then permitted to marry, but not to instruct their wives in the mysteries of their philosophy, lest the women should either divulge the secret; or, by becoming more learned, fancy themselves released from the necessity of obeying their husbands. The philosophical specu-

lations of the Brâhmanas, which will be detailed in another article, approached nearly to those of the Greeks; but the Indian sages had a considerable advantage over their western brethren, from the possession of a mythological system more manifestly allegorical than that of the Greeks; and from having been instructed in the doctrine of the Vedas, more intellectual as well as more simple, than the gross superstructure afterwards raised upon it; for in those ancient books, the objects presented for the adoration of the worshipper are aerial beings, the elements, and the heavenly bodies; the works and apparent agents of the Deity; and the visible manifestations of an invisible Creator.

(Tertullian. *Apologet.* c. 4.; Augustin. *De civitate Dei*; Clemens Alex. *Stromat.* l. 1.; Strabo. *Geogr.* xv.; Diodor. Sic. ii.; Arrian. *Ind.* p. 334; Philostrat. *Vita Apollon*; Bernier. *Mémoires de l'Empire du Grand Mogol*; Lord's *Religion of the Banians*; Maurice's *History of Hindostan and Indian Antiquities*; Asiatic Researches; Universal History, vi.; Fra Paolo da San Bartolomeo *Travels*; Ayeen Akbery, ii.; Dow's *Hindustan*, i.; Foster's *Travels*, i.; (Crawford's) *Sketches of the Hindoos*; Quentin Crawford's *Researches*, ii.; *Institutes of Menu*, *Ediab. Review*, x. and xii.; Ward's *View of the Hist. &c. of the Hindoos*, ii.; Halhed's *Code of Gentoo Laws*; Colebrooke's *Digest of Hindû Law*; Solomys, *Description des coutumes des Hindous*, Paris, 1808.)

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BRAID.

BRAID, v. } *Bray, brayed, braid.* See ABRAID.
BRAID, n. } Applied to any frequent or sudden and
BRAID, adj. } violent action or motion. The adjective, used by Shakespeare, seems to denote, sudden and violent.

To break, pull or tear;—to start, leap or spring: to make an irruption, sally, assault, onset, insurrection, revolt. See Dr. Jamieson in V. Brade, who assigns (unnecessarily) various etymologies for various applications of the same word. See Tooke, ii. 47. See BRAE.

A gret ok he wolde *braid* a down, as smal gerde were,
And here forth in his hood, but fole forie a fern.

R. Glouceter, p. 23.

When þe day was ent, to rest men wer alle laid,

Isaac gan repret, þat he to R. said.

Falle stille away þe went, þat was a thewes *braid*.

R. Brumme, p. 164.

Iak broþer þe how slejþe, þe Waleis þat is said,

þe more Iak was fajn, to do William þat *braid*.

Id. p. 329.

And when he saw how stille that I lay,

He was agast, and wold have fled away.

Tid at the last out of my awough I *keyrde*.

O, hast thou slain me, false thief? I sayde,

And for þou hadst thus hant thou mortherd me.

Claucor. *The Wif of Barker, Prologue*, v. 6361.

For free almost out of his wil he *breyde*,

And to his goddes piously he *preyde*.

For socour. Id. *The Meneas Tale*, v. 14456.

— And sodelicly

His swordis all naked out he *breyde*

In his foot heast, and thus he saide.

Am cause of this telenie,

So it is reason, that I die.

Gower. *Conf. Am.* book II. fol. 35.

For Hercules hede of hym toke,

Till it was vadious high as a mo

And than he gan to sign now.

And sodelicly he *breyde* of slepe.

Gower. *Conf. Am.* book v. fol. 161.

He brighth to the matter after his two yeeres meeting therup, oicher in sight of any substantial learning, nor yet anye prooffe of reason or natural vytye, but only a rawe malicious fantastike *braid*.

Sir Thomas More's *Works*, fol. 442.

DIANA. Since Freshmen are so *brawle*

Marry that will, I live and die a maid.

Shakespeare. *All's well that ends well*, fol. 246.

BRAID, OF

BRAID, OF

BRAID, n.

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BRAID, n.

A. S. *bredan*; Dutch, *breyden*; to

knit, to plight, to wreath.

Whose apperell shall not be outward with *broided* heere, & hangings on of gold, either in putting on of gorgeous apperell: but let the hid man of the hert be vncout, with a meke and quiet spirit, which spirit is before God a thinge much set by.

Bible, 1531. 1 *Eps. Peter*, ch. iii.

Likewyse also the women that they weare then selles in comlye apperell with shamefastnes and discret bebaseour, not with *broided* heere, other golde, or pearches, or costly array.

Id. 1531. 1 *Eps. Timothy*, ch. ii.

The single twyned cordes may no such streesse endure, As cables *broyded* three-fould may, together a rebbed sure.

Surrey. *Echraustes*.

S. Peter saith; let not the outward apperell of women bee decked with the *broyding* of hir haire, not with wrapping of golde aboute it, or proudly cladding; but the mind and the conscience, that is not seene with eyes, if it be pure & quiet, that is a godly thing and excellent afore God. And S. Paul saith; women in their array shoulde apperell themselves with shamefastnes and sobriety, and not with *broyding* of their haire, or golde, or pearches or precious clothing; but as women ought to doe, let them please vertus by good workes.

Fence. *Christian Women*.

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BRAIN.

Behold, behold, they never stand content
With God, with kinde, with any help of arte,
But curie their locks, with bodkins and with braide,
But dye their heare, with sundry subtilt sleights.
Gargincus, Epilogue in the Steel Glass.

Thy colours I devis'd with care,
Which were unknowne before;
Which since that, in their braided haire
Thou Nymphs and Silvana were.
Drayton, The Quest of Cynthia.

When he (Alexander) sawe he coule not finde the end of this
thegre, that were hidden within the writhes, constraining the cracle
to the uttermoste. He cutte the writhes a sonder with a sword,
and so when he had loosed the writhes, he found the ends of the
knottes within the braides. *Arthur Goleguy, Justice, fol. 54.*

The richest colours, flowery Carmel weare,
Red fillets, cross'd with purple, braid thy haire.
Parsons, The gift of Poetry.

She was, it seems, a person of distinction, for she every day
came to him in a different dress, of the most beautiful shells,
bugles and beads. *Spectator, No. 11.*

Fresh as the month, and as the morning fair;
Adown her shoulders fell her length of haire;
A ribbon did the braided tresses bind,
The rest was loose, and wanton in the wind.
Drayton, Palamon and Arcite.

O nymph reserv'd, while now the bright-hair'd Sun
Sits in yon western teare, whose cloudy skirts,
With brede rubicund sower,
O'rchang his wavy bed. *Collins, Ode to Evening.*

All the shadowy tribes of mind
In braided chain their murmurs join'd,
And all the bright uncounted powers,
Who feed on heaven's ambrosial flowers.
Id. Ode on the Poetical Character.

BRAIL, v. } The ropes used to truss up a sail to
BRAIL, n. } the yard or mast whereto it is attached,
are, in a general sense, called *brails*. Falconer, note
13 on *The Shipwreck*, can. 2.

The main sail, by the main sail to lately rent,
In streaming pendants flying is unbeat;
With *brails* rest'd another soon prepar'd,
Ascending spreads along beneath the yard.
Falconer, Shipwreck, can. 2.

Deep, on her side, the reeling vessel lies:
Brail up the mizen quick! the master cries.
Id. A. can. 2.

BRAIN, v. } A. S. *brægen*; Dutch, *breyne*.
BRAC, n. } Janius and Skinner concur
BRA'UNSH, } in referring to the Gr. *βράχνη*,
BRA'INLEAS, } *inceptus*; *quod est* (Skinner adds)
BRA'INPAN, } *cerebræ ardes*. *βράχνη*, Eostanthius
BRA'INICK, } says, (in *II. e. v. 585*.) is so called
BRA'INICKLY, } *ἀρά τῆ βράχνης*, to wet, to moisten,
BRA'INICKNESS, } because in infants that part
BRA'INWORK. } is wet or moist.

To brain, is to deprive of the brain, to knock out
the brains.

As ye espyerour mid his scheld þe stoh brate ynow,
And drow his sword on hec, & to þe gronde faste slow,
And smot Neanya þurg þe helm moned toward þe brayn.
R. Gloucester, p. 49.

The long day with spears sharp yground
With arrows, darts, swords, and maces fel
They fight, & bringe horse & man to ground
And with hir axes out the braines quill.
Chaucer, Troilus, book iv.

Yet hane I pceeded them openly with the everlastyng worde of
God and that not wronge, nor wrested after my lyghte brayn,
but after the exposition of clerkely doctours, yea and that of the
oldest & of the best. *Barnes, Works, fol. 355.*

And in very deed it were better to be married unto an image,
or a picture, or unto a painted table than to be married to a
vicious, or a foolish, or a brainless man.

Fies Christian Whimsey,

When rash unbridled youth had run his reckless race,
And caried me with careless course to many a great disgrace,
Then ripe mellowed years, thought good to turne their trade,
And had repentance holde the reins, to rule the brainless iade.
Gargincus, Weekes.

He sayd, this anement es so gode,
That, if a man be bryne-wode,
And he war ones anywt with yt,
Smerly sold he have his wit.
Yvonne and Gawin, l. 1756.

Guying them warning, that the archers and other of the
common people were alied together to the number of vi. m. to the-
test to *brayne*, or to kyll them in theyr lodgyngs, cryeth by
nyght, or by day.
Piersie, Croyette, v. c. 16.

"I did not read to the intent to be edified thereby nor to seek
the glorie of God: contrariwise, arrogantly to be scilicet and
to dispute thereof, and privately to interpret it after my owne
brayne and affection."

Stowe, Anna, 1583. Queen Mary.

Because the work might in truth be judged brainial, if nothing
but amorous humour were landed therein, I have interwoven
matters historical, which unexplained, might defraud the mind of
much content. *Drayton, To the Reader.*

The upper part of this root (for it groweth double) stamped
with frankincense and mixt with wine of equal weight, and so
made into salve, draweth out the spils or broken skales in the
brain-pen or scull. *Holland, Plinie, v. ii. fol. 233.*

Whilst charming fancies move me to reveal
The idle ramings of my brain-sick youth,
My heart doth pant within, to hear my mouth
Unfold the follies which it would conceal.
Stirling, Aurora, Sonnet I.

Cowardise is nothing with them but heedful verineace: brain-
sickness they outdo promptly, quicquid, and celeritate.
Holland, Platerch, fol. 77.

LADY. Who was it, that thus cry'd? why worthy Thane,
You doe vaband your nobil strength, to thinke
So brain-sickly of things: goe get some water,
And wash this filthie witnes from your hand.
Shakespeare, Macbeth, fol. 136.

Whereas I briefly mentioned certain heads of discourse, which I
refer'd to a place more proper according to my method, so be
treated there at full with all their reasons about them, this *brain-*
worm against all the laws of dispute, will needs deal with them
here. *Milton, Colasterion.*

As Homer tells us that the blood of the gods is not real blood,
but only something like it, so we found that the brain of a beast
is not real brain, but only something like it. *Spectator, No. 275.*

I do not know to whom I can more properly apply myself for
relief from this fantastical evil, than to yourself; whom I earnestly
implore to accommodate me with a method how to settle my head
and cool my brain-pen. *Id. No. 167.*

Let those who boast the uncommon gift of brains,
The laurel pluck, and wear it for their pains;
Fresh on their brows for ages let it bloom
And, ages past, still flourish round their tomb.
Churchill, The Candidate.

Ill-fated youth! what stars malignant shed
Their baneful influence o'er thy brainless head,
Doom'd to be ever writing, never read.
P. Whitehead, State Demos.

Mark well the genius of this fiery place,
The wild assumptions of the brainless race,
Whose minds the beams of Titan, too intense,
Affect with frenzy, and distract the sense.
Faucher, of Engage to the Placide.

BRAINE L' ALEU, a small town of the Nether-
lands, in the southern part of the Duchy of Brabant,
situated in the road from Nivelles to Brussels, con-
taining about 2500 inhabitants, many of whom are
employed in manufactures of woolen and glass. At
the memorable battle of Waterloo the right of the
British forces extended nearly to this town.

BRAIN.
BRAIN
L' ALEU.

BRABINE
LE COMTE
—
BRAKE

BRABINE LE COMTE, a town in the Netherlands, in the province of Hainault, containing about 3000 inhabitants, who are noted for their manufacture of fine thread used by the lacemakers of Brussels. It formerly contained a fortress and an ancient tower, the latter of which tradition ascribed to Brennus, the General of the *Galli Senones*; but it was blown up by the Spaniards in 1677, and a church has been erected on or near the site. Brabine le Comte is about 15 miles nearly north-east of Mons.

BRAINTREE, a large town in the county of Essex, connected with the village of Bocking, with which it forms a continuous street. Baintree, in the reign of Henry III. was a hamlet of the parish of Raines, but its great increase erected it into a separate parish. In the time of Elizabeth it was largely colonized by fugitives from the persecution of the Duke d'Alva in the Netherlands; these first introduced the manufacture of halze and serge into England, a trade which is still carried on in Baintree. Population, in 1821, 2983. The river Pant, here called the Blackwater, flows through the village of Bocking. The church of this last, which is a rectory, is a peculiar of the Archbishop of Canterbury, and is one of those which has Deans attached to it. Population, in 1821, 2786. Distance from London 40 miles north-east.

BRAKE, that which breaketh; sc. the strength, the spirit, the temper; that which restrains, holds, or keeps in, confines, curbs, tames, subdues.

But such as have their stables full yfrought
With pamper'd jades, ought therewithal to wey,
What great excess, upon them may be spent,
How many pores, (which wide nor brake nor hit)
Might therewithal, in godly wise be fedde.

Gargoyne. The Steel Glass.

In his right hand (which to and fro did shake)
She bore a shewer, with many a knottic string,
And in her left, a snaffle bit or brake,
Beset with gold, and many a glingling ring.

Id. Th.

But the law had them in such a brake, that they could not chuse, but grant, that they had well deserved punishment, for so much as it could not be denied, but that it was good and honest, which was by the law commended.

Udall. Galatki, ch. iii.

This Bucephalus was a passing faire horse fierce & full of courage, whiche Philip had bought of a Thessalon for thirteene talents & because of his fiercenes, kepte him within a brake of iron barres.

Stroud. Quintus Curtius, fol. 6.

Among engines of artillery, the Cretes invented the scorpion or cross-bow: the Syrians, the catapult: the Persians the ballist or brake, and the sling. *Holland. Pliniv, v. l. 189.*

BRAKE, } Brake or brachen is perhaps so called,
BRAKE, } says Skinner, *quia fragilis est*; easy to break.

A brake, Junius refers to the same origin. Any place covered with such undergrowth as bracken, briars, or hrambles, is so called.

So sheepe with wool are clad,
their masters have the gaine,
So birds do build their nests on brakes
and put themselves to paine.

Twisden. The lover finding his Love.

Repaire to heare the wedded make
And late yrouped in a kooe,
The Philomelic that sits in brakes,
And telles of Terres truth by note.

Id. The Lover hoping redress, &c.

The fields of coasht here are beds of downe,
Or heaped lilies under shalle brakes;
But come and see our queene with golden crowne
That all her servants blest & happy makes.
Purpase. Griefe of Beninge, book xv. st. 64.

The nimble squirrel noting here,
Her mossy dray that makes;
And laugh to see the dusty deer
Come bounding oer the brakes.
Drayton. The Quest of Cynthia.

Why kept he not amongst the fennes?
Or on the cupes by,
Or in the woods, and leasly glennes,
Where hawes and acorns lie.
Browne. The Shepherds Pipe.

—The juicy groves
Put forth their buds, unfolding by degrees,
Till the whole leafy forest stands display'd;
In full luxuriance to the sighing gales;
Where the deer rustle through the twining brake,
And the birds sing conceal'd.
Thomson. Spring.

Thou, at the shut of ev'n, the weary bird
Leaves the wide air, and in some lonely brake
Cov's down, and dozes till the daws of day,
Then claps her well-tied wing, and bears away.
Blind. The Grave.

BRAKE, the English name for the *Pteris aquilina*, or common Fern.

BRAMA, Schn.; Cuv. *brema*, in Zoology, a genus of animals belonging to the family *Squamipennes*, order *Acanthopterygii*, class *Pisces*. Generic character: forehead very perpendicular; tail forked and rigid.

Of this genus, there seems to be but one species well ascertained, viz. *B. Reii*, Schneid.; *Sparus Reii*, Bloch; *B. Marini*, Ray; *Sea Bream*. It measures about two feet in length, and has much the figure of the common Bream; the front is so vertical as to suggest the idea of the muzzle having been cut off; the mouth is directed upwards; the dorsal fin extends along the whole length of the back to the tail, and is covered with broad stiff scales, as are also the anal and caudal fins; the teeth long and hooked, and one of the outer rows very strong; the back black and becoming lighter by degrees, till the belly is of a silvery colour; all the fins of a dingy red except the dorsal, which is reddish at its base, but of a bluish green above. They are found, according to Lacépède in the strait which divides England from France, along the western French coast, and near the Cape of Good Hope; they are considered very good for the table. See Cuvier, *Règne Animal*; Bloch, *Systema Ichthyologie*; Lacépède, *Histoire Naturelle des Poissons*; Ray, *Synopsis Piscium*.

BRAMBER, a Borough town in the county of Sussex, though now a mere village, was once of sufficient importance to give its name to the Rape in which it is situated. It adjoins the Borough of Steyning, and each returns two Members to Parliament. A small stream flows near the town, and the ruins of a strong and extensive castle are still remaining. The church is a rectory, in the gift of Magdalen College, Oxford. The population, in 1821, was 98. Distance from London 51 miles south.

BRAMBLE, } Dutch, *braem*; A.S. *brambel*,
BRAMMALCO, } bramble; which Skinner derives
BRAMBLE-BERRIES, } from the A.S. *bremel*, *agave*,
crucians; because it tears or lacerates the hands with its thorns. *Bremel* probably is from *bremmen*, *furere*. See **BRAMBE**.

BRAKE.
—
BRAM-
BLE.

BRAM-
BLE.
—
BRANCH.

But he was chaste and no lecherous,
And sweet as is the *bramble* flower
That beareth the red lippe.

Chaucer. The Rime of Sir Thopas, v. 13676.

None of you all there is, that is so mallice
To seek for grapes on *brambles* or on bryers.

Wyer. Of the meane and sure Estate.

But in the one it bryngeth forth good corne & sweete frutes :
and in the other it bryngeth forth nettles and *brambles*, that be
nothing worth but to the fier. *Barnes. Works, fol. 261.*

Whereupon is thought that he [Demosthenes] forsook his
colours and fled ; now as he made haste away, there chanced a
bramble to take hold of his smock behind, whereat he turned
back and said unto the *bramble*: Save my life and take my
rascoule. *Hollant. Plutarch, fol. 763.*

Doth the *bramble* cumber a garden ? It makes the better hedge :
where if it chanceth to prick the carer, it will tear the thief.
Gros. Cosmologia Sacra, book iii. ch. ii.

Content with food which nature freely breed,
On wildings and on strawberries they fed ;
Cornels and *bramble-berries* gave the rest,
And falling acorns haish'd out the feast.

Dryden. Ovid. The Golden Age.

What tho' no native charms my person grace,
Nor beauty moulds my form, nor paints my face ;
The sweetest fruit may often pall the taste,
White slices and *brambles* yield a safe repast.

Blacklock. The Painter Shepherd.

Yet hence hathro'd in venerable state,
Proud hospitality dispos'd her store ;
Ah, see, beneath you tower's unvalued gate,
Forsoen she sits upon the *brambled* floor.

Warren. Ode III.

BRAMBLING, in Zoology, a common name of the
Fringilla Montifringilla.

BRAN, } Fr. *bran* ; It. *brana*. Sommer thinks
Bran's *brun*. It is from the A. S. *brun*, brown : the
brown, as contrasted with the white, sc. the white
meal. Chaucer writes *bran*. See Junius and Menage.

In school is great altercation
In this matter, and grete disputacion,
And hath ben of an hundred thousand men,
But I we can not boudie it to the *bran*.

Chaucer. Nonnes Priores Tale, v. 15177.

Ye shall, I warrant you, very well perceive, that who his words
be well sifted, men shall find little fine flower in that, but all very
mean *branne*, not worthy so much as to feed either horse or
hogges. *Sir Thomas More. Works, fol. 649.*

For that is meale with philosophers, is taken but for *bran* and
chaffe with simple folks. And contrariwise, the meale of the
simple is but *bran* and chaffe among wise men.

Guiden Book, F. 6. 2.

Their common drinke is mead, the poorest sort of water, and
a third drinke called *quase*, which is nothing else (as we say)
but water turned out of his wit, with a little *branne* mingled
with it.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. The Manner of the Ruys, v. l. fol. 469.

Otherwise there be certain *branne* scales called *daudruffe*,
which over-spread the head. *Holland. Plinie, li. fol. 365.*

Fed him with herbs, wherever thou must find,
Of generous warmth : and of adulous kind,
Then water him, and (drinking what he ead)
Haccourage him to thirst again with *bran*.

Dryden. Virgil's Georgics, l. 3.

BRANCH, s. " *Branch* ; Flind. *ranche* ; Gal.
BRANCH, s. *branch* ; English, *branche*. *Barus*
BRANCH, s. *tennis et lange se extendens*. Killen.
BRANCHING, From *ranke*, *ranken*, (A. S. *raesan*,
BRANCHING, *re-rasan*) *extenders*, to extend, to
BRANCH, *ranck*, Ger. *ranck*, *ranma*, from *ranzen*,
promissio to project, to reach out. Wachter.

BRANCH.

There appears no other way of accounting for the
B in the English and French, than by supposing it to
be a corruption of the common A. S. *prelix* he. Thus
be-rancke would become *branch*, *branch*.

Minshew says, it is from the Latin *brachia* ; but
this will not account for the Dutch and German.

To *branch* then, is to reach or stretch out, to extend,
sc. from the trunk, the main stem or material : to
spread or shoot out, to separate or diverge.

For come in twill olde men sayd evnne þas þen,
Men of well vraye embolant, and *branch* þill þere,
Of olyue, as in sygne þat þis of þer vey.

R. Gloucester, p. 193.

It he so no *branch* in welllike of þan þe noman,
It blauche our lyue Edward, &c. *R. Bruns, p. 254.*

Ypocrisie is a *branche* of pryde, and of manye clerkes.
Piers Plouman, p. 278.

This asked avert, that knoweth by my side,
Swiche vertue hath, that what man that it omite,
Therabout his armure it wol kerne and bite
Were it as thicke as is a *brunched* oke.

Chaucer. The Squire's Tale, v. 10473.

And faile myche peple spoken her clothe in the way, other
kintred *branches* of treene and strewed in the vye.

Wicli. Matthew, ch. xxi.

And many of the people spread their garments in y^e way.
Other ent downe *branches* from the trees & strewed the is the
waye. *Bible, 1551.*

But ouer this nowe wolde I preye,
To witte what the *branches* are
Of unarice, and howe thei fare,
Als well in love as otherwise.

Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 94.

After masse the kyng departed out of the charche in the same
estate, and went to his palaie, and there was a fountayne that
ran by dyvers *branches* whyte wyne and red.

Folensart. Cronycle, ch. 265.

If their child be not such a speedy spreader and *brancher*, like
the vine, yet perchance he may prove *preles tarde crease* into *Olives* ;
and yield, though with a little longer expectation, an useful, and
more sobst fruit than the other. *Reliquie Westminster, p. 77.*

It was bot now they gathered blooming May,
And of his armes darob'd the *branching* tree,
To strow with boughs and blossoms all thy way ;
And now the *branchiest* trunk a cross for thee,
And May, dimmy'd, y^e coronet must be.

G. Fletcher. Clorinda's Triumph over Death.

The *branches* of the oak endure all the seasons of the year,
though its leaves fall off in autumn, and these too will be reduced
with the returning spring.

Spectator, No. 173.

Let your meditations run over the names of all the sciences,
with their numerous *branchings*, and innumerable particular
theses of knowledge ; and then reflect how few of them you are
acquainted with is a tolerable degree.

Watson. Improvement of the Mind.

I might give another plain simile to confirm the truth of this,
What horse or carriage can take up and bear away all the various
road and unwieldy loadings of a *branchy* tree at once. *Id. B.*

Shall reptile sinners frowning justice fear,
And pageant titles privilege the poor ?
So falls the humbler game in common fields
While the *branch*'d beest the royal forest shields.

P. Whitehead. Homer's Iliad, 1747.

One principal *branch* of which is to distinguish merit in every
degree, and so to gain the love of the lower rank, as to preserve,
at the same time, the affection of the superior.

Melmoth. Pliny, Letter v. book ix.

In those trifling manufactures which are destined to supply the
small wants of but a small number of people, the whole number
of workmen must necessarily be small ; and those employed in
every different *branch* of the work can often be collected into
the same workhouse, and placed at once under the view of the
spectator. *Smith. Wealth of Nations, book i. ch. i.*

BRANCHID.
BRANCHIDÆ.

Quite round the pile, a row of reverend sines,
(Coverd near with that) all ragged shins,
Long leav'd by the rude winds, some rift half down
Their branchid trunks. *Heir. The Gown.*
Beneath thy branching bowers of thickest gloom
Much on th' imperfect state of man I've mus'd.
Scott. Annot. A Descriptive Poem.

BRANCHIDÆ. The priests of a temple of Apollo at Didyma, in Milesia. The temple stood on the promontory of Posideium, rather more than two miles from the sea shore. The legend attached to its origin is related, with a slight variation of a few circumstances, by Conon (*opud Phot. Narr.* 33) and by Varro (*Deis. rer. lib. opud Schol. ad Suet. Theb.* viii. 198.) (Theia, *rem. lib. opud Schol. ad Suet. Theb.* viii. 198.) or Democles, a Delphian, lost his son Simerus or Simerus on the Milesian coast. He was brought up by a shepherd with his own children. The boys one day having caught a swan, disputed which should offer it to their father; and having come to blows, they threw their clothes upon the bird in order to prevent its escape. On removing the clothes the swan had disappeared, and in its place was found a bright vision of a nymph, Leucothoe, who instructed them to recommend Simerus to the shepherd's particular affection. The foundling accordingly married the daughter of his foster-father. During her pregnancy, his wife in a vision swallowed and digested the sun. The soothsayers interpreted her dream favourably, and the child whom she bore was named Branchus, because it was by the throat, *βραχυν*, that the sun had made his entry. The boy was exquisitely beautiful, and was beloved by Apollo, from whom he received a kiss and the customary gift of prophecy. A temple was raised to Apollo Philæus, (the kisser;) and the priests who dispensed the oracles in it, were chosen from a particular family, named Branchidae after the founder.

The temple of Didyma was of great antiquity, long anterior to the Ionian migration. The oracle was of high repute. Croesus presented it with an offering equal in value to that which he sent to Delphi, (*Hier.* i. 92.) Necus the Egyptian Monarch was less boon-tiful, he only offered some old clothes, (*id.* ii. 159.) The temple was betrayed by its priests, and burned by Xerxes, after the Milesian revolt. On the discomfiture of that Prince, the Branchidae, in order to avoid the just vengeance of the Greeks, removed to Bactria, where their wretched descendants atoned for the treachery and sacrilege of their forefathers, 150 years after its commission; and were totally extirpated by the cruelty of Alexander, (*Q. Curtius*, vii. 7.) The Milesian temple was rebuilt with great magnificence about the eighty-seventh Olympiad. The name of its architects, Iconius of Ephesus, and Daphnis of Miletus, have descended to us through the care of Vitruvius, who numbers it among the four temples, the splendour of which deserved to immortalize their builders. A superb bronze statue of Apollo, which had been carried off by Xerxes to Ecbatana, was restored by Seleucus Nicator, whose boats were found recorded in an inscription discovered on the spot in the commencement of the last century, by M. Sherard, the English Consul. Thierius modified the privileges of this temple as an asylum, and from his time it continued to decrease in splendour. Julian attempted its restoration, but with him it fell once more. It is now a mass of ruins, harkening its former vast extent, but in which only two colonades with their architraves retain their original position.

BRANCHIOSTEGI, in Zoology, the Linnæan name of one of the orders of fishes which have the gills destitute of bony rays.

BRANCHIUS, in Zoology, a genus of the class *Crustacea*, order *Entomostraca*, family *Gynostola*, Latr. Generic character: antennæ setaceous, two or four; eyes two, pediculate, compound, moveable; two moveable horns situated on the front, having a single tooth on the outer side, forked at the apex; head distinct from the body, which is soft, transparent, elongate, divided into eleven segments; tail long, sub-cylindrical, articulated, diminishing gradually, and terminated by two ciliated flos; feet formed for swimming, ciliated, in number eleven pairs.

The animals of this genus are very remarkable for many peculiarities in their form and character. The sexes are separate, and what is very curious, the organs are double, situated under the second ring of the abdomen. Unlike the *Crustacea* generally, they have no shell. It appears that they undergo considerable changes of form, in their successive stages of development. They are found in stagnant waters. *Cancer stagnalis* is the type of this genus.

BRAND, v. } A brand, *torris ignita*. Dutch
BRAND, n. } and Ger. *brand*, from the Dutch,
BRAND-NEW. } *branden*; Ger. *brannen*; A.S. *brennan*,
to burn.

To brand is to burn, sc. n spot or mark in token of infamy.

A brand is a burning stick or torch; o spot or mark burned.

A sword is also so called, because in motion it glitters like a burning torch, like a fire-brand. Skinner. But Hicks, because the acroetis in fabricating swords, endeavoured to give them the appearance of flaming fire.

Brand-new, Dutch, *brandnieuw*, Skinner observes, is by an elegant metaphor deduced *ex re fabrici*: new from the fire, from the forge.

Fire & brander yet am in house of per gals,
& over je water staan, and set fire on je yalen.

R. Brunne, p. 295.

Therefore whose ladies hadle take a company of knights
and myriads of the bishopric and of the Parishes, came thither with lanterns and breads and armor.

Wright, John, ch. xviii. fol. 67.

Judas then after he had received a bonde of men, and ministers of the hye pretres, and Pharisees, came thither with lanterns and fyre brandes and weapons.

Bible, 1581.

And at the brander ende cryen anon
As it were bloody drops many on.

Chaucer. The Knight's Tale, v. 2342.

Thus sorrowfull Mars equal with his brand,
The narrow waye upon attair band.

G. Douglas. *Ardenne*, book x. p. 346.

O suffer me among so many men,
To tread aright the traces of thy pen;
And light my look at thy eternal flame,
Till without it I brand everlasting shame,
On the world's fornicard.

The Return from Farnesse, act i. sc. 1.

His black envenomed locks dishevell'd fell
About his face; through which, as brands of hell,
Sunk in his skull, his staring eyes did glow.

G. Richter. *Christ's Triumph on Earth*.

— Was me, I had forgot,
With bent of coming off, to fetch my coat.
What shall I do? it was against brand-new,
'Tis but a better since't came off the clew.

Ruci's *Histoire*, in *Junivron*.

BRANCHIOSTEGI
BRANCHIOSTEGI
BRAND.

BRAND.
—
BRAN-
DEN-
BURG.

All wit which borders upon prophaneness and makes bold with those things to which the greatest reverence is due deserves to be branded for folly.

Yes since the effects of Providence we find
Are variously dispensed to human kind;
That vice triumphs, and virtue suffers here;
A brand that sovereign justice cannot bear;
Our reason prompts us to a future state.

Dryden. *Religio Laici.*

When in her faithful and immortal page,
They saw transmitted down from age to age
Recorded villains, and each spotted name
Branded with marks of everlasting shame,
Succeeding villains sought her as a friend,
And if not really mended, feign'd to mend.

Churchill. *The Candidate.*

Hence the school divines have branded the practice of taking interest, as being contrary to the divine law both natural and revealed.

Blackstone. *Commentaries*, ii. 455.

Trample th' invader's lofty crest
And from his grasp the dagger wrest,
And desolating brand.

Beattie. *Ode on Lord H * * *'s Birth-day.*

Situation.

Population.

Physical
state of the
country.

BRANDENBURG, MARK OF MARQUISATE OF, one of the most important of the Prussian States, and which indeed forms the basis of the Monarchy. It is situated within the limits of Germany, and bounded on the north by Mecklenburg and Pomerania; on the east by the Grand Duchy of Posen; on the west by Brunswick and Hanover; and on the south by part of Saxony, Anhalt, and Magdeburg. Its greatest extent from east to west has been stated at 200 miles, and from north to south at about 110. A late estimate makes its superficial area 17,227 English square miles, and its population 1,299,795 individuals, which is about seventy-five persons to each square mile. The whole Duchy of Brandenburg is generally divided into two great portions, the New Mark on the east of the river Oder, and the Electoral Mark on the west of that stream. The latter is again subdivided into the Old Mark, the Priegnitz, the Middle Mark, and the Ucker Mark. Much of the country is a flat sandy tract, and unless by dint of cultivation is but little productive. The improvement of agriculture and the industry of the inhabitants have caused a great part of it to yield grain of several kinds, but buck wheat and rye are the principal crops. Hemp, flax, hops, and tobacco are likewise cultivated in many districts; turnips and potatoes are also grown in considerable quantities. The woods are of great value in supplying the inhabitants with fuel, both for domestic purposes and for the glass and iron-works carried on in various parts of the province. In addition to these uses they are made into charcoal and tar, and afford timber for home consumption, with large quantities which are exported to Holland and other places. The principal mineral substances found in Brandenburg are porcelain-clay, alum, saltpetre, amber, and iron-ore. Beside the cultivation of the soil, and the working of these various substances, the rearing of cattle, and the management of sheep are employments of importance. The former are chiefly of the black breed, and are in many districts of a superior kind; and the latter have lately been greatly improved by the introduction of Merinos. The horses of Brandenburg are but small, and do not appear to possess any remarkable qualities. Silk is an object of attention in some districts, and its cultivation is successful. Brandenburg is traversed by two of the principal rivers of Germany,

the Elbe and the Oder; besides which it is intersected by several other navigable streams and canals, which facilitate its manufactures and commerce. The chief of the inferior streams are the Havel, the Spree, the Wartha, the Ucker, and the Dosse. One canal joins the Oder and the Spree, another connects the Oder with the Havel, and the third forms a junction between the last river and the Vistula; and thus makes an easy communication between the most remote parts of the province. The principal manufactures are those of woollen, linen, leather, salt, porcelain, and iron. Silk and cotton also employ a considerable number of people; to which may also be added stockings, carpets, jewellery, and various metallic articles; paper, hats, and other requisites are likewise objects of attention in several of the towns, the chief of which are Berlin, Potsdam, Brandenburg, Frankfurt on the Oder, Stendal, Prenzlau, Custrin, and Perleberg.

The first people who are known to have inhabited Brandenburg were the Sueli. These were succeeded by the Slavonians, who were at that period a barbarous race, and inveterate enemies to the Christian religion. With these people the Frankish Monarchs, and especially Charlemagne, had frequent wars. His successors were also earnestly engaged in subduing them. At length Henry I., in the early part of the tenth century, succeeded in the conquest, and introduced Christianity into the country. This state was at first conferred on a Saxon Count, with the title of Lord Warden of the Marshes or Borders. The government of this part of the German dominions was at first bestowed wholly at the pleasure of the Emperor, and did not become hereditary till conferred on Albert Count of Ascania, by Conrad II., whose son was afterwards raised to the dignity of Elector by Barbarossa, about the year 1100. This race of the house of Anhalt became extinct during the first half of the fourteenth century, and Charles IV. seems to have assigned the Electorate to his second son Sigismund, who ascended the Imperial throne of Germany in 1415, and sold the Electorate to Frederick, Burgrave of Nuremberg, for 400,000 ducats. This Frederick was the ancestor of the present reigning family. Some divisions of the territories afterwards took place among the grandsons of this Prince; but the province still continued in possession of the house of Hohen-zollern, and Frederick William, surnamed the Great, not only made various accessions to the territories of his ancestors, but compelled the King of Poland, in 1656, to declare Prussia an independent state, as previously to this date it had been held under the Polish Sovereigns. He was succeeded by his son Frederick III., who was crowned King of Prussia by the Emperor of Germany, at his native town of Konigsberg, in 1701; and from that period the history of the Duchy of Brandenburg is identified with that of the Prussian States. A part of this province, however, was destined to experience a temporary separation at a subsequent period; for the Old Mark was ceded to Suabia in 1807, and incorporated with the department of the Elbe, in the Kingdom of Westphalia, which he created for his brother Jerome; but it was completely restored at the general peace of 1814, when Prussia found herself amply guaranteed for all her previous losses.

The Elector of Brandenburg held the seventh

BRAN-
DEN-
BURG.

Rivers.

Produce
and man-
ufactures.

Progressive
geography.

BRAN-
DEN-
BURG.
—
BRAN-
DISH.

place among the Electors of the German Empire; and had five votes in the Council of Princes. He was also hereditary Archchamberlain of the Empire, and carried the sceptre before the Emperor at his coronation.

BRANDENBURG, the Capital of the preceding Province, is an old town, situated in the Middle Mark, and on the banks of the river Havel, which divides it into the old and new towns. The houses near the banks of the river are generally built upon piles, and though each part of the town still retains its own revenues and other privileges, they were united under one magistracy about a century ago. The town bears no marks of having once been the seat of the present reigning family of Prussia. It contains one broad and handsome street, with seven churches besides the cathedral, and 12 or 13,000 inhabitants. Frederick the Great demolished the old castle, and all that was valuable was then carried away to Potsdam. Brandenburg has manufactories of linen, woollen, and cotton, and is noted for its flour mills, which supply Berlin with flour; it stands about thirty miles west of that Capital. There are also about 300 acres of vineyards in its vicinity, which are perhaps the most northern in Germany. Latitude 52° 27' N., longitude 12° 53' E.

BRANDEUM, the cloth in which the body of a saint has been wrapped, which is frequently cut up, and the pieces distributed as relics.

BRANDISH, *s.* From *brand*, (see above.)
BRANDISH, *n.* Jangle. To brandish a sword, *gladium stricium vibrare coruscare facere.* Hlekes. *Gram. A. S.* p. 192. Junius also thinks that *brandish* was first applied to the motion of a brand, and then generally to denote—to wave, to shake. *Fr. brandir*; *It. brandire*; which *Ménage* derives from the Latin *vibrare*.

Brandir; to shine or glister with a gentle shaking or soft moving. Cotgrave.

To the king again went he there.

And said, "Lieff sir, I saw a hand;

Out of the water it came all bare,

And thrice it brandished that rich brand."

Ellice. Romances, Morte Arthur, v. l. p. 400.

Vpon the bridge appear'd a warlike swaine

From top to toe all clad in armour good,

Who brandishing a broad and cutting sword,

Thus threat'ned death with many an idle word.

Farfax. Godfrey of Bouillon, book xviii. st. 31.

It is in vaine braun figns, to shew the right

Which we are forc'd to seek by ciuill fight.

Your words are brandish in a soile cause,

To free your country from a tyrant's lawes.

Beaumont. Bonmouth Field.

And as Jove brandishing a starre (which men a comet call)

Heir out his curled haire abroad; that from his braud exhales

A thousand sparks.

Clapman. Homer's Iliad, book ix. fol. 33.

So they act on, first discharging their arrows, then dealing

with their swords, which they use in brandish to shake, and

brandish over their heads before they came to strokes.

Hibbert. Voyages, &c. Russia. Their Forces for War, v. l. p. 484.

But their auxiliary bands, those brandishers of spears

From many cities drawn are they, that are our hindereers,

Not suffering well ray'd Troop to fall.

Clapman. Homer's Iliad, book ii. fol. 19.

Dame Justice waits there, well it ween,

Her sword is brandish'd high:

Naught can then from her vengeance screen,

Not euen thou from her fly.

Pratt. The Vicary, A Ballad.

But the most sonorous part of our consort, was a drum, or (as the vulgar call it) a kettle drum, who accompanied her discourse with motions of the body, tosses of the head, and brandishes of the fan.

Tetter, No. 137.

One hand secures his hat, save when with both
He brandishes his pliant length of whip,
Resounding oft, and never heard in vain.

Cropper. Task, book ix.

With old Sileas, reclining through the crowd
Which gambols round him, in convulsions wild
Tossing their limbs, and brandishing in air
The ivy-mantled thyrsus.

Abrams. Hymn to the Naiads.

BRANDLE. *Fr. brandiller*. "To brandle, wag, shake, swing, totter." Cotgrave. *Ménage* says from *brandir*, to wave, to shake. See BRANDISH.

Princes cannot be too suspicious when their lives are sought, and subjects cannot be too curious when the state brandies.

Cobbett. State Trials, 4th June 1. 1696, v. li. st. 21.

BRANDY. Dutch, *brand-wijn*; Swe. *bränn-win*; Ger. *brand-wein*. Brand, i. e. burned—and wine, corrupted into y in English.

GER. *Buy any brand wine, buy any brand wine!*

Beaumont and Fletcher. Beggars Bush, act iii. sc. 1.

The Dutch their wine and all their brandy lose,
Disarm'd of that from which their courage grows;
While the glad English, to relieve their toil,
In healths to their great leader drink the spoil.

Waller. Instructions to a Painter.

Forget his pomp, dead to sublimed fires,

And to some peaceful brandy-shop retire;

Where in full gills his noxious thoughts he drowns,

And quells away the care that waits on crowns.

Adelphi. The Piny House.

Thus the wool of England used to be exchanged for the wines of France, and the fine cloths of Flanders; in the same manner, as the corn in Poland is as at this day, exchanged for the wines and brandies of France, and for the silks and velvets of France and Italy.

Smith. Wealth of Nations, book iii. ch. 3.

BRANDY is properly a spirituous liquor distilled from the lees of wine. Its constituent parts are water, alcohol, and a little oil or resin.

BRANGLE. To *brangle* is interpreted by Lye,—to brandish, to shake. The Glossarist to G. Douglas thinks it is from the *Fr. branter* or *branler*, to move, to shake. Dr. Jamieson coincides in this; and if they are right, *brangle* and *brandile* are merely different ways of writing the same word. See BRANDLE and BRANDIL.

But *brangle* is also interpreted *jurgari*, *altercari*, to wrangle; which Skinner and Junius agree is *wrangle*, a diminutive of *wrong*, the past participle of *wring*, to twist, to distort, to misrepresent; and thus, To dispute, to squabble, to quarrel.

Be-wrangle, *brangle*, *brangle*, presents a common course of corruption.

Brangill and *brangland* (i. e. *brangling*) occur in G. Douglas, *Ranados*, book ii. fol. 59, book x. fol. 334; applied to the motion of a tree and of a spear. In book x. fol. 347, Merzianus is said "To go *brangland* through the field," and here Dr. Jamieson interprets it to denote—to menace; to make a threatening appearance.

This is "durus sermo," says some *brangling* parishioner, that fetches up his poor minister every term for trifles.

Dp. Hall. Rom. p. 84.

A fellow, whose father was a butcher, deciding a lawyer to be reverer in some little *brangle* between him and his neighbour, complained that the lawyer exasped himself.

Swift. Letter cccxviii.

5 F

BRAN-
GLE.
—
BRAN-
SEL.

Jalousies, quarrels, and other ruptures, are as frequent between neighbouring spouses, and from the same motives: the former bringing about their wars and bounds, as the others do about their frontiers. Swift. *Letter ccccx. vol. xxi.*

The payment of tythes in this kingdom is subject to so many *franks, brangits, and other difficulties, not only from papists and dissenters, but even from those who profess themselves protestants.* Id. *Works on settling the Tythe on Hamp.*

BRANK, probably from *branca*, a barbarous Latin word of the middle ages, corrupted from *brachium*, and signifying a foot or paw. An instrument used for the punishment of scolding women, and still preserved in some towns of England, as Newcastle-under-Lose, in Staffordshire, and Holme, in Lancashire. Dr. Plot has given the following account of it.

"Lastly we come to the arts that respect mankind, amongst which, as elsewhere, the civility of precedence must be allowed to the women, and that as well in punishment as in favour. For the former whereof they have such a peculiar artifice at New Castle and Walsall for correcting of scolds, which it does too so effectually and so very safely, that I look upon it as much to be preferred to the ducking steele; to neither not only endangers the health of the party, but also gives the tongue liberty 'twixt every dipp; to neither of which this is at all lyable: it being such a Bridle for the tongue as not only quite deprives them of speech, but brings shame for the transgression, and humility therupon before 'tis taken off. Which being an instrument scarce heard of, much less seen, I have here presented it to the reader's view, table 32, fig. 9, (Miscellanies, plate XV.) as it was taken from the original one made of iron at New Castle under Lyme. Wherein the letter *a* shews the jointed collar that comes round the neck; *b* *c* the loops and staples, to let in and out according to the bigness or slenderness of the neck; *d* the joynted semicircle that comes over the head, made forked at one end to let through the nose; and *e* the plate of iron that is put in the mouth, and keeps down the tongue. Which being put upon the offender, by order of the magistrate, and fastened with a pallock behind, she is led round the town by an officer to her shame, nor is it taken off till after the party begins to shew all external signs imaginable of humiliation and amendment." *Plot's Natural History of Staffordshire, ch. ix. sec. 97.*

In a copy of this work (fol. 1686) now in the British Museum, occurs the following marginal note on the passage just quoted, in Dr. Plot's hand-writing.

"This Bridle for the tongue seems to be very ancient, being mentioned by an ancient English poet, I think Chaucer, *quem vide.*

But as for my daughter Juliane
I would she were well bolted with a bridle,
That leaves her work to play the clack,
And lets her wheel stand idle.
For it serves not for she ministers
Parvies nor furters
Coblers nor button makers
To descant on the Bible."

BRANSEL, Fr. *branler* or *branler*; to brandle. *Bransle*, the s. Cotgravo says, is "a brandling, &c. Also, a brawl or dance, wherein many (men and women) holding by the hands, sometimes in a ring, and otherwhiles at length, move altogether." G. Douglas, in the *Threlicke Booke of Eneados* uses *brangil* for a dance.

Vesper Troyans, and gyne Italianis
And gun do dabil *brangil* and gambettis
Dams and roundis trauing mossy gatis. Fol. 473. b.
And other-whiles, with amorous delights,
And pleasing toiles, wold heere her enterlins
Now singing sweetly, to surprise her spighes,
Now making layres of loue and looser's paine,
Bransels, ballades, richesses, and verres valous.
Spenser. *Faerie Queene*, book iii. ch. 2. st. 8.

BRAN-
SEL
—
BRASS.

BRASS, { A. S. *bræs*; whence perhaps
BRAS'KEY, { (says Junius) the Fr. *bronce*; it.
BRAS'KIE, { and Sp. *bronce*; but Tooke is of
BRASS-KNOBBED, { opinion that they are from the
BRASS-FOUNDERS, { old English to *bren* or *brin*; (A.
BRASS-PAVED, { S. *bernan*), i. e. to burn. The A. S.
BRASS-VIRAOED, { *bræz*, brass, may have a similar
origin, viz. A. S. *brastlian*; Ger. *brasen*, to burn.

Je Brutons made deely y new by he ded lye,
And made Kyng's fourme of brase at hols wyllene
Vpe an hors ryde of bræ, & jady bode jeryane.
R. Gloucester, p. 251.

Reason me shewith
A belle to biggen of bræ of brigt silver.

Piers Plowman, p. 9.
If I speke with tungis of men and of angels and I have no
charite, I am made as bræw wyngis, or a cynnell tryllyngis.
Wiclif. I Cor. xiii. ch. xiii.

Though I speke wth the tonges of men and angels, & yet had
no loue. I was euen as sounding brass; or as tinkling cymball.
Bible, 1551.

Perillus (who by his profession) was a skilful bræw-founder,
had framed an heifer of bræw which he gave unto the King that he
might horn quick the said strangers.
Bulfinch. *Phœnix*, fol. 759.

Shew must needs forsooth make a beast for to avey this candle-
stick to her guests, which cost her after thousand sentences.
Now the founder or bræw that sold it her, was misshapen, and
bunch-backed.
Id. *Pünir*, ii. fol. 488.

London
That base of late so buffed on his backe,
Enow to proue a royall merchant down;
And plecte commiseration of his state
From bræw's bowmen, and rough hearts of flints.
Shakespeare. *Merchant of Venice*, fol. 179.

(She) strove to snatch, in royal rich array,
Great Junoes golden chaire, the which they say
The Gods stand gazing on, who she doth ride
To Joves high house through beanes bræw-paved way,
Drawn of faire peacocks.

Spenser. *Faerie Queene*, book i. ch. iv. st. 17.
I envie not this button, for indeed
Neither his fortunes nor his parts deserve it;
But I doe hate him, as I hate the devil,
Or that bræw-vine's d monster barvism.
Ben Jonson. *Every Man out of his Humour*, act i. sc. 2.

I could not but look upon these registers of existence, whether
of bræw or marble, as a kind of asy upon the departed persons;
who had left no other memorial of them, but that they were born
and that they died.
Spectator, No. 26.

Such were the wonders which the chiefs admire
All highly finished by the god of fire.
With these were bræw-leaf'd bulls of curious frame
From bræw nostrils breathing living flame.
Fletcher. *Asperianus*, book iii.

His front, with ten-fold plates of bræw
Secur'd, shame never yet could pass,
Nor on the surface of his shio
Blush for that gait which dwelt within.
Cherhill. *The Duellist*, book iii.

At eve, withio you studious nook,
I open my bræw-cabinet book,
Portray'd with many a holy creed
Of martyrs, crowns'd with heavenly meed.
Warton. *Inscription in a Hermitage.*

BRASS.

BRAT.

BRASS is a compound metal, consisting of copper and zinc. It is usually made by cementation, a process whereby metallic copper is heated to contact with an ore of zinc, (calamine;) the zinc on being reduced to the metallic state, enters into combination with the copper, and this alloy is termed **Bras**.

BRASSICA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class *Tetradynamia*, order *Silicosa*. Generic character: pod two-valved, with an abortive, or one-seeded beak; cotyledons conduplicate; calyx closed.

The following are the principal species of this genus. 1. *B. napus*: root caulescent, fusiform, leaves smooth; superior cordato-lanceolate, embracing the stem; inferior lyrate dentate. *Engl. Botany*, 2146.

Rape Navew, or Coleseed, a native of Britain.

2. *B. rapa*: root caulescent, orbicular depressed, fleshy, radical leaves lyrate, rough; stem leaves very entire, smooth. *Engl. Botany*, 2176.

Turnep, a native of England.

3. *B. oleracea*: root caulescent, cylindrical, fleshy; all the leaves smooth, glaucous, repand, lobate.

Cabbage, a native of the English sea coasts. The following are the principal varieties of this well known and useful plant.

1. The *Capitata* or White Cabbage; 2. *Rubra* or Red Cabbage; 3. *Subauda* or Savoy; 4. *Subelliptica* or Borecole; 5. *Betrytis* or Cauliflower; 6. *Broccoli*; 7. *Napobrassica*, or Turnep-rooted Cabbage.

For an account of these varieties, and their mode of cultivation, see *Miller's Gardener's Dictionary*, by Martyn. See also *Dictionnaire des Sciences Medicales*, art. *Chou*.

There are besides twenty-one species described by Willdenow, but of minor importance.

BRAST. A. S. *brustan*, to burst, to break out. See **BURST**.

þe Sarazin so he smote in þe hede with þat treste
þat brayn & blode alle hote & ȝen alle out gan brast.

R. Bruner, p. 229.

No hart may thinke, ne tonge sayn

A quarter of my wo and pain

I might not with the surer last

Midst hart in point was þat to brast.

Chaucer. *The Remount of the River*, fol. 131.

Peter brast fourth into teares, asking nothing with his voice.

Barnes. *An Epitome of his Works*, fol. 370.

Some of these that came hyther with the duke, not able to dissemble they sorrow were faine at his hacke to turne their face to the wall, while the dolour of their herte braste oute at theyr eyes.
Sir Thomas More. *Works*, fol. 65.

BRAT, the past participle of the A. S. *brad-an*, *fovere*. Any thing nourished, cherished, fostered.

O Irsell, O household of the Lorde,

O Abraham's brattin, O broode of blessed seede.

O chosse sheepe that loved the Lorde in dole:

O hungry hartes, feed still upon his wordes,

And put your trust in him with one accord.

Gaucigny. *De profundis*.

For thou of *Moia* brast,

thysell the worst doot shoue.

And hanning no just cause to rage

to noone beginne to blawe.

Tutberlinc. *Pyndere's Answer*, &c.

Here therefore these atheistical politicians, as they first of all slander human nature, and make a villain of it; so do they in the next place, reproach justice and civil sovereignty shewing making it to be nothing but an ignominious and basely tyrannical.

Cowdworth. *Intellectual System*, fol. 891.

No parish, if they once adopt

The spurious brast by strolchier dropt,

Leaves them, when grown up Justice fellows,

To the wide world, that is, the gallows.

Prior. *An Epistle to Fleetwood Shepherd*, *Esquire*.

When the mad fit comes on, I seize the pen,

Rough as they run, the rapid thoughts set down,

Rough as they run discharge them on the town.

Hence rude untidied brast, before their time,

Are born into this idle world of rhyme.

Clarendon. *Gothic*, book II.

BRAT, is from the same source as the former **BRAT**. Lye says, "brad-an, verumina," that is, to warn. A brast thro is that which warmeth, a warm cloak or covering.

For no hood they but a shete

Which that they might wrappen hem in a-night.

And a brast to walken in by day-light.

Chaucer. *The Chenece Yemanus Tale*, v. 16349.

BRAVE, v.

BRAVE, n.

BRAVE, adj.

BRAVING, n.

BRAVELY,

BRAVENESS,

BRAVEY,

BRAVADO,

BRAYO.

Fr. *brave*; It. and Sp. *bravo*; Ger. *brav*; Dut. *brave*; Swe. *brav*.

Junius says, that it seems to be *avā*

vā *bravus*, the reward of victory.

Wucher derives it from the Latin,

probus: to this Ibr prefers, *brage*,

heros; A. S. *braga*. Duclat ob-

serves, that brave in the significa-

tion "de superbeno vā," is the

same thing as the ancient word *bragard*. And it is evident in many of the examples following, that *brave*, *bravery*, and *bravado*, are used to express—ostentatious bragging, a bragging, boastful, ostentatious display of finery, of dress, of pride, of power, of courage, of daring. A *brave*, and to *brave*, are still so used; while *brave*, the adj. and *bravery*, the n. are employed to express—simply—courage.

To *brave* is to set boastfully at defiance; to challenge, in a boastful, bragging, daring manner.

O Friam's none (said he)

How long the slaughter of your men, can ye sustaine to see,

Until till they brave you at your gates?

Chapman. *Henric's Hind*, book v. fol. 72.

BREN. Were I King Edward, England's sovereign,

Son to the lovely Eleanor of Spain,

Great Edward Longshank's issue, would I hear

These braves?

Morice. *Edward II.*

As those brave Edwards, father and the son,

At conquer'd Cressy with successful luck,

Where first all France (as at one game) they won.

Dryden. *Battle of Agincourt*.

She (Percelope) told his foe

It was not faire nor equall l'oucrerrow

The poyntest guest her none pleas'd d'entertaine

In his free tower; with so proud a straine

Of threats and bravings.

Chapman. *Henric's Odegy*, book xxi. fol. 329.

Then who reluct but I?

who thought himselfe ybent?

That was in Cupid's service plac'd

as bravely as the best?

Tutberlinc. *An answer in dispenze of wit*, &c.

We may either alledge for excuse, necessity, or set against it the peril to which we exposed ourselves, the *bravenness* of the exploit and the service so well performed, to make amends and recompense.
Holland. *Plutarch*, fol. 306.

Alas (quod she) behold eke pleasant greens,

Will now renew her sommers flury,

The fragrant flowers, which have not long beene set,

Will flourish now, (ere long) in bravery.

Gaucigny. *A Young Lady being wounded*, &c.

5 F 2

BRAT.

BRAVE.

BRAVE.
—
BRAWL.

He leaved him vnder his nose as I often compassed him about
as if he had besieged him: till the Puritans not accustomed to
endure such *bravadoes*, came about their Kiars, and demanded
battell.

Greengray. Faintly, fol. 133.

In their passage divers of the reemy, who had before leaved
them with the greatest insolence, came with white napkins at the
end of staves, and voluntarily showed themselves to offend of the
greatest servility.

Olivia. Life of Raleigh, fol. 117.

He conquereth and commandeth himself, which is the bravest
virtue and noblest empire: he quellth filthy lusts, subdueth
inordinat passions, and repellth strong temptations.

Bernard. Sermon li. v. 1.

Who combats bravely is not therefore brave,
He dreads a death-bed like the meanest slave.

Pope. Moral Essay, Epistle 1.

Certainly it denotes no great bravery of mind to be worked up
to any noble action by so selfish a motive, and to do that out of
a desire of fame, which we could not be supposed to be a dis-
interested love to mankind, or by a generous passion for glory of
him that made us.

Spectator, No. 255.

Tho' I never was out of this dear town, and fifty miles about
it, I have been three nights together dogged by brave's for an
intrepreneur with a cardinal's mistress at Rome.

Id. No. 136.

And like a lovely ship which braves
The roar of winds, and rush of waves,
Weather all storms, which jealous hate
Or frantic malice may create.

Lloyd. Charity, a Fragment.

Unknown among the nations of the earth,
Or only known to raise contempt and mirth;
Long free, because the race of Roman braves
Thought it not worth their while to make us slaves.

Churchill. Prophecy of Famine.

A brave man bears no malice, but at once
Forgives to peace the injuries of war,
And gives his breast for a friend's embrace.

Cæsar. Task, book II.

And every mortalist will find
A ruling passion in the mind,
Which though poet up and barricado'd,
Like winds where *Nolus braves* d'o,
Like them will sail from their deo,
And raise a tempest oow and then.

Lloyd. The Poet.

Grant me thy strength, and in that needful hour,
(Should it e'er come) when few submit to pow'r,
With firm resolve my steady boom steel,
Bravely to suffer, though I deeply feel.

Churchill. The Conqueror.

I'm told so. And own, it has often surprised me while we have
had so many instances of bravery there, we have had so few of
wit at home to praise it.

Goldsmith. The Good nature'd Man, act III.

Conscious of guilt, and fearful of the light,
They lurk shadowed in the vale of night;
Safe from detection, seize thy unwary prey,
And stab, like braves, all who come that way.

Churchill. The Apology.

BRAWL, v. } *Brav* is contracted from *brabble*.
BRAWL, n. } (q. v.) As now applied it is
BRAWLER, } To squabble, to quarrel in a loud
BRAWLING, } and noisy manner, to wrangle, to rail.
For brawlers and brawling in Piers Plouhman, see
BACKBITE.

Let a man that is a man consider that he is a fool that *brav*-
eth openly with his wife.

Golden Book. l. v. ch. xix.

Nor with such nightie braverie
thy postern gate shall sounde,
Nor roses strowe about thy dore
in dawning shall be founde.

Turberville. The Louer scheweth his Ladie, &c.

And who secure imagineth any other fayth, decreath himselfe,
and is a vaile disputer and a braver about wories, and hath no
feyling in his hart.

Tyndall. Works, fol. 93.

Some on enemies of all peace and concord, count so thing but
discorde, debate and brailings. And there be some families
wherein the man & wife do braille & strife like dogs and
rats.

Collier. Poore Godlie Sermons, serm. 3.

Than y^e castill any's, nay, I warrant you it is not for our
profyte, for tharchpriest is so great a braver, y^e if he come to vs
he wyll but langle.

Presicant. Cronycle, v. l. c. 220.

There is seldom any playage at dys, but therat is vehement
chydng and brayng, horrible outes, crich, and some true
mortalit menaces.

St. Thomas Elyot. The Governour, p. 90.

I was here stained with a mixed noise of clamour and jellity;
on one side of me I heard singing and dancing; on the other,
bravies and rashing of swords.

Tailler, No. 120.

Thou shalt be in as much danger in rentending with a braver
in a private quarrel as in a battle, wherein thou may'st get honour
to thyself and safety to thy prince and country; but, if thou be
once engaged, carry thyself bravely that they may fear thee after.

Olivia. Life of Rial, fol. 145.

Self is so mingled with the sentiment which we have chosen,
and has such a tender feeling of all the opposition which is made
to them, that personal braves are very ready to come in as seconds,
to succeed and finish the dispute of opinions.

Watts. Improvement of the Mind.

BRAWL, a dance. See BRANLE.

And so have I declared what utilitie may be taken of a braille
in dancing.

St. Thomas Elyot. The Governour, p. 62.

And thence did Venus learn to lead
Th' Italian braver, and so leaved
As if the wind, not she, did walk;
Nor prent a flower, nor how'd a stalk.

Bra. Jenson. The Flies of Delight, fol. 21.

Fall oft within the specious sails,
When he had fifty winters e'er him,
My grave lord-keeper led the braves;
The scal and mares danc'd before him.

Grey. A Long Story.

The BRAWL, if derived from the French *bravale*, ob-
tained its name from the swinging motion of the dance.
The steps in it changed with the tune, and it was
performed by several persons who joined hands in a
circle and continually shook each other. Balls were
usually opened by it. A macronomic poet, Antony Sablon
or d'Arend, has left the following description of the
dance.

Modus danceandi Bravale.

*Ipsa modis Bravale debet danceare dactilo,
Simpliciter et duplex non habere metrum.
Sed Bravale dactilo pœne tali quinguo laborent
Tres fac æquales, sed recedant duo.
Quatuor in mensuris tales marchalis raudis,
Atque retrocedant quatuor vultu debili.*

To these lines may be added the following account
in prose, from an old French writer. "Un des gentil-
hommes et une des dames, estans les premiers en la
danse, laissent les autres (qui cependant continuent la
danse) et se mettent dedans la dite compaignie, sont
battons par ordre toutes les personnes qui y sont; à
savoir le gentilhomme les dames et la dame les gen-
tilhommes. Pais, ayant achevé leurs battements, on leur
qu'ils estont les premiers en la danse se mettent les
derniers. Est ceste façon de faire se continue par le
gentilhomme et la danse que sont les plus prochains,
jusques à ce qu'on vienne aux derniers." Deux dialogues
en nouveau langage François, Italienizé, &c. Auvers,
1579. 385. The Puritans foamed at dances like these.
Stubbes, in his *Anatomic of Abuses*, (114. 4to. 1595.)
inveighs against them roundly; "what slipping, what

BRAWL. euling, what kissing and bussing, what smouching and sllobbering one another." And then in his love of modesty, proceeds in words which we cannot quote, still further to expose the filthy enormities which follow. He is rivalled in choice expression by his ally John Northbrooke, who in 1579 had uttered an anathema against "dicmg, dancing, vaine plaies or enterludes." He assures his saintly brethren, that "the Pagans were better and more soe than wee be: they never knew this newe fashon of dancing of ours."—"They dance with disordinate gestures, and with monstrous thumping of the feete, to pleasant soundes, to wanton songues, to dishonest verses." Fol. 64. 66.

Mr. Douce, who has furnished us with most of the above particulars, (*Illustrations of Shakespeare*, l. 217.) states that the dance continued in fashion in England so late as the year 1693.

BRAWN, *Braun* is *bar-en*, or *baw-en*.
BRA'WNED, *Baw'n* was the ancient adjective
BRA'WNER, of *bar*, *baw*, and by the (common)
BRA'WNIERAS, transposition of *r*, *baw'n* has be-
BRA'WNY, come *braun*; which is therefore
BRA'WNFALLEN, an adjective, and means *boar-en*, boar's (savage) flesh. See Tooke.

It is also applied to that which has the strength and vigour of a boar.

Brown and blood of ye good bacon and collops.

Piers Plowman, p. 245.

His linnen gree, his *braunen* hand and stronge,

His shoulders braude, his armes round and longe,

Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. 2136.

Jamus s't by the fire with double beed,

And driaketh of his bugle horn the wine:

Behold him stande braune of the tankard wine.

Id. Frankelins Tale, v. 11546.

It was ordained that murderers should be beate on the *braunes* of the left hande with an hoke thus signed with this letter M, and thence in the same place wth this letter T.

Holl. King Henry VII. fol. 101.

Fyrst had we *braune* from Lucain

the father of the feast,

Saide he was claine when northern wind

his blustering blastes releast.

Dryden. Horace, R. 4. 3.

With greater might Alcides did not straine

The giant Anteus on the Libyan sands,

On koldfast knots their *braune* armes they cast,

And whom he hateh most, each laid embrest.

Poeta. Godfrey of Bouillon, book xix. at. 17.

Their armes quite *braunefull* as with beeing on my breast.

Gualtero. Anatomy of a Loner.

Rusht in so close, that with his sword he on his shoulders laid

A blow, that his armes *braune* out off.

Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book v. fol. 65.

Moreover, the flesh of wild bores came to be in great request, and was much set by: in such sort, as Cato the censor in his invective orations challenged men for *braunes*.

Holland. Plinius, l. fol. 230.

His bodie was well *brauned*, muscous and strong;

Id. Ammianus, fol. 397.

Yet he

(By Jove's high grace of Troy) is slain, Mars started horribly
 (As Jove knew he would) at this; beste, with his hurt'd out hands,
 his *braune* thighs.

Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book xv. fol. 263.

They had within them *vir arboris*, as Theophrast calls it, a heart that would reverberate either precept or instruction, and make it rebound against the hand that sent it; *virum vix-grois*, as Philoponus phrases it in his l. 6. *de animis*, their spirits fated and increased within them, still'd up and sed to such a *brauneness*, that neither the understanding nor the affections were capable of any impression. *Hemmond. Seneca* 13.

They *braune*-fall a arms and thy declining back

To the sad burthen of thy years will swell.

Dryden. Pastoral, Eclogue 3.

But met their looks on the black monarch bend,

His rising muscles and his *braune* command.

Dryden. Palamon and Arcite.

Then if you would send up the *brauner's* hand,

Sweet rosemary and hays around it spread:

His foaming tucks let some large pippin grace,

Or midst those thunders open a swage place.

King. The Art of Cookery.

O'er a brow'd easel, which had once been black,

Which knog in tatters on his *braune* back,

A sight most strange, and awkward to behold,

He threw a covering of blue and gold.

Churchill. Independence.

BRAY. A. S. *bracan*; Fr. *brayer*, *bruyer*, to pound or beat to pieces.

Mr. Tooke thinks that *braide*, quoted below from Shakespeare, has the same meaning that it has in Proverbs; "Diana (he remarks) does not confine herself to his craft or deceit; but includes also all the other bad qualities of which she supposes Bertram to be compounded; and which would not depart from him, though *bray'd* in a mortar." Such an interpretation is scarcely intelligible. Diana has previously said,

"My mother told me just how he would woo,
 As if the star be his heart. She says, all men
 Have the like oath."

The word appears to refer to the *suddenness* and *violence* with which Bertram had wooed her; and this application of the word has been sufficiently explained and illustrated under the words *ANASID* and *BAID*.

Though then shouldst *braye* a fool in a mortar among the
 wheels *brayed* with a pestle, (yet) will not his foolishness depart
 from him.
Gen. Esau, 1361. *Proverbs*, xxvii. 22.

The Englishmen were faine to gather the thyrtelles in the
 feldes, and *braye* them in a mortar, and temper it with water, and
 make therof a paste, and so bake it to ete, such powder they
 endured.
Froissart. Cronycle, v. li. C. lxxii.

DIANA. Since Frenchmen are so *braide*,
 Marry that will, I live and die a maid.
Shakespeare. All's Well that Ends Well, fol. 216.

BRAY, V. } Fr. *brayer* or *braire*. *Braid* and *abraid*
BRAY, N. } (q. v.) are applied—to any sudden or
 (violent action or motion,—to an uproar;
BRAY'ING. } and thus—to any noise or clamour.

He kneleth in his wise, and *braie*th,

To seek mercy, and assaie

His god, which made him nothing *etrage*,

When that he sawe his pride change.

Gower. Conf. Am. book l. fol. 25.

Certainly there is not an *eroked* a horse, but if he see a mare,
 he will *braie* once or twice.
Golden Bough, ch. xxv.

The elephant then *braie*th, the small criss;

The horses neigh as to and fro they pace:

Which sense and heard, he said within his thought,

Hither all Asia is, all Africa, brought.

Poeta. Godfrey of Bouillon, book xix. at. 58.

Thus with a *braying* sigh this noble tongue he stayde.

Guinevere. A Lesson of a Noble, &c.

Where y^e elephants had had bodies of an unreasonable grete-
 nes stood in their ryght, being provoked to *braye* of purpose, to
 thint that with their terrible noyse, they should fill their ene-
 mies eares full of feare.

Breide. Quintus Curtius, book viii. fol. 215.

For if one of them (elephants) be overmatched and vanquished
 in fight, he will never after abide the voice and *braying* of the
 conqueror, but in token of submission giveth him a burf of earth
 with vernalle or grasse upon it. *Holland. Plinius*, l. fol. 194.

BRAWN.

BRAY.

BRAZ.
—
BRAZIL.

Before proud gates attending access *bray*,
On solemn with solemn pace the way;
These grave physicians with their milky *bray*,
The *low-reek* maid and dwindling *bray* repair.

Gay. Trivia, book ii.

With *pondrom* *chide*
As weak against the mountain *bray* they push
Their beating breast in vain, and *phrons* *bray*,
He lays them quivering on th' *casanpin*'s snows.

Tackson. Winter.

"Hold," cry'd the queen, "A cat-all each shall win;
Equal your merits! equal as your din!
But that this well-disputed game may end,
Sound forth, my *brayers*, and the welkin rend."

Pope. The Dunciad, book ii.

What signifies a lion's share,
If it conceal as mine within?
If thou'st a lion, *peñes* *me*;
If *me*—*bray* once, and stalk no more.

Lloyd. A Familiar Epistle to J. B. Esq.

BRAZ. As *bray* and *bray* are the same word differently
written and applied, so *bray* and *bray*. A. S.
bray, *bray*; Dutch, *bray* or *bray*; the edge, the
bray. It appears to be applied

To any thing which overhangs or overlooks, as a
bray or *bray* of a hill; a part of a fortification raised so
as to overlook. The Dutch have *bray*, *bray*.

Then began the *bray*, and George Harbet and Wil-
lyam Kneet, held them two within so hard, that they could
scarcely put their heads over the *bray* or *bray*.

Hall. The cony of King Henry VIII.

For even as our men had given back, he and his company
came to the head of the *bray* and did not only stay the French-
men, but also some of our *bray* upon their horse-men.

Knox. History of the Reformation.

Push'd up the *bray*, indignantly they feel
The clanking lash, and the retorted steel;
Then down the steep with quickening capture go
And stretch and sweat upon the plain below.

Brooks. The Fur-chase.

BRAZ. a village in the county of Berks, about a mile
south of Maidenhead. Camden supposes it to have
belonged to the *Bibroc*, a tribe which submitted to
Cæsar, (*De Bell. Gall. v. 21.*) It is now attached to the
liberties of Windsor Castle, and as a part of the Royal
demesnes has obtained some peculiar privileges;
among which is exemption from tolls in the adjacent
market towns. The population of the village in 1821,
was 961; but the entire parish contained 3155. The
church is a vicarage in the gift of the Bishop of Oxford.
The well-known story of the vicar of this parish (who
has passed into a proverb,) is to be found in Fuller's
Worthies. He lived under Henry VIII. Edward VI.
Mary and Elizabeth, and was first a papist, then a
protestant, then a papist, and finally a protestant again.
"He had seen (says the historian) some martyrs
burned, two miles off, at Windsor; and found the fire

too hot for his tender temper. This vicar being taxed
by one for being a turncoat, and an inconstant change-
ling; not so, said he, for I always kept my principle,
which is this; to live and die Vicar of *Bray*."

BRAZE.
BRAZEN, adj. } give a *bray* or brown colour.
BRAZENBROWED, } See *BRAZ*.
BRAZENFACE, } To *bray*, to work in *bray*, to
BRAZENFACED, } cover with *bray*.
BRAZENVAULTED, } *Bray*, met. is hardened, im-
pudent, shameless.

Setty bowes of bray, a *bray* games
And shetly out shot yowre.

Piers Plouhoun, p. 355.

And he made a *bray* gadpore of cast worke vnto the altar
rounde aboute as lowe heath vnder the compass of the altar: so
that it reached vnto halfe the altar, & cast foure rynges
of *bray* for the ill. endes of the gadpore to put stances in.
Bible, 1531. Exodus, ch. xxxviii.

Not to be gilty or was was
at anye fault at all,
A *bray* that, to *bray* all *bray*
to be the *bray* wall.

Draut. Horace, C. ii. 1.

Not *bray* *bray* *bray*
Will any one remit vs: some one thing
Will each preceit vs, that along may bring
Our *bray* with low; and *bray* our vertus *bray*:
A *bray* or a *bray*, *bray* *bray*.

For as the lovers of fair *bray*,
When she was lockt up in a *bray* tower,
Desired her more, and was't outrageous,
So did it fare with me. *Marlow. King Edward II.*

She qualifies their *bray*
With the cold epode of a *bray* note,
Thus high, thus low, as if her silver throat
Would reach the *bray* voice of a *bray* bird.

Crashaw. Musick's Duel.

Gall'd with the shot from far, the legions join,
Their bucklers in the warlike shell combine,
Compact and close the *bray* roof they bear,
And in just order to the down draw near.

Brown. Loven's Phœnix, book iii.

Much yet remains unsummed, the rage intense
Of *bray*-coated shies, of iron fields
Where drought and famine starve the blasted year.

Thomson. Summer.

The Grecian fleet, four hundred galleys, all
The *bray* strain; barbarian groves
In two divisions point; to either shore
Six hundred *bray* boats of low-like ships,
Unwieldy bulks. *Glover. The Athenian, book vi.*
Would honest Tom G—d get rid of a *bray*,
The torture, the plague of his life!
Pray tell him to take down his *bray* of gold
And hang up his *bray* for a *bray*.
Cunningham. To the Landlord of the Golden Lion.

BRAZIL

Situation,
boundaries,
extent and
population.

BRAZIL, a vast country occupying the eastern part
of South America, and with Guiana, including all the
Portuguese dominions on that continent. This name
at first applied only to a small extent of coast south
of the river Amzonas, but now comprehends all the
space between 4° of north and 34° of south latitude,
and stretches from the 35th to the 72d of west lon-
gitude. Under this extended acceptation, Brazil is
bounded on the north by the Republic of Colombia,

French Guiana and the Atlantic Ocean; on the east
and south-east by the same ocean; and on the west by
the United Provinces, Peru, and Colombia. The mean
length of this country is about 1800 miles, and its
median breadth, from east to west, is stated at 1700.
The breadth is greatest towards the north, while on
approaching the southern extremity, the ocean and
the western boundary approximate, and contract the
limits to a much narrower space. The area of Brazil

BRAZIL. has lately been stated at more than three millions of square miles, which rivals the great empires of antiquity in extent. As the population is supposed not to exceed two millions, there are only about two persons for every three square miles. It should, however, be remarked, that the greater part of it still consists of almost impenetrable forests or uninhabitable deserts.

The discovery and progressive geography of this country have been cursorily adverted to in the general account of the southern hemisphere; but the latter topic, in particular, requires a more ample illustration. Some writers have attributed the discovery of Brazil to Martin Behem, who is said to have visited the coast as early as 1494. This supposed discovery, however, has not been satisfactorily established. Others have ascribed the honour to Admiral Cabral, if that can be called an honour which was accomplished by accident. Emanuel, King of Portugal, had fitted out a squadron of thirteen sail for the East Indies, and given the command to Cabral, who left Lisbon on the 9th of March 1500; and standing out to sea, to avoid the storms which were thought to prevail at all seasons in the vicinity of the Cape of Good Hope, he fell in with the coast of Brazil, on the 24th of the following month. Having discovered a good harbour, and called the bay Puerto Seguro, he landed, erected a cross, celebrated high mass under the spreading branches of a lofty tree, and took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign. He called the land Santa Cruz, in reference to the cross he had raised; a name which the King afterwards changed to its present appellation, from the vast quantities of the red wood which the country produces. In this discovery, however, Cabral appears to have been anticipated; for a Spanish pilot named Pinzon, who had previously accompanied Columbus to the New World, reached the same coast in about eight degrees of south latitude, towards the close of the preceding January. After coasting towards the north as far as the mouth of the Orinoco, he returned to Europe, without any advantage apparently resulting from the voyage. The Portuguese being desirous of having this part of the New World further explored, fitted out so expedition for this purpose under the command of Coelho, who, in 1503, reached the coast about the fourth degree of latitude, and sailed southwards nearly to the Straits of Magellan, taking possession of the country in the name of the King, and erecting stone pillars, bearing the arms of Portugal, on the most conspicuous places of the coast. But the King of Castile being unwilling to lose an opportunity of enlarging his empire in those southern regions, sent Juan Dias do Solis, in 1509, on a new voyage of discovery, as well as to take possession of that which did not appear to be appropriated. Solis discovered some of the southern parts, with the Rio de la Plata, to which he gave his own name. He also made a second voyage to these regions in 1515, and was lost on the banks of that river. The following year, the Court of Portugal established a factory upon the coast, to facilitate the export of Brazil wood, and to prevent other nations from participating in the advantages of that trade. From this period, the vessels of that country frequented the shores of the southern continent. One of these vessels returned with a report that the Spaniards were forming colonies on the Rio de la Plata; and King John being desirous that this river should become the permanent boundary

BRAZIL. between the territories belonging to the two powers, sent Alfonso de Souza with an armament to erect forts, and distribute land to those who wished to establish themselves in the country. The fleet first anchored in All Saints Bay, but afterwards sailed to the south, and discovered the Bay of Rio de Janeiro, on the 1st of January 1532. Though Portugal had now claimed Brazil for more than thirty years, the attempts to colonize it had been of the feeblest description; but the progress of French merchants in forming settlements on the coast, and of the Spaniards in establishing colonies on the banks of the Paraguy, now alarmed the Portuguese for the safety of their western possessions, unless more strenuous exertions should be made for their protection. King John, therefore, determined to people the coast of this country with European residents; and to favour this project, he divided it into portions of fifty leagues each, which he called *Capitanias*, and bestowed them upon an equal number of individuals who had been distinguished by their services to the crown. The recipients of these Royal donations were to have an uncontrolled authority over their dominions, on condition of colonizing them at their own expense; but as the power of the Captain was thus made arbitrary, and many of the colonists were necessarily unruly and discontented adventurers, frequent complaints reached the ears of the King, and the Royal grants were revoked in less than twenty years from the time they were originally made. A Governor-general of Brazil was then appointed, who arrived at the Bay of All Saints in the spring of 1549, with instructions to build a city, and call it St. Salvador. In 1580 Brazil passed with the mother country under the dominion of Spain, in which state it continued for about sixty years. During this period, the Dutch, being at war with the Spaniards, invaded Brazil, and made themselves masters of Pernambuco in 1630, and of all the provinces between the river St. Francisco to the Maranhon, in the following seven years. The revolution in Portugal, in 1640, which enabled her to shake off the Spanish yoke, and gave her a native sovereign, in John IV. Duke of Braganza, also checked the Dutch conquests in the western hemisphere; and, in 1654, ultimately brought the whole of Brazil once more under Portuguese sway. Previous to this revolution, the Spanish monarch had conferred the title of Viceroy on the Governor-general of Brazil, whose seat of government was held at Bahia; but, in 1773, Don Joseph I. transferred it to Rio Janeiro. From that period no particular event appears to have occurred in Brazil till the commencement of the present century. When Portugal was invaded by the French in 1807, and the enemy was marching towards the Capital, the Royal family embarked for Brazil, under convoy of a British squadron, which was at that time blockading the mouth of the Tagus, under the command of Sir Sidney Smith. They left the shores of Europe on the 29th of November, and arrived at Bahia soon after the middle of the following January. The court established itself at Rio Janeiro, which from that time became the seat of the Portuguese government. A revolution may be dated from this event, in the character and situation of Brazil, which rose at once to the dignity and importance of an independent nation, while Portugal sank from her ancient superiority to the degradation of a province. The appellation of Viceroy became extinct,

BRAZIL.

and Don John conferred the title of Prince of Brazil upon his eldest son. The consequences of this change were highly favourable to Brazil. Her Capital had thus become the metropolis of the Portuguese possessions in both hemispheres. Commerce with all nations was thrown open, and a sudden spring was given to improvement, which even the impolitic measures of the Court did not appear to check. Nor were these ameliorations confined to the Capital, or to the external relations of the country, they extended to the remote parts of the dominions, and even affected the ecclesiastical affairs, in which many abuses were corrected. This gave rise to new modes of thinking, and was necessarily followed by alterations in the nature of Brazilian society. Affairs proceeded thus till December, 1815, when the Prince Regent, (now Don John VI.) raised Brazil to a Kingdom. The revolution and ferment, however, which had spread over other quarters of South America, was not excluded from Brazil. In 1817, an insurrection broke out in Pernambuco, which at first threatened to spread over the whole country; but the port being blockaded, and the troops concentrated from the other provinces, the insurgents were overpowered, and the ring-leaders put to death. On the formation of the free Constitution for Portugal, the King was obliged to repair to Lisbon, as the seat of the Monarchy. He left Brazil in July, 1821, and the heir apparent remained in the government, as Viceroy. Since the political revolutions in Portugal, however, similar agitations have taken place in Brazil, and the establishment of a free Constitution appears to have been affected, though not without confusion and bloodshed; and even the absolute and formal independence of that country on the parent state, appears to be an event which may be anticipated at very distant period.

Division.

Mr. Henderson, in his recent *Topographical Account of Brazil*, considers it as divided into the following twenty-two provinces, including those on the north bank of the river Marañon. These are,

Maritime Provinces.

- | | |
|-----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Guiana. | 9. Bahia. |
| 2. Para. | 10. Porto Seguro. |
| 3. Maranhão. | 11. Espírito Santo. |
| 4. Ceará. | 12. Rio de Janeiro. |
| 5. Rio Grande, North. | 13. St. Paulo. |
| 6. Paraíba. | 14. St. Catharina. |
| 7. Pernambuco. | 15. Rio Grande, South. |
| 9. Sergipe d' El Rey. | |

Interior Provinces.

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 16. Mato Grosso. | 20. Piauí. |
| 17. Paraná. | 21. Minas Geraes. |
| 18. Uruguay. | 22. Goyaz. |
| 19. Solimões. | |

So far, however, as relates to the actual government of the country, a more general division appears now to subsist. Portuguese Guiana is situated on the north side of the Marañon, and the rest of the dominions is divided into the following twelve governments, which are generally denominated Capitánias; though to one or two the term government only is applied.

- | | |
|------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Para. | 7. Rio Janeiro. |
| 2. Maranhão. | 8. St. Paulo. |
| 3. Ceará. | 9. St. Catharina, (Island.) |
| 4. Pernambuco. | 10. Rio Grande. |
| 5. Bahia. | 11. Goyaz. |
| 6. Minas Geraes. | 12. Mato Grosso. |

BRAZIL.

Outlines.

From the estuary of the mighty Marañon, to that of the sea-like La Plata, the extent of the Brazilian coast is of vast length, but the whole of these outlines are singularly deficient in capes and bays. For more than 15° of longitude, from point La Tijera to Cape St. Roque, the shore stretches nearly from east to west without any considerable promontory, and scarcely an inlet of importance, except that on which the town of Maranhão stands. From Cape St. Roque to Cape St. Augustine, the shore is nearly a straight line from north to south, the extent of which is about four degrees of latitude. After passing this last point the coast bends to the south-west, and forms a large sweep before it reaches Cape Frio in the twenty-third degree of south latitude. Almost the only objects in the whole of this extent that deserve to be mentioned here, are the small promontory on which Bahia stands, and the bay on the west of that city. South of Cape Frio the coast runs nearly west till it reaches the Bay of Rio de Janeiro, which forms one of the most complete harbours in the world. Though narrow at its entrance, it extends several miles into the country, and is finely sprinkled with islands. Another bay of nearly the same size washes a part of the western confines of the same province, beyond which the coast extends more towards the south, without presenting any other noted inlet.

Many parts of the coast of Brazil are well calculated to give the European traveller a foretaste of the peculiar magnificence with which Nature displays herself in the equinoctial regions of the New World. The asperities first viewed from the sea is rough and unequal, but a nearer approach shows the scenery to be truly picturesque and romantic. Generally speaking, the surface of Brazil is covered with the most luxuriant vegetation. The valleys are adorned with never-fading verdure, and the mountains are clad in the most gigantic forests; though deserts sometimes occur, which are either composed of barren sand, or indurated clay, almost wholly destitute of vegetation. The whole extent of the cultivated lands has been recently stated at scarcely 20,000 square miles, which is not more than a hundred and fiftieth part of the whole surface. The land gradually rises as it recedes from the coast, till it reaches the height of 5 or 6000 feet, at no great distance from the shore. The ridge composed of this series of summits, (which stretches from about the tenth to the thirty-second degree of south latitude,) is frequently denominated the Brazilian Aodes. It runs nearly parallel to the coast, with its steepest side to the sea, and gradually sloping towards the interior of the country; whence it afterwards rises again by a gentle ascent to the west, till it attains a height varying from 3 to 6000 feet above the level of the sea, and then loses itself in those deserts called Campos Parexis, which occupy much of the central regions of the southern peninsula of the New World. These deserts appear to stretch round the sources of the Tapajós, and part of the head waters of the Madeira. Near the confines of the Campos Parexis,

General surface and mountains.

BRAZIL. the ground first rises into hills, and then into chains of mountains, which some travellers have considered as the highest in Brazil, and in which many of the tributary streams of the Marañon and the Paraguay, and other great rivers that ultimately lose themselves in the Atlantic, have their rise. The range which separates the waters that flow towards the north, into their great receptacle, the Marañon, from those which pursue an opposite course, is generally supposed to branch from the Andes, and to join the chain near the shores of the Atlantic; but like many other of the grand features of this southern part of the New World, it still remains to be explored.

Principal
rivers,

Some of the chief rivers, especially such as wash the confines of this country, have been described in our general view of America, but several others deserve notice in this place. The great Madeira is formed by the union of various streams that issue from the eastern slope of the Andes, on the borders of Peru, which flowing towards the north and north-east unite before they reach the tenth degree of south latitude. Their confluent waters are afterwards impeded by several magnificent falls before they reach the level country; and then the Madeira rolls on a vast body of water till it joins the Marañon, after a course of about 3000 miles; for a great part of which it constitutes the north-west boundary of the Brazilian dominions. Nearly parallel to this, and flowing in the same direction, but further east, are the Tapajos, the Xingu, and the Tocantines, all rising from the same central regions, and terminating in the same general receptacle. The least of these exceeds 1000 miles in length. The Paraguay, Paraná, and the Uruguay, all rise within the limits of these dominions, and pass towards the south into the United Provinces. The great range of mountains, which skirts the shore, prevents any rivers from attaining the ocean immediately, except such as spring from the eastern side of that ridge; but several noble rivers of the interior, by a circuitous sweep, mingle their waters with the Atlantic. The Paraíba discharges itself from the northern coast in longitude 42° west; the Rio Francisco, which rises on the western declivity of the Brazilian Andes, near the parallel of 20° of south latitude, pursues a northern course along the base of that ridge, till finally turning to the east, it enters the sea about the eleventh parallel of south latitude, completing a course of 1000 miles. One, Rio Grande, joins the Francisco, while another falls into the Atlantic a few miles north of Porto Seguro, and a third about the thirty-second degree of south latitude. The River Doce also rises about the twenty-first degree, near the elevated town of Villa Rica, and joins the sea nearly a degree and a half from the north. The Paraíba pursues a northerly course for about 150 or 200 miles along the eastern base of the Alpine range, and then mingles its waters with those of the ocean in latitude 22°. Several lakes are met with in various parts of this extensive country, but these are by no means commensurate with its other features. The largest of these is the lake of Potos, which is supposed to have derived its name from a race of Indians now extinct, and is situated towards the southern extremity of the kingdom. It stretches about 150 miles nearly parallel to the shore, and is about thirty-five miles at its greatest breadth. The depth of water is generally sufficient for small vessels,

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but the navigation is rendered somewhat dangerous by frequent shoals. The shores are in most places flat, and it has a great resemblance to the Huffs on the southern shore of the Baltic, as it communicates with the sea at its southern extremity. Lakes are also found in other parts of the country, but these are either too small to require description, or too imperfectly known to admit of being correctly delineated. The rivers above described, with numerous others, are navigable, and would afford an almost boundless range of internal communication if properly improved, and the short portages intersected by canals. Hutages must doubtless roll away before nature can be so far subdued, and population so far increased, as to accomplish this object. Though still unaided by art, this communication is often carried to a great extent, and by this means, salt, iron, ammunition, and other articles are annually sent by the Government of Brazil to the western districts. From the vicinity of St. Paul's to that of Caiaba, for instance, the passage is effected by the following route. Commencing with a branch of the Tiete, which flows near the former city, and following this stream, by the Paraná, the Rio Pardo, the Taquiri, the Paraguay, and the Porruos, which last leads to Villa Coimbra; and all these form one continued chain of water communication, except a short passage between the Rio Pardo and the Taquiri.

Climate.

As the elevation of surface, and the combinations of local circumstances are so varied in these wide regions, they cannot fail of producing a correspondent diversity of climate and productions. In the northern parts, which are situated in the centre of the torrid zone, the air of the lower tracts near the banks of the majestic Marañon is sultry and oppressive; but even here vegetation is kept in perfect vigour by the peculiar humidity of the atmosphere. Where the meridian sun deviates so little from the zenith, the seasons can scarcely differ, nor the length of the day vary. Near the coast, where the trade wind perpetually blows, the beneficial effects which attend it after having swept over the whole breadth of the Atlantic, are hourly experienced, in the refreshing coolness it imparts to the incumbent air of these otherwise hot and humid regions. Mr. Koster, who resided some years in Pernambuco, observes in reference to that part of the country, that "January is not, properly speaking, the rainy season. The rains at the commencement of the year are called *primeiras aguas*, or the first waters, and continue for about a fortnight or three weeks, after which the weather becomes again settled till May or June; and from this time till the end of August the rains are constant. From August or September, until the opening of the year, there is not usually any rain. The dry weather can be depended upon with more certainty from September till January, than from February to May; likewise the wet season is more regular from June to August, than in January. There are very few days in the whole course of the year of incessant rain." As we ascend the mountains, as well as when we recede from the equator, the air becomes more temperate; and the vegetables and fruits belonging to Europe are matured in the vicinity of those which are indigenous to a tropical soil. On the Campos Parexis, and other similar situations, the aridity of the soil, and the reflection of the solar rays render the heat intolerable; but in many of the elevated districts of the interior, valleys,

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BRAZIL. as well as mountains, are found, in which the climate is temperate, and salubrious. In others, especially where the wind blows over wide tracts of marshy forests, the atmosphere becomes loaded with effluvia exhaled by the bennas of an almost vertical sun, and the climate is unhealthy. The southern regions being so much farther removed from the equator, are, of course, the most temperate, and in these Fahrenheit's thermometer, sometimes falls below 40°. All the elevated parts of Brazil, and even many of the lower tracts near the shores of the Atlantic are considered healthy.

Soil and vegetable products.

As far as the soil has yet been explored much of it seems to be highly fertile, while the varied surface, and vast extent of the country present almost every species of the vegetable products which are common to other parts of the globe. Maize, benna, and cassava are the principal food of the inhabitants, and are, therefore, the common objects of culture. The northern provinces yield cotton, sugar, coffee, tobacco, and all the usual fruits and vegetables of tropical climates; and in the southern districts wheat and other European grains are raised with success, and their cultivation is capable of being carried to any extent, were sufficient skill and capital employed. The state of cultivation, however, in most parts of Brazil is of the most wretched description; and the indolence of the inhabitants is scarcely to be conceived by those of the northern countries of Europe. Many of the Brazilian forests abound with useful and ornamental trees. At a short distance from the coast, are found different species of lofty palms. The cocoa tree is common, and much larger than that of the Indies. The Brazilian myrtle is a beautiful shrub. The cedar, the wild cinnamon, and the rose-wood are valuable woods, while many other kinds are met with, whose stems rise to the height of eighty or a hundred feet. Many of the trees and plants are also adorned with blossoms of the most beautiful kinds, which being intermixed with leaves of the brightest green, impart to the forests of those regions a splendour unparalleled in the temperate zones.

Animals.

The domestic animals of Brazil are generally of the European species, and were introduced into this new continent by the first settlers. Horses are common, and vast herds of cattle range over some parts of the country, particularly the wide llanos of the southern regions. Wild animals of nearly all the species common to the New World, abound in Brazil. The anta, which the native Americans call the tapira, is the largest of the quadrupeds. It is about the size of a heifer, but shaped like a pig. It is a timid and harmless animal, which feeds like the horse; but being also amphibious it swims and dives in an extraordinary manner, and is capable of remaining for a long time at the bottoms of the lakes and pools without respiring. When killed by the hunters, its flesh is generally eaten, and differs little from that of the ox. The hyena, the saratu, the wild cat, the guara, which resembles the wolf in size and figure, the porcupine, the armadillo, and several of the ounce tribe are common in many parts. One of this last species is an enormous cat, sometimes twelve feet in length from its nose to the tip of its tail. It is very fierce, and is hunted by the Brazilian farmers, but is seldom taken without the loss of some of their dogs. Innumerable species of monkeys range through the forests; and the most monstrous of the reptile tribes are found, particularly in the marshy

swamps and humid plains near the banks of the great rivers. The boa constrictor is said to attain thirty feet in length, and sometimes to resemble the trunk of a large tree. One was killed on the borders of a lake by some travellers in 1819, which had just gorged a young bull. Numerous species of birds, some of them of the most beautiful plumage, and others of exquisite song, sport in the forests. The bunnang bird, the least of the feathered race, is common in Brazil. The largest bird found in this country is the emu or American ostrich, and the most ferocious, the vulture.

Minerals.

Some parts of Brazil abound in mineral as well as vegetable treasures; among which its gold and diamonds are the most noted, and have always been a powerful cause of that neglect and wretchedness in which this fertile region has so long remained. The eagerness with which the Portuguese have sought these treasures, has induced them to despise the more certain and permanent sources of wealth presented by a luxuriant soil, and favourable climate. The avaricious jealousy with which they guarded the sources of these productions, was such as for a long time to preclude any certain information from being received, relative either to the place and manner of their existence, or to the method by which they were obtained. Since the emigration of the Portuguese Court, however, this policy has been much relaxed; and Mr. Mawe and others have been permitted to visit those long prohibited districts. These precious products are most abundant in the Capitania of Minas Geraes, and are chiefly found in the beds of the mountain torrents, or in deep valleys, in strata of rounded pebbles and gravel, from which they are separated by washing. Most of the head waters of the rivers which flow northward, and fall into the Marañon, abound in gold; while the diamond-ground is principally among the mountains that give rise to the St. Francisco, and the Rio Grande, with their tributary streams. This district extends about fifty miles from north to south, and twenty-five from east to west. It is altogether under military government, and guards are stationed on all the roads by which it is entered, to examine travellers, and detain such as are suspected of smuggling diamonds. Mr. Mawe, in his late *Travels in Brazil*, has given a full account both of the gold and diamond-washings of these districts, by which the precious products are separated from the alluvial soil and other foreign substances, in which they are contained. This heterogeneous mass as dug from the ground is called *cangaço*. The quantity of gold annually obtained in Brazil is not perhaps to be ascertained. The search is open to all adventurers, but when the metal is obtained it must be brought to the nearest mint, where it is made into ingots, which after receiving the public stamp are returned to the owner for circulation. One-fifth of it, however, is retained as the share of Government. This induces the adoption of every possible means of evading so heavy a tax, and renders the illicit trade so great, that the quantity coined forms no criterion of that which is actually found. The diamonds are altogether a Royal monopoly, and the temptation to smuggling these consequently is greater than that of smuggling gold; and so that many are procured which never reach the Government stores. From the best information Mr. Mawe could procure, the average quantity was from

BRAZIL. 20,000 to 25,000 carats annually. "The expenses of these works," he says, "during a period of five years, from 1801 to 1806 inclusive, amounted to £204,000, and the diamonds sent to the treasury of Rio Janeiro, during the same period, weighed 115,675 carats. The value of the gold found in the same time amounted to £17,300 sterling; from which it appears that the diamonds actually cost government 33s. 9d. per carat. These years were esteemed singularly productive. The mines in general do not yield to government more than 30,000 carats annually."

Islands

The islands off this coast are but few, and those comparatively of small importance. The chief is St. Catherine's, which is separated from the province of that name by a channel, in some places not exceeding a league in width. The situation of this island being a few degrees beyond the tropic, and the sea-breeze blowing regularly every afternoon, renders the climate one of the most agreeable on the globe. It is mountainous, but the hills are separated by pleasant valleys, which are better cultivated than most parts of the adjacent continent; and the oranges grown here are thought to be the best in America. The chief town is Desterro, situated on the margin of a small bay on the west coast. The island of St. Francisco, with a town of the same name, lies farther north, and is about six leagues in length, merely separated from the continent by a narrow channel, and is favourably situated for commerce. St. Vincent is also another small island situated in a bay opposite the city of St. Paul's, and is five or six leagues long, and contains the town and port of Santos, which may be considered as the port of the former city, between which and it there is a frequent intercourse.

Chief towns.

Rio de Janeiro.

In such a country as Brazil, the towns are necessarily few, and far distant from each other. They are chiefly situated on the coast, except in a few of the mining districts, where success in the search for minerals has converted what was at first merely a collection of huts, into a considerable town. Rio de Janeiro, which is sometimes called St. Sebastian, is the modern Capital of these wide dominions, and has now become one of the most important, populous, and commercial cities in the western hemisphere. This city stands on the west side of the bay of the same name, which has been already noticed, and is backed by several high mountains. The harbour is easy of access, and is one of the finest on the globe. The town extends about two miles from east to west; and its site is principally on a projecting point of land, the extremity of which is occupied by a fort which commands the town, and is merely separated from Serpent Island by a narrow channel. Round this island is the principal anchorage for shipping. Most of the houses are composed either of brick or stone; but they are generally but one story high, and almost all have balconies. The ground floors are frequently used as shops or store-houses, and have lattice windows suspended from the top, which are pushed up when it is required to obtain a view of what is passing in the street, to the great annoyance of those who traverse the narrow foot-paths. The Palace has been compared to a manufactory rather than to a Royal residence. Besides the Mint, the Armoury, the Naval and Military Armaments, and the Custom-house are the chief edifices. The Cathedral, which has been recently erected, is considered as the best specimen of architecture

BRAZIL. in the town. This city is the great emporium of Brazilian commerce, especially of all the mining districts; and Mr. Mawe estimates the population at 100,000; but Mr. Henderson, in his late work, states it at 150,000, about two-thirds of whom, he says, are composed of Negroes, Mulattoes, and other people of colour. The latitude of Rio de Janeiro is 22° 54' south, and longitude 45° 18' west.

Bahia, the next port in Brazil, has already been not ed in its alphabetical order. Next to this is Pernambuco, or rather Recife, which is the official designation of this provincial Capital. It is situated at the mouth of a river, about eight degrees of south latitude. The commercial name of Pernambuco is generally understood as including both the town of Recife and the city of Ollinda; Mr. Henderson considers it under this point of view, and states the population of the whole at 65,000 individuals. It is a thriving place, and the residence of many opulent merchants. Recife is the principal commercial quarter, as it lies nearest the shore, and contains the Custom-house. The harbour is formed by a reef of rocks which run parallel to the coast opposite the town, where it forms a kind of basin, in which vessels at all times lie in smooth water. One of the other principal towns on the coast is Porto Seguro, which is the Capital of the province of the same name, and stands on the left bank of the river Buracão; and has the appearance of having once been in a more flourishing condition. Rio Grande or St. Pedro, near the southern extremity of Brazil, in latitude 32°, is a recent but flourishing town; and though the harbour is difficult of entrance, there is a considerable coasting as well as some foreign trade carried on there, particularly in small vessels that do not draw more than ten feet water. The vicinity of the town is more populous than many other districts; and as the inhabitants are chiefly employed in breeding cattle, the number of hides that are shipped at this port is very great. Wheat is likewise sent here to most other districts of the coast. St. Luis de Maranhão stands on an island near the north-east coast, in longitude 45° 37', and has a good harbour, with a population of about 15,000 inhabitants.

Pura is the Capital of the province of the same name, about sixty miles from the mouth of the river Tocantins, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants. St. Paulo is the provincial Capital of the Capitania of the same name. It was built in the neighbourhood of gold mines, which were formerly very productive, but which are now either neglected or comparatively exhausted. The population is still about 15,000. Villa Rica, in Minas Geraes, about 250 miles north of Rio Janeiro, is the chief town in the vicinity of the gold mines of that district, and contains 20,000 inhabitants. Tejoico is the Capital of the diamond district, and stands about 200 miles north of the last city. This is a considerable town, as well as Calaba, the most western of the mining towns, which is situated on the banks of a river of the same name, that flows into the Paraguary. Villa Boa is comparatively a large and flourishing town, the Capital of the province of Goiás, standing on the banks of a large river near the centre of Brazil.

Before the emigration of the Court for Portugal, the army requisite for the defence of the colony, and the preservation of the mining districts, consisted of

BRAZIL. about 8000 regulars and 30,000 militia; the former were principally sent from Europe, while the latter were raised in the country. The whole were both badly appointed and paid. Since the late changes, however, the army has been both increased and improved. The revenue amounted to six or seven millions sterling; but this was often inadequate to the demands on the treasury. This arose from several sources, exclusive, as we have before stated, was the monopoly of diamonds, and one-fifth of the gold coined. Besides this a tenth of the productions of the soil and the value of property, with a duty upon all imports and exports, and a per centage upon merchandise, cattle, and slaves, on their transmission from one part of the country to another. On the two indispensable articles of salt and iron, this last was as high as 100 per cent.

Manufactures and commerce. Manufactures can scarcely be said to have any existence in Brazil, though a few articles of comparatively little importance are made at Rio Janeiro. Commerce was till very lately greatly restricted by the impolitic measures of the Government, aided by the indolence and poverty of the people. But wiser plans have now been adopted, and have necessarily been attended by their concomitant advantages. Instead of trade being restricted to the mother country, it has been thrown open to all nations, under certain regulations; many roads have been made at great expense, and the communications between the distant parts greatly facilitated. The usual mode of travelling and transporting goods is by mules, which convey the produce of the country from a great distance to the coast, and return laden with manufactured articles and other requisites for the consumption of the interior. Since the late commercial restrictions were removed, all kinds of manufactured goods are imported from Great Britain; Portugal continues to send oil, wine, brandy, linens, and cottons. The United States supply flour, salt provisions, household furniture, and naval stores. The principal exports are cotton, coffee, sugar, tobacco, and Brazil-wood from the northern provinces; gold and diamonds from the central districts; and wheat, hides, hams, hair, and tallow from the southern parts.

Mr. Luccock, in a recent work on this country, has given among other tables the following.

Commerce of Rio de Janeiro compared with that of Bahia, for a. d. 1816.

INWARDS.			
Portuguese vessels from the ports of	Rio de Janeiro.	Bahia.	
Brazil	1002	290	
Africa	45	21	
Portugal and the Isles	78	75	
River Plata	47	7	
Southern Europe	3	18	
Northern Europe	3	6	
Asia	7	0	
Havannah and North America	0	1	
Foreign vessels.			
British	113	57	
Russian	6	0	
Swedish	8	1	
French	19	7	
Dutch	14	2	
Carried forward	1396	485	

INWARDS.			
Foreign vessels.	Rio de Janeiro.	Bahia.	
Brought forward	1396	485	
North America	46	17	
Spanish	13	15	
Prussian			
Danish	5	2	
German			
Total	1460	519	
OUTWARDS.			
Portuguese vessels from the ports of	Rio de Janeiro.	Bahia.	
Brazil	862	214	
Africa	56	37	
Portugal and the Isles	57	56	
River Plata	53	17	
Southern Europe	1	16	
Northern Europe	2	3	
Asia	19	0	
Havannah and North America	2	0	
Foreign Vessels			
British	93	59	
Russian	0	0	
Swedish	19	1	
French	11	4	
Dutch	9	3	
North American	41	22	
Spanish	16	6	
Prussian			
Danish	5	0	
German			
Total	1232	431	

The Inquisition has never yet been planted in Brazil. The natives who inhabit the mining districts affect a certain superiority over their fellow countrymen when they visit any part of the coast, but are in reality in a state of poverty. Their food is of the coarsest kind, and water their only beverage. The dress of the men, when at home, is a mantle, with trousers and wooden clogs; the youths wear only a jacket and cotton trousers, and the children go naked. The dress of the females is such as to render them reluctant to appear before any person except the members of their own family. Under these circumstances they pass their time in a state of wretched idleness, considering all regular occupations as servile; and neglecting every attainable comfort for the sake of those treasures that are seldom found, and even when obtained, usually increase the indolence more than the happiness of their possessors. The mercantile class enjoy many more of the comforts of life than any of the others; but even the agricultural inhabitants, though indisputably far below what they might be, appear to be superior to those of the mining districts. They are chiefly engaged in the management of cattle; and Mr. Koster, who was well acquainted with the subject, remarks, "Hammocks usually supply the place of beds, and are more comfortable, and those are likewise frequently used as chairs. Most of the better sort of cottages contain a table, but the usual practice is for the family to squat down upon a mat in a circle, with the bowls, dishes, or gourd in the centre, and thus to eat their meals on the floor. Knives and forks are not much known, and are not at all made use of by the lower orders." Gourds indeed form almost the whole of their domestic utensils. As the climate does not require many clothes, and their poverty restricts

Manures and Customs.

BRAZIL. them to a few, their dress is at once both coarse and scanty.

BREAD. For further information on this subject the reader may consult Mawe's *Travels into the Interior of Brazil*; M. Beauchamp's *Histoire du Brésil*; Koster's

Travels in Brazil; Maximilian's *Travels in Brazil*; Luccock's *Notes on Rio de Janeiro and the Southern part of Brazil*; Henderson's *Historical and Topographical Account of Brazil*; and Myers's *Modern Geography*. **BREADTH**

BREACH. The past tense and past participle of the Goth. *bréca*; A. S. *brecca*, *breacan*, to break.

A rupture; a way, passage, or opening,—broken through any thing.

Met. An infraction or violation of an agreement, of a duty; a destruction, a separation, a dissention.

Like whether we be not more angry with our servants for the breach of our commandment of our own, than for the breach of God's to them.

Sir Thomas More's Works, fol. 87.

He is as hote as any man at spoile,
But at a breach he keepeth no such coyke.

Guinevere. The Fruits of Warre.

So fast I am in gyne
within your beames guye,
As thence to make a breach
no engine may prevaile.

Turberville. The disputing Lover crosses, &c.

Like some just prince, who to establish laws
Suffers the breach at his best lov'd to strike,
To learn the vulgar to endure the like.

Dryden. Of Worldly Cresses.

For he that openeth the waters but a little, knoweth not how great a breach dyke will make at length.

Spielman. The Rights of the Church, fol. 12.

For the rotture or breach beganne on the behalf of the Lacedæmonians, for that, that the Thebans had invaded Flacia, without breaking the appointment.

Nicoll. Thucydides, fol. 179.

For should a vild her monarchy invade,
Should in her works the smallest breach be made,
That breach the mighty fabric would dissolve,
And in immediate ruin all involve.

Blackmore. The Creation, book v.

For though nothing less than slavish obedience to all laws of God can denigrate a man to be righteous; the wilful breach of any one, makes him to be a sinner.

Bishop Beveridge. Sermon 64.

Men like these, united by one bond, pursuing one design, spend their labour and their lives in making their fellow-creatures happy, and in repairing the breaches caused by ambition.

Goldsmith. On the present state of Public Learning.

This volume containing some letters from noblemen, Pope incited a prosecution against him in the House of Lords, for breach of privilege, and attended himself to stimulate the resentment of his friends.

Johnson. Life of Pope.

BREAD, } Skinner believes that it is from
BREXADEN, } the A. S. *bræd-an, fæwer*, to nourish.
BREXADWORTS. } Tooke that bread is brayed grain or corn;—the past tense and past participle of the verb, to bray, (French, *brayer*) i. e. to pound, to beat to pieces, with a subordination of corn, grain, or other similar substances. Vol. II. 46.

Brayed corn is the first state of the process (towards the loaf; the neat is dough. See DOUGH and LOAF.

Syne bryow, we gylt us of þyne wyte leode,

þat þu eut þe ruf at þy masse, in þyne rære wede.

R. Givener, p. 238.

In tentis R. rested alle þat ills aȝht,
His men wer wele gæsted with bræd, wyne & light.

R. Bruner, p. 160.

Of smale houndes hadde she, that the felds
With roasted fish, and milk, and vassel brede.

Chaucer. The Prologue, p. 147.

But we denounce to hem that ben such men, and herchen
in the Lord Jesu Crist, that thei worke with silence, and eet her
owne brede.

Wiclif. 2 Tem. ch. iii. fol. 102.

Them that are such, we commande and exorte by our Lord
Jesu Christ, that they worke with quietnes, and eate their
owne brede.

Bible, 1551.

He consulted with the oracle of his bredden God, which became
it answered not, he cut it into the fire.

Hall. Political Works, The Honour of the Married Clergy.

FAL. No abuse (Hal) on mine honor, no abuse.

FRANCE. Not to disgrace me! and call me, peasant, and
bread-chopper, and I know not what.

Shakespeare. Henry IV. Second Part, fol. 84.

I would therefore in a very particular manner recommend these
my speculations to all well regulated families that set apart an
hour in every morning for tea and bread and butter.

Spectator, No. 10.

Ther' the scarcity caused by regresters of bread-corn (of which
starch is made) and the gentry's immoderate frequenting the
opera; the ladies, to save charges, have their heads washed at
home; and the beaux put out their lires to common landladies.

Tatler, No. 118.

And see the good old seat, whose Gothic tow'rs
Awful emerge from yonder tufted bow'rs;
Whose rafters'd hall the crowding tenants fed,
And dealt to age and want their daily bread.

Warren. Newmarket, A Satire.

They can read, write, and rust accompany; they understand
their needle, breadstitch, cross and charge, and all manner of
plain-work.

Goldsmith. Fanny of Wakefield, ch. xi.

Dullness no more roosts only near the sky,
But seates, drawing-rooms, with parrets vie;
Plump peevs, and breadless bards, alike are dull,
St. James's and Rag-fair club fowl for fool.

P. Withered. Sins Dances.

BREAD-FAUIT TARE, the English name of the *Arctocarpus*.

BREAD-NUT TARE, the English name of the *Bromus Alcestrum*.

BREADTH, } The third person singular *brædeth*,
BREADTHLESS, } (A. S.) of the indicative of *brædan*,
diatære, to broaden, to expand, to dilate.

And rubbed Wancroste aȝre in leaghe & in brede,
And al þe contree aboute to þe townes cȝte.

R. Givener, p. 385.

Seane, þe Danes kyng, was of so grete strength,
þat he destroyed þy lond in brede & in length.

R. Bruner, p. 41.

And the citee was sett in a square and the lengthe of it so mych
as much as is the brede, and he met the citee with the rehed bi
furlongs twelve thomydis, and the bighthe and the lengthe and
brede of it ben cense.

Wiclif. Apocalypse, ch. xi.

And the citee was lyht iii. square & the length was so large as
the bræd of it, and he measured the citee wyth the rede. xii. m.
furlongs: & the light and the bredder, & the bryght of it was
equal.

Bible, 1551.

BREADTH
—
BREAK.

Why should I not as well eke tell you all
The parricide, that was upon the wall
Within the temple of mighty Blora, the red?
All printed was the wall in length and breadth;
Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. 1572.

On the Sunday in the morning there was such a myst that a
man might nat see the brother of an acre of land fro hym.
Præstour. Crangle, v. l. C. 131.

The term of latitude is breadthwise line.
Morse. Song on the Soul, book ii. ch. ii. §. 6.

3. That if the quantity of any man's nose be eminently misal-
culated, whether as to length or breadth, he shall have a just
pretext to be elected.
Spectator, No. 17.

Or let the turf recede, and oft approach,
With varied breadths, now sink into the shade,
Now in the Sun its verdant bosom have.

Mason. The English Garden, book II.

BREAK, v. { Goth. *brikan* ; A. S. *brecan*,
 brecan, *brecan* ; Dutch, *breken* ;
 Ger. brechen ; Sw. *bräcka*.
BREKEN, n. { To separate or divide into parts ;
 to sunder, to rive, or burst asun-
 der ; to crack or split asunder—
 into parts or pieces—any thing
 BREKEN, adj. united into one mass.

To make or cause a rupture or breach ; a disruption,
or breaking apart ; an eruption or breaking out ; an
irruption or breaking in.

To separate, (met.) to disjoin, to dispart, to force
apart ; to disavow, to interrupt, to intercept.

To break down ; to suppress, to subdue, to subject,
to erode, to tame, to overpower, to bring or reduce to
obedience,—to poverty,—to decay.

To break or infringe, to violate. Adultery in our old
writers, is called *spencebrech*.

To break one's mind, is to break it open ; to open it,
to disclose it.

To break the fast, or to break-fast is to separate
the times of fasting, to discontinue fasting.

This word is of most universal application, (meta-
phorical or literal) to any separation ; particularly
when made with suddenness, violence, injury.

Corineus tok his bowe of hym, & smote hym a wounde
A boun on ye sculle with yi owne bowe a noo,
yat ye sculle to breke in pases many on.

R. Glouceter, p. 15.

To breke yu trewe councail, ye kyng was luf Jerte,
And asethes yu counceyl hym gaf, that he moote yi acde do.
Id. p. 250.

ye Mortayn befor spoken, with his neww Reynere,
ye sege ye wend had breken, yei com with his powere.
R. Brune, p. 160.

For Jhesus as a gysent with a gra comey gonde
To breke and to brete adoun. at yat ben agyne kyn
And to have out alle of hem yat hym likey.

Piers Plouman, p. 363.

Therefore be that breketh oon of these leute mandementis
and techith than men, schal be clepid the leest in the rewme of
berens.
Wiclif. Matthew, ch. v.

Whosoever breketh one of these commandementis, and
teacheth men so, he shall be called the lest in the hyerdom of
berens.
Idem, 1531.

For, with the day is come that I shal die
I make playfully my confession,
That I am thikke woful Palamon,
That hath thy prison broken wilfully.

Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. 1737.

Before the breake or dawning of the daye,
Before the light be seene in lofty skyes,
Before the Sunne appeare in pleasant wynde,

Before the watche (before the watche I saye)
Before the warde that waytes therefore alwaye.
Gainsford. De profundis.

Whiche answers and seide to hem, an yvel kyndeide and a
spous breker (Mid. Vers. answerer) schilth a tokene, and a
tokene schal not be given to hi ; but the tokene of Jhesus the
profete.
Wiclif. Matthew, ch. xii. fol. 11.

And brekers of the law, rather to misse
And likerous folke, after that they been dede,
Shall whirle about y^e world, alway in paine
Till many a woe be passed.

Chaucer. The Assembly of Foules, fol. 345.

No man seweth a patche of new cloth to an old cloth, else he
taketh away the new patche fro the olde, and a more besyng is
made.
Wiclif. Mark, ch. ii. fol. 24.

As then sent messynges, or cursynges followe the breaking,
or kaping of the law of Moyse ; euen so naturally do the mes-
synges, or cursynges followe the breaking or keeping of the law
of nature, out of which spring all our temporal lawes.
Tyndall. Worke, fol. 10.

Then sayde (he whi called himself) Robyn hood, his outlaws
deceyful is reynard, and therefore you must be cautious with
such fares as we vse. Then the kyng and quene saie doun, &
were serued with venyson and wyne by Robyn hood and his men,
too theyre great contentacion.

Hall. The 7th yere of King Henry VIII.

And (I) deliberated with myselfe, that if it were possible, to
find the means to breake off, I would neuer enter into the yoke
with her.
Sims. Anna, 1554. Queen Mary.

Whoe came directly agaynste them, for though in the nyght they
were hydde in a place, yet alwayes they were in the morninge,
at breake of daye, apparceyved.
Novis. Thucydides, book ii. fol. 66.

By vertue and tenor wherof all our storied subjects, and
every one of them, shall both publicly and privately use and
behave themselves, to correct and punish the breakers of those
lawes.
Hakluyt. Voyages, 4to. The Two Letters, ii. fol. 159.

All the fleets are to fellow and observe the same without
straying or breaking of company at any time vpon the penalty
before specified.

Id. Voyages, 4to. Orders for the Fleet, v. l. fol. 454.

Thus they stode styll all y^e nyght armed, every man vnder
his owne standard and banner ; and in the breake of the daye it
trumpetts of Scotland met with the Englyshe scoutmaster.
Præstour. Crangle, v. l. C. 18.

For the old Romans, howsoever they died or break their fast
ordinarily by themselves alone, yet they supped ever with their
friends about them.
Holland. Plutarch, fol. 636.

The moles march all before

Vp hill, and downe hill ; overthwartes, and breake-neck cliffs
they past.
Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book xiii. fol. 311.

— I must

Forake the coast : to do't, or no, is certain
To us a breake-neck.

Shakespeare. Winter's Tale, act i. sc. 2. fol. 280.

In the mean time the king of France, sent Queen Elizabeth a
message, assuring her, that the trumpet, which had been long
gathering in Spain for three years, would certainly break very
speedily upon her kingdom.
Oldys's Life of Raleigh, fol. 41.

He break my darts ! or hurt my power !

He, Leda's swan and Danae's shower !

Oo, bid him his wise tongue restrain,

And mind his slander, and his rage restrain.

Wiclif. Matthew, ch. xii. fol. 24.

For the same reason I do not dislike the speeches in our English
tragedy that close with abrupt pauses and breakings off in the
middle of a verse, when they humour any passion that is expressed
by it.
Spectator, No. 39.

— Iaprimis,

As soon as Pierhus' eyes inspect us,

First, sir, I read, and then I breakfast.

Prior. An Epistle to F. Shephard, Esquire.

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—

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I resolve not to believe my seams. I tread my nose against a post that comes in my way. I step into a dirty kennel; and after twenty such vain and rational actions I am taken up and clapt into a mad house. *Reid's Enquiry*, ch. vi. sec. 20.

In dire amaze and dread they stand
And hear the breakers lash the rugged strand.
Poole's, *The Shipwreck*, can. 3.

This duty being performed, my son and I went to pursue our usual industry abroad, while my wife and daughters employed themselves in providing breakfast, which was always ready at a certain time. *Goldsmith's The Vicar of Wakefield*, ch. iv.

BREAK, BARLEY. Of the mode of playing this once popular game, Mr. Strutt confesses himself ignorant, and merely quotes the following lines from Sidney, as given by Johnson in his *Dictionary*:

"By night's prime she, she went abroad thereby
At barley-break her count with foot to try."

Barley-break was, however, among young people, one of the most popular amusements of the reigns of Elizabeth and James the First, and continued so until the austere taste of the Puritans occasioned its suppression: thus Thomas Randall, in *An Eclogue*, on the diversions of Coteswold Hills, complains that

"Some melancholy realises, about have gone,
To teach all woe, their own complexion—
These teach that dancing is a devilish;
And *Barley-break*, the ready way to hell."

Before this puritanical revolution took place, *Barley-break* was a common theme with the amatory herds of the day, and allusions to it were frequent in their songs, madrigals, and ballads. With one of these, written about 1600, we shall present the reader, as a pleasing specimen of the light poetry of the age:

Now is the month of maying,
When merry lads are playing,
Each with his bonny lass,
Upon the greeny grass.

The spring clad all in gladsome
Doth laugh at winter's sadness;
And to the baggage's sound,
The nymphs tread out their ground.

Fye then, why sit we musing,
Youth's sweet delight refusing;
Say dainty nymphs and speakers,
Shall we play *Barley-break*?

Centos of Thomas Morley.

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There were two modes of playing at *Barley-break*, and of these one was rather more complex than the other. Mr. Gifford, in a note on the *Virgin Martyr* of Massinger, where this game, in its more elaborate form, is referred to, remarks, that "with respect to the amusement of *Barley-break*, allusions to it occur repeatedly in our old writers; and their commentators have piled one parallel passage upon another, without advancing a single step towards explaining what this celebrated pastime really was. It was played by six people, (three of each sex,) who were coupled by lot. A piece of ground was then chosen, and divided into three compartments, of which the middle one was called *Hell*. It was the object of the couple condemned to this division, to catch the others, who advanced from the two extremities; in which case a change of situation took place. In this 'catching,' however, there was some difficulty, as, by the regulations of the game, the middle couple were not to separate before they had succeeded, while the others might break hands whenever they found themselves hard pressed. When all had been taken in turn, the last couple was said to be in *hell*, and the game ended."

The simpler mode of conducting this pastime, as it was practised in Scotland, has been detailed by Dr. Jamieson, who tells us, that it was "a game generally played by young people in a corn-yard. One stack is fixed on as the *dule*, or goal; and one person is appointed to catch the rest of the company, who run out from the dule. He does not leave it till they are all out of his sight. Then he sets off to catch them. Any one who is taken cannot run out again with his former associates, being accounted a prisoner; but is obliged to assist his captor in pursuing the rest. When all are taken, the game is finished; and he who was first taken, is bound to act as catcher in the next game."

It is evident, from our old poetry, that this style of playing at *Barley-break* was also common in England, and especially among the lower orders in the country. See Dr. Drake's *Shakespeare and His Times*, v. i. p. 308; Gifford's *Massinger*, v. i. p. 104; and Dr. Jamieson's *Dictionary* in v. *Barley-break*.

The modern game of Prisoners'-base is probably a modification of *Barley-break*.

BREAKWATER.

BREAKWATER a term which may be applied to any construction of wood, stone, or other material, the purpose of which is to break or counteract the power of the waters of the ocean at the entrance of any port or harbour. In general, however, such works are designated by the terms jetties, piers, mules or dykes, that of Breakwater being almost entirely restricted to the larger and more important constructions of this description: indeed the Breakwater of Plymouth is, we believe, the only instance of the specific adoption of the term; for although the English frequently speak of the Breakwater of Cherbourg, yet the French use the term *Jetée* for this as for all similar works on their own coasts; and if we sometimes meet with *Battre d'eau* in the treatises of

their engineers, it may be considered as of partial application, and rather as an imitation of our word Breakwater, than as an original French expression.

The great initial work however at this time in progress, and in a course of completion, at Plymouth, is so very generally spoken of under the denomination in question, and is so conspicuous, not only for its magnitude, but for its importance, as well for the excellent arrangements and the skill with which it is conducted, that we do not for a moment hesitate to introduce it as a distinct article in our alphabetical division under its appropriate term; but we shall reserve for the article *PIER*, what it may be found necessary to advance on such constructions in general.

Breakwater of Plymouth. By referring to our chart

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of Plymouth Sound, plate XIX, it will be immediately seen that this noble expanse of water is protected by the hills and rocks on its shores, from the effect of all winds between the north and the south-east on one side, and the north and south-west on the other; at the same time that it is entirely exposed between the two latter points to an open sea, broken by no island or other obstruction; into which with the wind high at any point within those limits, the waves are thrown with an impetuosity truly tremendous; so that the Sound, which with the wind at any point in three quadrants out of four, is the safest and finest on our coast, is in other cases one of the most dangerous. When we consider the immense national importance of the port of Plymouth, and the eligibility of its situation for watching the most considerable of the western naval depôts of France; it is not astonishing that, great as the undertaking might appear, some means should have been long contemplated for rendering this station a safe and commodious harbour under all circumstances of wind and weather. To ascertain the practicability of such a measure, the late Mr. Rennie, and Mr. Whidby, the then master-attendant of Woolwich dockyard, were sent down by an order from the Admiralty in 1806, with directions to examine and report, whether by any, and by what means, a sufficient shelter might be given to insure a safe anchorage for a fleet of ships of the line. The report was favourable, and several propositions were made for carrying the measure into effect; nothing however decisive was adopted for a considerable time; till at length Mr. Yorke presided at the Admiralty, when one of his first measures was to carry into execution this great and important national object. Of the several plans proposed for effecting this desideratum it would be needless to speak; it will be sufficient to describe that which has since been carried on with such unequalled success.

Messrs. Rennie and Whidby proposed that an insular pier or Breakwater should be thrown across the middle entrance into the Sound, having its eastern extremity about sixty fathoms to the eastward of St. Carlos' rock, and its western about 300 fathoms west of the Shovel rocks, and the whole length 1700 yards. Some little deviation from the original plan was afterwards made, but it was very inconsiderable. The mean dimensions, as they are now adopted, are as below.

Length of the principal face A A, fig. 1.	
plate XIX.	1000 yards.
Length of the flanks A B, A C,	350 yards.
Angle of the flanks	139°
Mean depth of water, low, spring tide	35½ feet.
Mean rise of spring tide	17½ feet.
Mean depth of the Breakwater, fig. 2.	56 feet.
Breadth at bottom	290 feet.
Breadth at top	62 feet.
Exterior slope	180 feet.
Interior slope	90 feet.
Number of cubic feet of stone in the whole construction	38,556,000 feet.

The quarries were opened on the 7th of August 1812; the first stone deposited on the 12th of the same month, and on the 31st of March 1815, the Breakwater made its first appearance above the surface of the Sound at low water spring tide.

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Having thus stated the general dimensions of this gigantic construction, we must now attempt some account of the means adopted for carrying the plans into effect. The surrounding shores of the Sound and Catwater were first examined, with a view to determine from what quarter materials were most conveniently to be obtained, as to cheapness, quality, and celerity of conveyance. On the west or Cornish side of the Sound, nothing appears but hard granite; at the head of the Sound and in Catwater, all is marble and limestone. In Catwater alone it was estimated that 30,000,000 tons might be procured in blocks fit for the purpose, a quantity far exceeding what would be required. The time necessary for the completion of the work would obviously depend on a variety of circumstances. If the two sides of the Sound had furnished proper materials for the purpose, the time would have been much abridged, as vessels from one or other shore might have been delivering their cargoes under all circumstances of wind, &c. Catwater, however, having many advantages, especially for the convenience of loading the vessels, and the facilities for procuring blocks from the quarries of any size, was considered, on the whole, as entitled to preference over every other place. Besides, the quarries here being in the neighbourhood of villages, lodgings and conveniences would be afforded to the workmen; and on the whole it was calculated, that the work might be completed from this spot at a cheaper rate, and probably in less time, than from situations nearer to it, but more exposed to the winds and waves. This was accordingly the place fixed upon, and nothing has hitherto occurred to impugn the propriety of the choice.

The next subject for consideration was the best means of removing the stones from the quarries to the vessels, and the mode of depositing them in their proper places in the proposed line of the construction.

The hills from which the marble is extracted, are continuous to the very shores of the Plym, and here in the first instance quays were built for the purposes of embarkation, in which many vessels might be loading at the same time. This being done, the work commenced by uncovering the hills from the soil and vegetable earth found above the stone, and then working the rock in vertical sections from above downwards. The soil that is removed, together with the useless fragments of the rock proceeding from the excavation, is collected and formed into an artificial mound, by the side of that which is gradually disappearing; and by means of flying bridges on chains or cables, the new formed hill is connected with the primitive one, and over it, in wheel barrows, the soil is perpetually transmitted from the latter to the former.

The working of the mine differs very little from the common practice, and is of course so much more easily conducted when the natural strata are vertical; and with more difficulty as they approach to horizontality, both positions being found in these hills as in some other cases. The larger blocks when extracted are reserved for the exterior and upper parts of the Breakwater, and are generally derived from the vertical beds.

At the foot of the hills are arranged a line of very simple cranes, which are easily transferable from place to place, and which are employed in removing the large blocks as they are thrown down, and in raising

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them upon the trucks, by which they are conveyed to the water side on iron rail-ways; whence they are embarked on board vessels constructed for the purpose. The peculiarity in the form and appointments of these barges is shown in plate XX.; fig. 1, exhibits the stern of the vessel in the act of depositing the stones. The runner T, being hooked to the fore part of the truck, raises it up, and by that means tips the stone overboard. When the stone is being drawn up out of the hold on the inclined plane B, (fig. 3.) the runner is hooked to the fore part of the truck, and lashed down to the after end over the stone, which prevents the latter from sliding off the truck in its progress up the inclined plane. The empty trucks are for the most part lodged on the fore part of the deck, and some are placed on their edges along the side of the vessel. Fig. 9. shows the stern of the vessel when laden, with its ports up or closed. Fig. 3. is a longitudinal or sheer section of the vessel when loaded, with the trucks on one side of the hold or deck, showing the number which the vessel usually stows on each side; but the stones being frequently longer than the trucks, the number carried in the hold must be proportioned accordingly. A transverse section of the vessel is given in fig. 4.

In bad weather it is unsafe to send many trucks at a time on deck, and in general not more than four are sent into the Sound in that situation; but in the hold the same precautions are not necessary, and commonly from forty to fifty tons weight are conveyed at a time from the shore to the Sound, and are unloaded in forty minutes. The stones vary in magnitude from one to eight tons; and only one single block we believe was ever deposited of the latter magnitude.

The after part of the deck, under the tiller, is divided into two parts lengthwise, and made to move up and down; the fore part is secured to a beam by hinges. This moveable deck, when raised, as shown at Z, in the figure, allows the stone to come out of the hold, and when down, as at A, serves to convey the empty truck from the port to the deck; F is a common windlass for heaving the trucks out of the hold up the inclined plane; E shows the hinges of the tipping plane. In forming the outer and upper faces of the Breakwater, above the low water line, a different method of unloading is adopted: to this height the stones are thrown down at random, within their proper line of range, to form the basis of the construction; but having reached the low water line, they are deposited with more care; the unloading, or at least the adjustment of the large blocks employed for that part, is then effected, by means of a purchase formed of two long masts, very similar to the contrivance for masting vessels. The raising of the stones is carried into effect by the purchases, &c. on board, while the position of the vessel is directed by means of a cable and post on the Breakwater, to its proper situation. The block being once suspended, the superintendent directs the place for its deposit, selecting an interstice between other stones, so as to give it the most solid and perfect union with the general mass, but no cement of any kind is employed. On the side next the ocean, the stones are left with all their angles and asperities to break and divide the power of the water, but on the upper surface, and on the interior slope, these asperities are removed with the chisel, and the two faces reduced to pretty regular planes. In the

centre of the Breakwater, inside, are two flights of steps for the convenience of landing; and along the upper platform are left projecting, large formed blocks of stone, to which vessels may obtain purchases, make fast, &c.

Ten vessels of the construction represented in the plates for carrying large masses of stone, built in the King's yards, and forty-three hired by contract, averaging about fifty tons each, are employed in conveying stone from the quarries. The contractors vessels are not of the form of those in the immediate pay of Government; they carry stones of less weight, which are hoisted out of the hold by a chain and windlass, and thrown overboard. A load of fifty tons is discharged from one of these vessels in about three hours, whereas from those above described a greater load is discharged in about forty minutes. By means of these vessels, (which are gauged with a scale attached to them to show the amount of their cargo by their immersion;) there were discharged:

	Tons.
In 1812	16,045
1813	71,198
1814	239,460
1815	264,307
1816 to August 12	206,038

At which time the total quantity of stone sunk, amounted to 896,963 tons; we have not been able to obtain an account of the quantity of stone deposited since the year last stated, but the work has been continued with great spirit, but the annual deposits have certainly been less than in 1815.

Of the quantity above stated, the proportion of the different sizes of the blocks was as follow:

Of one ton each stone, and under	423,904
one to three tons each	309,706
three to five tons each	150,593
five tons, and upwards	12,760

The original price for quarrying the stone was 2s. 9d. per ton, and the original contract price for conveying it to the Breakwater, 2s. 10d. per ton, since which the former has been reduced to 2s. 5d., and the latter to 1s. 10d. per ton. The cost of each ton of stone sunk in the Breakwater, including the hoisting of quays, purchase of land, salaries, and every other expense, according to the nearest calculation that can be made, amounts to about 8s. 1½d., which, upon the whole quantity deposited, makes the total sum expended up to the 12th of August 1818, £264,000.; and as the work was at that period more than half completed, there is every reason to expect, that it will be done considerably within the first estimate, which was given at £1,051,300.

The greatest quantity of stone sunk in any one week, was 15,379 tons; and the part of the Breakwater at the above-mentioned time, above the level of low water, spring tides, was, in length 1100 yards; the length completely finished to the height of three feet above the level of high water, spring tides, was at the same time 360 feet. But at the present moment, the whole quantity above the low water line is completed; and the part completely finished is 1159 yards.

The small establishment, and the expeditious manner in which this great work has been carried on, forms a remarkable contrast with the number of persons, and

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parade with which the similar undertaking at Cherbourg has been conducted. It appears from the comparison drawn by M. Dupin, that three persons at Plymouth, arrange under more disadvantageous circumstances, as many tons in a given time as four at Cherbourg; for in 1819, there were employed at Cherbourg, 1075 individuals; and the number of tons of stone sunk in the year, was 321,454; number of tons per man, in the year, 299.

At Plymouth, in 1815, the number of persons was only 675; the number of tons sunk in the year, was 264,207, or 391 tons per man.

The 675 persons employed, may be thus classed:

	No. of persons.
A superintendent, with proper officers and clerks, to keep and control the accounts	10
Warrant officers and masters of the ten stone ves- sels in the immediate employ of the public ..	81
Seamen and boys to navigate ditto	90
Seamen employed on board superintendents ves- sels, the light vessels and boats crews	45
Masons, blacksmiths, carpenters, sail-makers, labourers, &c. employed at the quarries	39
Total in the immediate pay of Government ..	205
Seamen employed in contractors vessels	170
Quarrymen, labourers, &c. employed at the quarries	300
Total establishment	675

M. Dupin, who in various parts of his work on England, has spoken of the order and discipline which are observable in all our public establishments, makes the following remarks on the particular operations of the work in question.

"One loves," says he, "to contemplate the order, regularity and activity, which reign through all the operations we have been describing: the embarking and disembarking of the materials, the working and placing of the enormous blocks which form the upper part of the Breakwater; the difficulties conquered by the dexterity and ingenuity of the workmen; the transport of the blocks, and above all their extraction from the quarries. When we visit the workshops of the artificers, and the operations of the quarrymen, it is admirable to observe man, so weak and so feeble, manage at his will the enormous masses he has detached from their beds, in order to precipitate them into the ocean, to form other hills. The roads formed in the air for the transport of the useless earth and broken fragments; the lines of cranes and their combined labour; the movements of the carriages; the arrival, the loading and the departure of the vessels: the system of these varied operations, present to the eye of an admirer of great works and of the mechanical arts, one of the most pleasing and imposing spectacles it is possible to contemplate. At certain hours the sound of a bell announces the explosion of the mines, which is about to follow. The labours cease in an instant, solitude and silence reign in every part; and this death-like silence is rendered still more imposing by the explosion of the powder, the rending of the rocks, the falls of the masses, and the prolonged sound of the echoes. It is gratifying to see men thus contending with nature, levelling her hills, and conveying

them into the sea, to intercept and destroy the power of the waves of the ocean; and thus preparing a vast and commodious harbour in a bay, which storms and tempests rendered formerly so dangerous; and the admiration we experience, in contemplating this great enterprise, is redoubled by the idea of the rapidity with which it is carried towards its completion; this admiration is equally due to the liberal and enlightened spirit of the Government, which knows well the advantage of making a prompt and great expenditure, to obtain quickly an important and permanent national object; and to the skill and ingenuity of those men, who by the most simple means, have found the way of overcoming the greatest difficulties." The result of this great work has completely answered the expectation of its warmest advocates. The good effects of it were, indeed, very sensibly felt at the end of the second year, when about 1500 yards of the central part, where the water was shallowest, were visible at low water spring tides. The swell was then so much broken down and destroyed at the head of the Sound, that the fishermen were no longer able, as formerly, to judge of the weather outside of the Sound; and ships of all sizes, and amongst others, a large French three-decker, ran in with confidence, and anchored behind the Breakwater; since which time near 200 sail of vessels, of all descriptions, driven in by tempestuous weather, have at one time found safe shelter within this insulated mole, where a fleet of twenty-five or thirty sail of the line may, always, find a secure and convenient anchorage, with the additional advantage of a supply of water of excellent quality, from a reservoir constructed above Bouvins bay, capable of containing from ten to twelve thousand tons, or a quantity sufficient to water fifty sail of the line. This water is brought down in iron pipes to Stoddon Point, opposite to the anchorage, where a jetty is to be built, from which the water will descend through pipes into the ships boats. The whole expense of this useful appendage to the Breakwater is calculated at about £16,000. sterling.

In 1816 and 1817, the winds were more heavy and tremendous than had been known for many years; and on the night of the 19th of January, such a hurricane came on as had not been remembered by the oldest inhabitant. The waves rose six feet higher than the usual height of spring tides. The *Jasper* sloop of war, and the *Telegraph* schooner, being at anchor without the cover of the Breakwater were driven to the head of the Sound and both lost; while a collier heavily laden, and under its cover, rode out the gale. No damage was sustained by any of the vessels in Catwater; but it was the general opinion, from former experience, that if no Breakwater had existed, the whole of the ships there must have been wrecked; and the storehouses and magazines on the viennalling premises, and most of the buildings on the margin of the sea, been entirely swept away. Till this tremendous gale, the Breakwater had not sustained the slightest damage, from the heavy seas, that throughout that winter had broken against it with unusual violence, not a single stone having been moved from the place where it had been originally deposited; but after the hurricane above-mentioned, and the high tide which accompanied it, it was found that the upper stratum of the finished part, extending for about 800 yards, and thirty yards in width had given way, and

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been displaced; the whole of the huge stones, from two to five tons in weight each, having been carried over and deposited on the northern slope of the Break-water. In no other part could it be discovered that any damage had been suffered; it has now resisted

the effect of seven other winters, and it still remains, and, there is no doubt, will for ages remain a monument of the arts, worthy of the nation by which it has been constructed.

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BREATHE

BREAM, in Zoology, the common name of the *Cyprinus Brama*.

BREAM, to Bream a vessel in Nautical language, is to cleanse the bottom by burning fuzee, &c. under it.

BREAST, *s.* Goth. *brusta*; A. S. *bræst*; D.

BREAST, *s.* Goth. *brusta*; A. S. *bræst*; D.

BREASTPLATE, *s.* Goth. *brusta*; A. S. *bræst*; D.

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Meaner time I wish a good remembrance, that these deep-breasted

Of Illos and Dardania may, for the tragical flames

Of their friends lives, with both their hands, wipe miserable

scars

From their so curiously, Lopt cheeks.

Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book xviii, fol. 256.

Behold the threaten'd sails,

Borne with th' insidious and creeping wind,

Draw the huge bottomless through the furrow'd sea,

Breasting the hoarse surge.

Shakespeare. Henry V. fol. 77.

Give sentence on this execrable wretch,

That hath been: breeder of these dire events.

Id. Titus Andronicus, fol. 52.

Thence for my voice, I must (no choice)

Away of force, like posting hours,

For sundry men had placards then

Such child to take.

The better best, the lesser rest,

To serve the queen, now there new here,

For time so spent, I may repeat,

And sorrow make.

Taylor in Rivin's Romances, v. l. p. xciv.

The hide of his [the snuff] back is so tough and hard that

thereof they make breast-plates.

Holland. Plinie, fol. 213.

And as a lynx stalking all in night,

Farre off in pastures; and come home, all right

in lawes and breast-locks, with an oxen blood,

New fasted on him.

Chapman. Homer's Odyssey, book xiii, fol. 344.

Whether it be heretical, or not, this difference in the Military

or Civil List, but I have ever understood the fact to be, that the

close minister is buttoned up, and the brave officer open-breasted

on these occasions.

Spectator, No. 193.

But if we offend our consciences, by doing contrary to the

clear dictate and conviction of them, we make the unhappy

breach in the world; we stir up a quarrel in our own breasts,

and arms our minds against ourselves.

Titlake. Sermon xxxix.

The censor, finding some reasons to suspect (by the sturdiness

of their behaviour) that they were not so very brave as they

would have the court believe them, ordered them both to be

searched by the grand jury, who found a breast-plate upon the one,

and two quires of paper upon the other.

Trotter, No. 265.

Our ladies have still faces, and our men hearts, why may we

not hope for the same achievements from the influence of this

breast-plate.

Adams. Frodothier.

Patience here,

Her meek hands folded on her modest breast,

In mute submission lifts th' adoring eye,

Ev'n to the storm that wrecks her.

Mason. Corseticus.

Faith's shield, salvation's glory—compass'd helm

With fortitude assume, and o'er your heart

Fair truth's invaluable breast-plate spread!

Smart. The goodness of the Supreme Being.

BREATHE, *v.* A. S. *breæthe*, *breth*. The etymology of this word is lost.

To breathe is to draw in or

drive out the air by the action

of the lungs; to inspire or

inhale, to expire or exhale.

Also,

To send forth or emit, to eject,

to utter, as, an odour, a perfume, a vow, a prayer.

B R E

BREATHE To breathe is also to take breath; to give breath; to put or keep the lungs in wholesome breathing; either by ceasing from too violent action; or by taking well regulated exercise.

The Lords God shops man, even of this mould of the earth, & breathed into his face the breath of life.

Bible, 1551. Genesis, ch. ii.

Behold how greivous and bitter it is for 3 or 4 yeares continuall, & then after, how God remitteth it for as long a season againe to give vs a plaine for a lytle season to rest vs, even as it were the halcyon dayes to suffer his chirche to breathe a while; that she may be the stronger against the next storme & brail followinge.

J. Jay. Reposition of Daniel, ch. xii. p. 243.

When Zephirus she with his note breathe
Expir'd hath in every bolt and betho
The tendre croppes, and the yonge soane
Hath in the ram his halfe coore groone.

Chaucer. The Prologue, v. b.

Therefore farewell, my life, my death,
My paine, my losse, my salve, my cure
Farewell also, with all my breath,
For I am gone for evermore.

Wyatt. The Lover suspected of Change.

For he ghyueth lyf to alle meo, and breathynge and alle thingis, and made of oon al the kynde of meo to inhabite on el the face of the earth.

Wiclif. The Dilect of Agostine, ch. xvii.

Seyng by him selfe growth lyfe and breath to all men every where, and hath made of one bloods all aspyrnes of meane for to dwell on all the face of the earth.

Bible, 1551.

The simple Dactyle, striving to out-go

The drawing Spendee, sucking it below

The lingering Spendee, labouring to delay

The breathless Dactyle, with a sudden stay.

Hall. Satire, 6. book i.

Every man made hym redy and lased on his harness, and gyrted their horses, and set themselves in good aray together, and rode forth an easy pace to kepe their horses well breathed.

Froissart. Chronycle, v. li. C. 136.

When first the post arrived at my tent,

And brought the letters Rosamond had sent,

Thick from his lips but what dear comfort came,

When to mine eare he softly breath'd thy name.

Dryden. Henry to Rosamond.

Yet reason dares her no,

For my authority beares of a credent bulke,

That no particular credulitie can touch

But it confounds the breather

Shakespeare. Measure for Measure, fol. 79.

Now this whole sea, Pontus, is all the circuit thereof flowing round about, is both cloudy and greeter also than other sea, yea and full of shallows, for that the ayre thickened oftentimes with the breathing up and elevation of moist vapours, congregate.

Holland. Amianus, fol. 201.

For they for naught would from their work refrain,

Ne let his speeches come vnto their eare,

And eke the breathfall bellows blew amaine

Like to the northern wind, that none could keare.

Spenser. Faerie Queene, book iv. can. 5. st. 38.

And Hector came, where (seeing how blood was spilt)
Andromache might see him come, who made as he would passe
The porta without saluting her, not knowing where she was:
She with his sight made breathless came to meet him.

Chapman. Homer's Iliad, book vi. fol. 92.

He thinks I heare the soldiers and busie officers when they were raising that other weighty stone (for such we probably conceive) to the mouth of the vault with much toyle and sweat, and breathlessness, how they breath'd of the sureness of the place, and unremovableness of that load.

Hall. Cont. The Resurrection.

The divine Socrates is here represented in a figure worthy his great wisdom and philosophy, worthy the greatest man that ever breath'd.

Spectator, No. 146.

What is this mighty breath, ye sages, say,
That in a powerful language, felt, not heard,
Instructs the fowls of heaven, and through their breast
These arts of love diffuse? What but God?

Thomson. Spring.

Let us then begin heaven here, in the frame and temper of our minds, in our heavenly affections and conversation; is a due preparation for, and in earnest desires and breathings after that blessed state which we firmly believe and assuredly hope to be one day possessed of.

Tulinius. Sermon xix.

I feel the gales that from ye blow,
A momentary bliss bestow,
As, waving from their gladness wing,
My weary soul they seem to soothe,
And redolent of joy and youth
To breathe a second spring.

Gray. On a Distant Prospect of Eton College.

He rained himself up, with the assistance of two of his servants, and instantly fell down dead; suffocated, I conjecture, by some gross and noxious vapour, as always having weak lungs, and being frequently subject to a difficulty of breathing.

Melmoth. Play, letter 16. book vi.

Perhaps a friend, a father's dead,
Or the lov'd partner of thy bed!
Perhaps thy only son lies there,
Breathless upon the sable bier.

Cowper. The Estimate of Life.

He ought, says this great political doctor, (Machiavel) to consider peace only as a breathing-time, which gives him leisure to contrive, and furnishes ability to execute military plans.

Barbe. A Fintinction of Natural Society.

BRECCIA, a term used by statuarys and masons to denote all those varieties of marble which are composed of angular fragments conglutinated by calcareous spar.

BRECHIN, a town of Scotland, in the county of Forfar, situated on the declivity of a hill, which rises from the north bank of the river Esk, about eighty-four miles north of Edinborough. It is one of the Royal burghs of Scotland, and unites with Aberdeen, Montrose, and some other places in sending one Member to the Imperial Parliamēt of Great Britain. Here are some manufactures of licoe, sail-cloth, and a few other articles, but not to any great extent. Brechin is, indeed, more noted for its ancient fame, than for its present importance. The number of inhabitants in the parish at the late census, was 5906. It is an old town, and is supposed to have originally risen, like many others, in the vicinity of a convent which had been erected near its present site. The Culdees, respecting whom so little that is satisfactory can now be ascertained, are said to have had a convent here, which is supposed to have been succeeded by one of Friars. About the middle of the twelfth century a Bishop's See was founded here, and endowed by David I., and some remains of its ancient cathedral still exist. Though this edifice, with many others of the same kind, suffered from the mistakes zeal of the reformers of the sixteenth century, a part of it which was left was afterwards converted into a place for public worship, and has a fine square tower of ancient workmanship. Near this church there is also one of those old round towers common in Ireland, but of which there are only two on the north side of the Tweed. It is about sixteen feet in diameter at the base, and tapers gradually to the top, which exceeds 100 feet from the ground. It was formerly used as a belfrey, but the bells have been removed to make room for a new town clock, which

BRECHIN, has been substituted in their stead. There was likewise a strong castle situated on the south side of the tower, which is reported to have stood some memorable sieges during the middle ages.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE, or **Bawcon**, a county of South Wales, bordering upon England, bounded on the south by Glamorganshire, and on the north by Radnorshire, from which it is separated by the river Wye. All the other boundaries are purely artificial. Its extent from north to south is about thirty miles, and the breadth of its southern base a little greater. The whole area is stated at 754 square miles, more than half of which is incapable of cultivation, being covered with rugged mountains. Its population is, therefore, confined to certain districts, and is fewer in proportion to the extent of surface than the general average for the principality. At the last census it amounted to 43,613, or about fifty-eight persons for each square mile, while the general average was eighty-eight.

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Surface, Brecknockshire is a rugged and mountainous county, and some of the hills are of considerable height. That called Brecco Beacon, which is perhaps the most elevated summit, rises 2862 feet above the sea; the Cradle Mountain is 2545 feet high, and Dreggan, near Bwlth, 2071. The ridges of hills which separate this county from most of the adjoining districts, shelter the lower regions, so as to render the climate, except in the most elevated districts, mild and agreeable: less rain also falls in this county than in some other districts nearer the sea; for, from a register kept at Bwlth, in 1802, it appears the quantity in that year was only 26½ inches. The variety of surface also gives rise to a corresponding diversity of soil. In many of the higher regions it is thin and poor; on the sides of the hills it is argillaceous; in most of the valleys it is a light loam, upon a substratum of deep gravel. In some places, particularly in the vale of the Uske, it is too porous to retain the moisture requisite for producing its maximum fertility. The beautiful river Wye merely reaches the northern borders of this county for about thirty-three miles; but the Uske flows through a great part of it, winding through a fine valley, from the western confines, near Caermarthenshire, to the south-east extremity, passing the town of Brecon in its course. Some other small rivers also fall into these two. A short distance east of this town there is a lake of five or six miles in circuit, called Brecon Mere, which, as well as the rivers, is well stocked with fish. The Brecon canal was completed from that town to Llanelly, in 1800, near the southern point of the county, and is about eighteen miles long, and adapted to the navigation of barges of twenty-five tons burthen. It then enters Monmouthshire, and joins the Monmouth canal at a short distance from Pontpool, the whole length being thirty-three miles.

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Agriculture and products, The lower parts of this county are reckoned among the best cultivated districts in Wales; and the improvement of agriculture appears to have been an object of attention here, earlier than in most other counties of the principality; for the Brecknockshire Agricultural Society was instituted as early as 1775. These improvements, however, have been chiefly restricted to the vales and the other tracts of the best soil; and good crops of wheat, barley, turneps, and clover, are often obtained in rotation in the vale of the Uske and other favourable situations. In those

the farms seldom exceed 150 or 200 acres, and the rents are comparatively high. But on most of the elevated tracts both the farmers and the land are too poor to allow of much improvement being attempted, and time has therefore effected but little change. Many of these upland districts abound in copper, lead, and iron. Coal and limestone are likewise plentiful in many parts of the county. The iron-works established at Llanelly produce 90 or 100 tons a week, which with agriculture, and the manufacture of a few woollen cloths form the principal sources of industry in the county. Besides these, the other exports are chiefly cattle, sheep, worsted stockings, pigs, butter, and cheese. The only imports are colonial produce, with a few other articles of ordinary consumption. Brecknockshire is divided into six hundreds, and contains four market towns, which are Brecknock, or Brecon, Bwlth, Crickhowel, and Hay. It returns two Members to Parliament, one for the county, and another for the principal town.

BRECKNOCK, or **Bancow**, the Capital of the preceding county, is an ancient town situated at the junction of the Hondey with the Uske, and called by the Welch *Aber Hondey*. Most of the streets are irregular, and the houses indifferent. It was formerly defended by a castle and walls, which were built by Bernard de Newmarsh, a favourite of William Rufus. The castle was destroyed during the Protectorship, and only a part of the walls and one of its towers are now standing. The inhabitants, at the late enumeration, amounted to 4193. It is the only borough in the county. Distance from London 168 miles.

BREDA, a large fortified town in the Netherlands, situated in the Dutch Biscuit, and the Capital of a Lordship of the same name. Its position near the conflux of the rivers Aa and Merck gives it an easy communication with the sea, and has contributed to the increase of its opulence and commercial importance. The town itself contains little that distinguishes it from other Dutch towns. Various manufactures were formerly carried on here, but these are now chiefly reduced to stockings, carpets, hats, and breweries. The population is about 10,000 or 11,000, and the principal building is the great church, which is an elegant structure, noted for its high spire, and the numerous monuments of the ancient Lords of Breda. The situation and position of Breda make it a strong place, and have rendered it conspicuous in the history of the country. Its shape is triangular, with a gate at each corner. As it stands in the midst of a marsh, the surrounding country can easily be laid under water by sluices connected with the Merck. William, Prince of Orange, afterwards King of England, built a strong castle for its defence. At the commencement of the struggle between Holland and Spain, the Lordship of Breda belonged to the house of Nassau-Orange, but was afterwards seized by the Duke of Alva. In 1577, this town and garrison was given up to the States General, but was wrested from them again in 1581. It was also at this place, that Prince Maurice of Nassau, in May 1590, commenced that series of brilliant operations which terminated in the emancipation of Holland from the Spanish yoke. A party of chosen men were conveyed into the town in a boat loaded with turf; by these the besiegers were admitted, and the town was taken in consequence. Breda was retaken by the Spanish troops in 1625, but finally

BRECKNOCKSHIRE,
BREDA.

Minerals.

Manufactures and trade.

BREDA. surrendered to the Dutch in 1637. A Congress was held at Breda in 1667, when treaties of peace were concluded between Charles II. of England on the one side, and Louis XIV. of France, Frederick III. of Denmark and the States General, on the other. The French took Breda in February 1735, but gave it up the following April. It was again invested by them during the next year, but resisted all the power of the besiegers till the general conquest of Holland rendered all further opposition unavailing. Breda was the place in which Charles II. resided when he was recalled to the throne of England. Lat. 51° 35' N. and long. 4° 47' E.

BREDE. see **BRAID**.

BRECH. *v.* } The noun is the past participle of
BRECH. *n.* } the verb, *brechen*, to break; and the
BRECHEN. *n.* } verb is formed upon the noun.

BRECHING. *n.* } The *brech* is the part where the body is broken into two. And the *brecher* that which covers the part so broken. Tooke, ii. 251. See also Skianer, and the observation quoted from Wichter under the word **BREAST**.

To *brech* is to put on the breeches; also to beat or whip the *brech*.

As *brech* is applied to the hinder part generally, so *brecking* to that which covers it.

So longe yt (sc. the water) was an key,
Yet yt wate hys (Caute's) leges all aboute, & euer ypard yt stele.
R. Gloucester, p. 322.

Thou woldst make me kisse thin old *brech*,
And sweere I was a relike of a scholr.

Chaucer. The Pardoner's Tale, v. 12682.

The cause (say sower) consisteth in the locke,
Some other ludge, because they be so Locke,
Reinforced well, and *breched* like a brooke,
Stiffe, straight, and stom, which though they be not long,
Yet spit they forth their pellets such a pace,
And with such force, as seems a wooddrous case.

Gaucigne. The Fruite of Fetter.

Frased as I more than lured—let me be feared;
And when I frowne, make all the court look pale,
I view the prince with Aristarchus' eyes,
Whose looks were as a *breaching* to a bay.

Maria. Edward III.

As Gannet Gurtos, with many a wyde myche,
Sat poying and patching of Hodge her man's bricke,
By chance or misfortune, as shee her greave toot,
In Hodge letter *breche* her needle shee lost.

Gannet Gurtos's Needle. Prologue.

To-day to *cherche* y wold have gon,
But me fawnde herto and schon,
Cleerly *brech* and scherte.

Launfel, part 1. in Rime's Remembrance.

So to her midnight-freets the hag
Hides on a broomstick for a nag;
That raid'd by magic of her *brech*,
O'er sea and land conveys the witch.

Swift. The Magician's Rod.

From Sappho down through all succeeding ages,
And now on French or on Italian stages,
Rough satire, sly remarks, ill-natur'd speeches
Are always sin'd at poets that wear *breches*.

Faris. Epilogue to Mrs. Manly's Lucius.

Time was, when clothing rumpous or for use,
Saw their own painted skins, our styes had more.
As yet black *breches* were not, satin smooth
Or velvet soft, or plush with shaggy pile.

Copper. Task, book 1.

There was one who actually died in a stall that I had left,
worth seven pounds seven shillings, and all in hard gold, which
he had quitted into the waistband of his *breches*.

Goldsmith. Citizens of the World, let. 64.

BRECHEN-FLOWER, a name given to the *Fumaria* **BRECH.**
Cucullaria.

BREED. *v.* } A. S. *brædan*; Dutch, *broeden*; Ger. **BREED.**
brüten, to nourish, to cherish; sc. **BREED.**
brædwa, the fetus in the womb; and then,
bræwino, to produce, to bear young, to be
bræwate, pregnant.

To nourish or cherish, sc. children, the minds of children, to bring them up, to train, to educate. And generally

To produce or bring forth; to cause to be or to exist.

A man of *breeding* is (elliptically) a man of good breeding; well bred, well trained, well educated; (sc.) in good society.

For in such wise as maries
Length for scarvesome his good same;
Right so that other is to blame,
Which through his waste mure care-leth,
For no man wote what harme it breedeth.
Gower. Conf. Am. book v. fol. 127.

I fall and see mine own decay,
As one that beares flame in his breast;
Forgets in paine to put away,
The things that breedish mine unrest.
Barrey. The Lover describes his restless state.

But here because of their voluptuous sensual living, he used
no familiaritie with euenness among them: (whiche
familiaritie hath euenness been a leueller of rankes, & hath
used to make mince authoritie the less regarded.)
Clark. Locke, ch. III.

To let them die upon their march abroad
And fowls upon their excreme to feed,
This begets of them upon the common road
And great infection likly were to breed.
For our own safeties see them then bedroved
Drayton. The Battle of Agincourt.

Towards the end of the yeere a quarrill of certaine coasles
burst forth, which had been long time a *breeding*.
Greneway. Tacitus, fol. 119.

In brief, must it not follow necessarily that the earth, which
is the mother and *breeder* of men, of living creatures and all
plants, shall perish and be wholly extinct.
Holland. Plutarch, fol. 943.

In the spring following, he (Thomas Churchyard) contrary to
his former resolutions, went to the wars againe, (in Flanders as it
seems): had a command there, was wounded and taken prisoner;
but shewing himself a person of bravery and *breeding*, was
respected and well used by the enemy.
Wood. Athenæ Oxon. fol. 318.

An honest, willing, kinde fellow, as every servant shall come in
house withall: and I warrant you no tell-tale, nor no *breediate*,
his worst fault is that he is giuen to prayer.
Shakespeare. Merry Wives of Windsor, fol. 42.

He is a clergyman, a very philosophical man, of general
learning, great sanctity of life, and the most exact good *breeding*.
Spectator, No. 2.

It is certain that an unknown heap of trifles and impertinencies
have been intersugled with these useful parts of *breeding*, upon
which account many persons in this polite age have made it a
part of their *breeding* to throw a jest upon them.

Watts. Improvement of the Mind.

When we observe men *lead up* in arms repeatedly spoken of
in Scripture in such strong terms of commendation as those who
have mentioned, we are authorized to conclude that the profession
they are engaged in is not, as a mistake sect of Christians
amongst us profess to think, an unlawful.

Ferron. Lecture hall.

BREED. There was a time, indeed, when his family decried their title; but they are long since degenerated, and his ancestors for more than a century have been more and more solicitous to keep up the breed of their dogs and horses, than that of their children.
Goldsmith. Citizens of the World, ch. 31.

I shall also be bold enough to affirm, that among the ancients, there was not much delicacy of breeding, or that polite deference and respect, which civility obliges us either to express or counterfeit towards the persons with whom we converse.
Heine. Essay, The Rise of Arts and Sciences, 14.

I cannot deny, but that on this occasion there was displayed a great deal of good breeding, which consists in the accommodation of the entertainment to the relish of the guest.
Burke. Letter to Thomas Burgh, Esq.

BREESE, or } A. S. *brisa*, *brisan*; Ger. *brems*,
BRIZE. } *brama*; *brama*, *brama*, *brama*.
Wachter thinks from the Ger. *bramen*, *pungere*, to pierce, to prick; A. S. *bræmann*.

Till that a *brize*, a scorned little creature,
Through his fair side his angry sting did threaten,
And yet so soon, that all his goodly feature,
And all his piteous pester sought him pleased:
So by the small the great is oft deuced.
Spenser. Faerie Queene, V. li.

—You thousand nages of Egypt
(Whom leprosy o'er take) I'll midst o'er't fight,
When vengeance like a pyre of twines appear'd
Both as the same, or rather cure the eldier;
(The *brize* upon her) like a cow in June,
Hoists sails, and flies.
Shakespeare. Antony and Cleopatra, fol. 355.

Having thus disfigur'd and made men beneath men, as Juno in the fable of Io, they deliver up the poor transform'd being of the commonwealth to be stung and vexed with the *brize* and good of oppression, under the custody of some Argus with a hundred eyes of jealousy.
Milton. Of Reformation, &c.

BREEZE, } Anciently written *brize*, and per-
BRIZY, } haps derived immediately from the
BRIZZELESS. } Fr. *brizer*, to burst, break, or rush forth. Applied to

A wind that rises or breaks forth suddenly.

All necessary causes of our staying longer in this place being at last finished, our General prepared to be in a readiness, to take the first advantage of the coming of a *brize* of wind which we expected.
Sir Francis Drake. The World Encircled.

By sea if any man invade to the eastward, those to the west cannot in many months turne about the *brize* and eastern wind.
Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Sir Walter Raleigh, v. iii. fol. 661.

Sea *brizes* commonly rise in the morning about nine o'clock. They first approach the shore so gently, as if they were afraid to come near it, and oft-times they make some faint breathings, and as if not willing to offend, they make a halt, and seem ready to retire. It comes in a fine, small, black curl upon the water, whereas all the sea between it and the shore (not yet reached by it) is as smooth and even as glass in comparison.

Dampier. Voyages, v. li. part iii. ch. iv.

The Orinoco was now swells most dreadfully, so that it was impossible for him to return by the way he enter'd, for the river of Amara could not be sailed back by any means, the *brize* and current of the sea were so outrageous.

Odys. Life of Raleigh.

As soon as ever I pronounce—Plunder your fans,—the place is filled with so many Zephyrs, and gentle *brizes* as are very refreshing in that season of the year, though they might be dangerous to ladies of a tender constitution in any other.

Spectator, No. 102.

Ye nightingales, ye twisting vines!

Ye cravins that hang the grove!

Ye gentle echoes, breezy winds!

Ye close retreats of love.

Parnell. Song, Love and Innocence.

While they thus formed a little concert, my wife and I would stroll down the sloping field that was embellished with blue bells and centaury, talk of our children with rapture, and enjoy the breeze that wafted both health and harmony.
Goldsmith. Vicar of Wakefield, ch. v.

But now 't is o'er, the dear delusion's o'er!

A stagnant *brize*less air becalms my soul!

A fond aspiring candidate no more,

I scorn the palm before I reach the goal.

Shelton. Elegy to Mr. Jago.

Thou oft art seen at early dawn,

Slow-pacing o'er the breezy lawn.

Mallet. A Fragment.

BREGENTZ, a district and town of Germany, in Sussia, near the lake of Constance, belonging to the house of Austria. This tract lies at the eastern extremity of the lake; and according to M. Hassel's *Statistics*, contained in 1808, more than 84,000 inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in agriculture, the principal exports being cattle and timber. Near the southern part of the circle of Bregenz there is a noted pass into Italy, called Bregenz-Clausen. The town stands near the margin of the lake, and is defended by a castle, called Füssenberg, situated on an adjacent height. It is a few miles south of Lindau, and was for some time in the possession of Bavaria, previously to the late general peace. Population about 3000. Bregenz is also the name of a rapid river of this district, which flows into the lake a little south of the town, and sometimes gives to this part of the lake the name of Bregenzersee.

BREHON, an ancient magistrate among the Irish. The term is probably derived from *Verborgetus*, a similar magistrate among the Gallic *Adui*, *qui summo magistratus praeerat quem Verborgetum appellant Adui, qui creator annus, et vita necque in sua habet potestatem.* (Cæsar de bell. Gall. l. 16.) In Ireland the office appears to have been hereditary in particular families, for whose maintenance lands were assigned. Each tribe possessed one Brehon, whose judgments were given on a hill-top in the open air. Many spots are remaining which still bear the name of Brehon chairs. In the time of Edward III. these Brehons were solemnly abolished by the Lieutenant, Lionel Duke of Clarence; but the rude statn of the country enabled many districts still to adhere to them. Spenser, in his *View of the state of Ireland*, mentions that their laws were unwritten and delivered down by tradition from one to another. He stigmatizes them as most wicked institutions, which compounded murder by bribery. Sir John Davies, the Attorney General of Ireland in the reign of James I. mentions in his *Tracts*, that in 1606 the chief Brehon of Monaghan produced before him a roll in the Irish character, for the preservation of which he expressed great anxiety, containing portions of their law; and several fragments of this law are extant in public and private libraries. In the *Collectanea de rebus Hibernicis*, General Vallancey has published some translations from them. The time of their composition is involved in great doubt. From the mention of Pagans and Christians, a date anterior to the general establishment of Christianity has sometimes been assigned to them without sufficient reason; for the northern invaders of the ninth and tenth centuries were generally termed Pagans. The subject is one of much curiosity but of great obscurity; and the reader may be referred for almost all that is known upon it to Ledwich's *Antiquities of Ireland*.

BRIR-
ACH.
BREMEN.

BREIRACH, a mountain of Scotland, in the south-west extremity of Aberdeenshire, on the borders of Inverness. Here are six springs, about 4000 feet above the level of the sea, called the wells of Dee, which unite and form a copious stream, that after falling over a precipice forms that river. The height of the highest summit is stated at 4290 feet.

BREME, } A. S. *breman*, *furere*, *fremer*. *Writ-*
} *lan' mæssas*. } *ten brem*, *brim* or *brume*. See *Brim*.
Furious, violent, fierce, outrageous.

When þu lying heed say, þu David weered on him,
To Wales he went his way full scharly & fulle brim.
R. Brume, p. 244.

And when this duk was comen to the launde,
Under the sunne he looked, and soon
He was ware of Arthe and Falconour,
That foughten *brems*, as it were bolles two.
Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. 1701.

For quietnes is of more authorite than haulte *breemes*.
Fucci. Instruction to a Christian Woman.

BREMEN, a Duchy of Germany, situated in the Kingdom of Hanover, on the north-east bank of the river Weser, and having Hadeln on the north, with Lüneburg and Verden on the south. M. Hassell states the whole extent at more than 2280 square miles, and the population at nearly 170,000. In the lower parts, especially near the banks of the rivers, the soil is rich, and produces grain, fruit, hemp and flax in considerable quantities, besides affording excellent pasturage. The central part of this district is chiefly an arid tract, and is devoted to the production of buck-wheat and turf, which are interspersed with good sheep-walks. The surface of the country bears a great resemblance to that of Holland; it is entirely level, and, in some places, so low, that it is necessary to secure it from inundation by means of dykes. The principal manufactures carried on by the inhabitants, are those of linen, ropes, and sail-cloth. Bremen was formerly an Archbishopric, but by the tenth article of the treaty of Westphalia, it was secularized, and assigned, with the title of Duchy, to the crown of Sweden. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, it was taken possession of by the Danes, and sold by them in 1715, to the Elector of Hanover, a bargain to which the Swedes afterwards needed not receiving a pecuniary indemnity.

BREMEN is also the name of one of the remaining free cities of Germany, situated in the Duchy of that name, on the banks of the Weser, about forty-five miles from the sea. A small surrounding territory belongs to the town, which the river divides into two parts, both of which are fortified. Small vessels only arrive at the town, those of a larger kind unload a few miles lower down. Bremen was one of the early as well as principal members of the Hanseatic league; and has always been one of the most flourishing commercial places in that part of Germany. The town is in general well built, and the edifices that attract most attention, are the Cathedral, the Exchange and the Town-house. There is also a noted Academy, which was instituted in 1529, and is partly Lutheran and partly Calvinistic; the latter of which is the prevailing religion of the inhabitants. The trade of the place consists chiefly in its own manufactures of refined sugar, cottons, woollens, dye-stuffs, and some other articles. It exports the products of the adjacent districts, especially Westphalia and Lower Saxony,

and supplies them with colonial produce, wines, and other commodities in return. The maritime commerce of Bremen is extensive, as above 900 vessels of all sizes enter the port annually. The whole extent of the territory belonging to this city is seventy-five square miles, with a population of nearly 48,500 individuals. It was taken by the French in 1806, and annexed to their empire in 1810, from which period to the recovery of its independence in 1813, it formed the chief place in the department of the mouths of the Weser. It is about fifty-four miles south-west of Hamburg, latitude 53° 4' 45" N. and longitude 8° 45' 3" E.

BREN, nr
BRINN,
BRENT,
BRUNNING,
BRUNNINGLY.

To burn. (q. v.) A. S. *bernan* or *brunan*.

Whanne at an god mannes hous ys men were at lase,
Yost hit welde eke & drynke þat hit found þer lase,
And sayþe þe leoued of þe lase quelle and alle þys,
And sayþe *berne* at þu hous. *R. Gloucester*, p. 296.

He *bernt* citees & townes, over alle did he schame.
R. Bruce, p. 25.

And they *bernt* all the cornes in that lond,
And all hir oliveres, and vines eke.
Chaucer. The Monk's Tale, v. 14041.

I counsele thee to bide of me *bernt* gold and preund, that thou be
masd riche, and be clothid with white clothis.

Wiclif. Apocalips, ch. iii.

And as it quieteth, it made a whistling,
As don these brendes wet in hir breasting.
Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. 2340.

And as he was towarde his seyde journey, he sawe in his slepe,
The sygne of the crosse shynynge in the firmament, as if it had
been a *berengange* lyghte of fyre, and an angelic standynge
thereby. *Fabyan*, v. i. ch. lxxii.

And over all this, to slee me utterly,
Love hath his fyr dart so *berengynge*
Yoked thorgh my trowe carowell bet
That shapen was my deth erst than my shert.
Chaucer. The Knights Tale, v. 1566.

Well, quod the duke, and what shall I do then? shall I suffre
myselfe to be inclosed in one of my townes, and in the mean tyme
they shall *berenge* and exile my country?

Frontiers. Crompton, v. B. C. 136.

The great heate and *berengynge* of the sunne dyd put the crysten
men to great payne and traughe, for whan they were in harmes,
by reason of the heate, it *berente* them within their armure.
Id. B. v. li. C. 171.

Or consuming fire
Brent his sheering-house or stall,
Or a deluge drowned all?
Tell me it issue.

Brown. The Shepherds Pipe, Eclogue 3.

BRENT, (of a hill) Swe. *brun*, *verter montis*. Ibre
thinks *brun* denotes that which stands above other
things, or is preminent beyond other things. Dr.
Jamieson interprets *brent* to be—high, straight, up-
right.

Heich in the fore stan stand he might be ense,
For his blyth browis *brent*, and ashir one
The fyre twisling.

Douglas. Escados, book viii. l. 12. fol. 268.

The grapes grow on the *brent* rocks so wonderfully, that ye
will marvel how men dare climb up to them, and yet so plentifully
that it is not only a marvel where men dwell that drink
it. *Isidore. Letter to Mr. Rares*.

BRENT GOOSE, in Zoology, the vulgar name of the
Anas Bernicia.

BREMEN,
BRENT
GOOSE.

BRENT-
FORD.

BRESLIA.

BRENTFORD, the County town of Middlesex, on the northern bank of the Thames. It is divided into two parts, the eastern or Old Brentford, is a hamlet of the parish of Ealing; the western, New Brentford, is a parish in itself. The river Brent, from which it takes its name, passes along its western border, and is crossed by a bridge of great antiquity. This stream is also met here by the Grand Junction canal. The town is irregular, narrow, and dirty; its chief manufactures are brick-making, malting, distilling, and pottery. In 1016, Edmund Ironside is recorded to have won a great victory over the Danes at Brentford; and during the civil wars of Charles I.'s time, it was the scene of more than one action. From his gallantry in one of these the Earl of Forth in Scotland received the title of Earl of Brentford, which on his extinction by his death, was revived by William III. in the person of the Duke Schomberg. In its immediate neighbourhood stands Synn House, now a seat of the Duke of Northumberland. This was originally a nunnery founded in the reign of Henry V.; and on the suppression of religious houses, granted to the Protector Somerset. Within its walls Lady Jane Grey resided when she received the fatal offer of the crown. Population of New Brentford, in 1821, 2036. Distant seven miles west from London.

BRENTUS, in Zoology, a genus of insects of the order *Coleoptera*, family *Curculionites*, Latr. Generic character: antennae filiform, or a little thickened towards the apex, straight, with eleven joints, inserted behind the middle of the rostrum; head stretched out, slender, bearing the antennae, and terminated by the mouth; body elongate, sub-cylindrical, narrowed before. These insects are as it were the caricatures of the family to which they belong. All their parts are elongated and thin, and the whole body has almost a linear form. They are found under the bark of trees in hot climates.

BRESCIA, a large and ancient city of Italy, the Capital of the district called Bresciano, or the County of Brescia. It formerly belonged to the Venetians, and stands on a beautiful plain, on the banks of the Garza. It is a place of great antiquity, as it was burnt by the Goths in the year 412, and was soon afterwards destroyed by Attila, but was rebuilt about the year 428. It subsequently passed under the dominion of the Lombards, and then became subject to the Roman Emperors. Otto I. declared it a free city in 936, and it soon afterwards fell a prey to the factions of the Guelphs and the Ghibellines. Brescia is encompassed with walls and fortifications, and contains a large cathedral with twelve other churches, and not less than thirty convents. The Bishop is a suffragan of the Archbishop of Milan, and has an elegant palace, containing a gallery of valuable paintings. Most of the squares and several of the streets are handsome, and many of them are ornamented with fountains. The remains of an ancient aqueduct are to be seen without the walls. The castle, though a strong place, is commanded by the adjacent heights. The top of its tower affords a prospect of uncommon richness and beauty. Brescia contains a population of nearly 50,000, and has manufactures of arms, with numerous presses for making oil. It also carries on a trade in silk, flax, wool, linen and wine. Brescia has been subject to a series of heavy calamities. In 1476, and again in 1524, it was visited by a destructive pestilence. About the middle of the same century, the

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small pox destroyed 12,000 of its inhabitants in the space of about five months. It afterwards experienced two epidemics which committed great ravages. On the 18th of August 1769, a dreadful explosion of gunpowder took place, from the lightning striking a magazine, which destroyed several churches and a great number of houses. It was taken in 1796 by the French, and when the Kingdom of Italy was formed, it constituted the chief town in the department of the Mella; but was assigned to Austria, by the general treaty signed at Vienna on the 9th of June, 1815. Brescia is situated about thirty miles south-east of Bergamo, and fifty north of Parma, in lat. 45° 32' N. and long. 10° 14' E.

BRESCIANO, a district of northern Italy, which takes its name from the preceding city. It formerly belonged to the Venetian States, but is now included in the Austrian Empire. It borders on Bormio and Trent on the north; on the south it touches the Cremonese; while on the east and west it is contiguous to the Duchy of Mantua and the Valteline. The extent is about sixty-five miles in length, but less than half that number in breadth; but it is so populous that it contains about 500,000 inhabitants, with several large towns, the chief of which are Breno, Chiari, and Salò. The northern part of the country is mountainous, but the southern districts are level and fertile; and even the hilly districts are rendered productive by the care and industry of the inhabitants. So great is the fertility of some districts, that the same soil produces in one year, crops of grain, flax, and millet. One cause of this high productive power, is the extent to which irrigation is carried. The rivers Clusio, Oglio, Mella and Susa intersect the country in various directions, and from these canals are made, which afford a supply of water to extensive districts. One of the most celebrated products of this tract is the *Fieno di Sesto*. This part of Lombardy also produces a considerable quantity of silk. There are likewise manufactures of paper, iron, copper, and fire-arms. Some parts of the county also yields iron and copper ore with alabaster and Jasper; and in a small lake near that of Inzo, topazes and garnets have been found.

BRESLAU, a Government and Principality of Silesia, belonging to the Prussian States. M. Hassel states its extent at about 3280 square miles, and its population at 456,000 individuals. Some parts of the country are hilly, but others are flat and sandy. Considerable quantities of corn are grown, and good pasturage is found in many places. The cattle in some of the richest parts, especially near the Capital, are large. The Principality is divided into several Circles, in some of which wood is very scarce. In the lower tracts, dykes and canals are common, and sometimes serve the purposes of roads.

BRESLAU, the Capital of Silesia, and the chief town in the preceding Province, is situated on the left bank of the river Oder, at the influx of the Ohlan, which divides the town into two parts. Besides these, there are five contiguous suburbs, one of them standing upon an island in the river. Breslau is surrounded with walls and fortifications, is noted for its large gates, and contains about 70,000 inhabitants. The city is tolerably built, and is the See of a Catholic Bishop, whose jurisdiction extends over the whole of Silesia; but his power has been considerably reduced by the present King of Prussia, who has abolished several of

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BRESLIA.

BRESLAU

BRESLAU the Monastic institutions. It is likewise the seat of a Catholic University, which was founded by the Emperor Leopold in 1702, and generally contains between 400 and 500 students. The situation of Breslau is favourable for trade, and an inland commerce is carried on to a considerable amount. The staple article is linen, for the manufacture of which the Silesians have long been celebrated. A great part of the business of Breslau is transacted in six large annual fairs, two of which are exclusively appropriated to wool. In addition to these, considerable quantities of printed cottons, calicoes, chints, woollen stuffs, silks, yarn and thread are also sold there. This town, with the greater part of Silesia, was annexed to the Prussian dominions in 1741, but was retaken by the Austrians in 1757. The Prussians however recovered it during the same year, and retained it till 1807, when they were obliged to relinquish it to the confederated force under the French, but it has since been recovered. It is 130 miles east of Dresden, lat. $51^{\circ} 6' N.$ long. $17^{\circ} 9' E.$

BREST, a celebrated port near the western promontory of France, the chief station of its marine, and one of the finest harbours in Europe, is situated on the shores of the Atlantic. It lies on the margin of a fine bay, on the coast of the Province of Brittany, in the present department of Finistère. At the beginning of the seventeenth century, it was only an insignificant village, dependent upon the town of St. Renan; but the safe anchorage in the roads, with the iron mines and forests in its vicinity, induced Cardinal Richelieu to construct the harbour and magazines, for the purpose of converting it into a rendezvous for the navy. It was soon after fortified, and received the privileges of a city. Much of the town, which lies on the acclivity of a hill sloping towards the sea, is composed of narrow and irregular streets, and indifferent houses; but in the suburb of Recouvrance, which has been lately united to the town, the streets are spacious, and the buildings handsome. It is partly between this suburb and the town that the harbour is situated. It is extensive and secure, with a very narrow entrance, and the road is capable of affording good anchorage for 500 ships at once. It also possesses the peculiar advantage that vessels can leave it with almost any wind. Brest contains a spacious naval arsenal, and every requisite for the construction and equipment of fleets on the largest scale, with public buildings suitable for the first naval port in France. The climate of Brest is damp, and the atmosphere almost always cloudy; but the vast influx of persons connected with the Royal navy, causes it to be well peopled, the number of its inhabitants being about 26,000. One of the most remarkable events in the history of this town was the attempt to take it in 1694, by Lord Berkeley and General Talmache, who were repulsed after a severe conflict. It stands nearly 130 miles west of Paris, in latitude $48^{\circ} 23' 14'' N.$ and longitude $4^{\circ} 28' 45'' W.$

BRET, in Zoology, the name given in some of the English counties to the *Pleuroctes marinus* or Turbot.

BRETIGNY, a village of France, in the department of the Eure and Loire, distinguished as the place where the treaty with England was signed in 1361, by which the French King John obtained his freedom, after being made prisoner at the battle of Poitiers. It is about three miles from Chartres.

BRETFUL. Of *breifful*, Mr. Tyrwhit observes that

the sense is much more clear than the etymology.—**BRETFUL** The *breeds* of a hat in Gloucestershire, are the *brims* of a hat. *Breeds* may be that which *breeds*, *broads* or *broadeads*; and *breifful* may be full to the whole *breadth*, the whole extent or dimensions; *brimful*.

His wallet lay before him in his lappe,
Breifful of pardon come from Rome alight.

Chaucer. The Prologer, p. 609.

A fress on a breuch
With a face so fat, as a full bloddere.
Blowen, *breifful* of breath.

Fiers Planchman's Credo, C. 1.

BRETTON CAPE—a large island off the coast of North America, in the gulf of St. Lawrence. It lies between Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, and extends from latitude $45^{\circ} 53'$ to $47^{\circ} 5' N.$ and from longitude $59^{\circ} 42'$ to $61^{\circ} 30' W.$ It is about 100 miles long and in some places eighty broad. Its distance from Newfoundland is nearly sixty miles, while the channel, called the gut of Canso, between it and the coast of Nova Scotia, is in some places not more than a league in width. The shape of this island is irregular, and it is so deeply indented by bays, that it is almost divided into two parts. The face of the country is principally flat, and is covered with numerous lakes and forests. Where free from these a great part of the soil is either swampy or covered with a light moss, and but ill adapted for cultivation. The climate is cold and foggy, yet on some of the most fertile parts towards the north, grain, hemp, and flax are raised in small quantities. The population is supposed not to exceed 1000; most of whom are engaged in the fisheries of the neighbouring seas. Coal and gypsum have been found, and the mines of the former are situated near the entrance of the principal harbour; and the minerals are not more than six or eight feet below the surface. The harbours are situated on the east side of the island, the southern coast is low, and the northern abrupt, and almost inaccessible. The two principal places are Louisburgh and Sydaey. The harbour belonging to the first of these is a winding bay, on the eastern shore, extending about four miles into the country, and every where affording good anchorage. The harbour of St. Peter's, situated at the western extremity, is also convenient for carrying on the fishery. Cape-Bretton was only resorted to by a few fishermen during the season that the fishery was prosecuted off its coast, till the French made the first actual settlement upon it in 1713, when they gave it the name of Isle Royale. They commenced the fortifications of Louisburgh in 1720, and about that time the number of settlers increased rapidly. It remained in their possession till 1745, when it was captured by a body of British troops from New England, commanded by General Pepperell. It was, however, afterwards regained by the French, and retaken by the English in 1758, and finally ceded to them by the treaty of 1763. It was at first politically connected with Nova Scotia, till 1784, when it was erected into a separate Government, and a Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the King, became resident on the island. The chief trade consists in fish, about 30,000 quintals of which are annually shipped for Spain and the straits.

BRETTHEIM, or *BARTREY*, a town of Germany, in the Grand Duchy of Baden, remarkable as the birth-place of the celebrated Melancthon, and, during the thirty years war, as the asylum of several of the literati of that period. The house in which Melancthon was

BRETTHEIM.
—
BREVE.

born, is still to be seen in the market place, with a statue and an inscription, which were placed there in 1705. Brettheim was taken and sacked by the Imperialists in 1632, again by the French in 1689, and was afterwards destroyed by the Austrian General Ogilvie, for which he incurred the Emperor's displeasure. It stands in the district of Creischgau, about eighteen miles south-east of Spire, and has now a population of about 2500 individuals.

BREVE, n. Lat. *brevis*; Gr. *βραχὺς*, short.
BREVE, adj. A *breve*, *brief*, or *briefly*, is a short, concise, compendious writing; appointing or describing something to be done in a *brief* style, in a few words; or containing shortly or *briefly*, in an abridged or compendious form, the substance of something larger or more expanded.

For jay on brevy bote a boze. *a brevy* *pr june*
Thar je marchant ledy a male. with many kynes *bynes*.
Piers Plowman. Vision, p. 217.

Now wold I shortly here rehearse
Of that I have said in verses
All the wretched by and by
In words few compendiously
That thou the better maistest on hem think
Whether it be thou waks or winks
For the words little greve
A man to kepe, when it is *breve*.
Chaucer. The Romance of the Rose, fol. 127.

This political schoolmaster, corrector of *lenses* and *lenses*, caused Collyngborne to be *abbreviate* shorter by the head, and too be devoyed into four quarters.

Holk. The third year of King Richard III.

They determined by some means easily to compass that the duchy of Brystowe should *brevely* come vnder their lurre and subiects.
Id. The first year of King Henry VII.

Some time theyre use such a compendious kynde of eloquence, that they coueyr and couche vp together, with a woonderful *breuities*, fewre folies and few lynes in lesse than as many lynes.
Sir Thomas More. Works, fol. 843.

Metedorus in his booke entituled the abridgement or *breuities* of those roots that are to be cut up or gathered; gave counsaile to give this heare to women.
Holland. Pliny, v. li. fol. 70.

And as touching the situations of the cities, townes, castles, and countreys, as well of Mahometans as also of Gentiles adjoyning the same, whereby I passed from Moscow vnto Astracan, I omit in this *breuities* to rehearse.

Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Anthony Jenkinson, v. l. fol. 345.

His tablet sent she, and therewith

This *breuities*, by a page.

"Of you I aske out backe my loue,

But take it, and your page."

Warner. Albion's England, book xli. chap. 77.

But as short things most vigour have, and we

Find force the recompence of *breuities*;

So was it here.

Curtwright. On the Death of Lord Baying.

In speculation so man can be ignorant of humane life's *breuities* and uncertainty, but most men are so negligent and stupid, so not to regard it sufficiently, so not to employ this knowledge to any good purpose.
Berrow. Sermon xiv. v. iii.

Among a great number of Roman *minerals* and *heretics*, remarkable for the beauty of their cuts and illumination, will be found the *Manerius* *mineral* and *heretic*, that raised such commotions in the kingdom of Spain.

Jakobus. Account of Heretic Library.

The same little *heretics* of infidelity have, to my knowledge, been published and dispersed with great activity, and at a considerable expence, among the middling and lower ranks of men in this country.

Porteus. Charge to the Diocese of London.

This argument is stated by Saint John with his usual elegant *breuities* and simplicity: "Beloved, if God so loved us, we ought also to love our *breuities*."

Porteus. The Religious Observance of Good Friday.

BREVEY, in *Military Service*, a term borrowed from the French, in which it signifies a Royal warrant. It is applied in English to nominal rank in the army, higher than that for which pay is received.

BREVIARY, Lat. *brevarium*, the book containing the daily service of the Church of Rome. It is frequently, but erroneously, confounded with *Missal* and *Ritual*. The Breviary contains the matins, lauds, &c. with the several variations to be made therein according to the several days, canonical hours, and the like; and it may be considered as corresponding with the Daily Service of the United Church of England and Ireland. The *Missal*, or *Mass Book*, answers to the "Order of the Administration of the Lord's Supper," together with the Collects, Epistles, and Gospels to be used throughout the year; and the *Ritual* is composed of Occasional Offices for Baptism, Matrimony, Visitation of the Sick, &c. The Roman Breviary is general, and may be used in every place: but on the model of this have been formed various others, especially appropriated to different dioceses and orders of religions, as the Breviary for the Church of Milan, usually called the Ambrosian Breviary; that of the Church of France, generally termed the Gallican; and those of the Benedictines, Chartreux, Dominicans, Franciscans, Jesuits, and other monastic orders. The difference between these books, and that which is by way of eminence designated *The Roman Breviary*, consists chiefly in the number and order of the psalms, hymns, ave-marias, pater-nosters, miserecors, &c. &c.

Originally the Breviary contained only the Lord's Prayer and the Psalms, which were used in the Divine offices, to which were subsequently added lessons out of the Scriptures, according to the institutes of the monks, in order to diversify the service of the church. (Grancolasii *Commentar. Historic. in Breviar. Roman. lib. i. c. 8.*) Various additions were subsequently made by the Popes, Gelasius, and Gregory surnamed the Great: and in the progress of time the legendary lives of the saints, replete with ill-attested facts, were inserted, in compliance with the opinions and superstition of the times. This gave occasion to many revisions and reformations of the Roman Breviary, by the Councils, particularly of Trent and Cologne, and also by several Popes, as Gregory IX., Nicholas III., Pius V., Clement VIII., and Urban VIII., as likewise by some Cardinals, especially Cardinal Quignan; by whom various extravagances were removed, and the work was brought nearer to the simplicity of the primitive offices. In its present state the Breviary of the Church of Rome consists of the services of matins, lauds, prime, third, sixth, nones, vespers, complines, or the *post-communion*, that is of seven hours, on account of the saying of David, *Septies in die laudem dixi, "Seven times a day do I praise thee."* (Psalm cxix. 164.) The obligation of reading this service-book every day, which at first was universal, was by degrees reduced to the beneficiary clergy alone, who are bound to do it on pain of being guilty of mortal sin, and of refunding their revenues in proportion to their delinquencies in discharging this duty. The Roman Breviary is recited in the Latin language, throughout the Romish Church, except among the

BREVE.
—
BREVIARY.

Monks in Syria, the Armenians, and some other Oriental Christians in communion with that church, who rehearse the Breviary in their vernacular dialects. For a bibliographical account of the principal editions and variations of the Roman Breviary, see Koecher's *Liturgica Theologia, Symbolice et Catecheticæ, itaque Liturgicæ*, p. 747—768.

BREVIARY was likewise used, among the ancients, for the place where briefs, or what was written abbreviately, were preserved.

BREW, v. A. S. *bræan*; Dutch, *brouwen*; Ger. *brauen*, *n.* *brauen*, *coquere*. Broth was in English anciently, and in Scotland still is called *brock*. Brew is now principally applied to boiling, seething, fermenting malt, and other ingredients so as to produce beer: of apples and pears, to produce cyder or perry.

Met. To excite or raise any boiling, heating passion, as anger, jealousy; to excite or raise a ferment, storm, or plot.

& I sallie telle þat tale, or I ferrew go,
How falnes brewer hale with him, and many mo.
R. Brunz, p. 55.

And who so wicked ale breweth,
Fall oft he most the worse drinker.
Gower. Conf. Am. book iii. fol. 58.

As if in *brewinge* mydd wyne
thou shouldst bestow muche paine,
And saure thy meate with ferynt oyles,
thy gese woulde the dishayne.
Brent. Howse, Satyre iv.

They wolde not halpen ale, in none wyse drynke
Bote of þe best and browest: þat *brewsters* sellen.
Piers Plouman, p. 143.

Let every man of whatsoever craft or occupation he be of,
whether *brewer*, baker, taylor, retailer, marchant, or husband-
man, revere his craft and occupation, unto the combe wealth,
and serve his brethern as he would doe Christe himselfe.
Tyndale. *Workes*, fol. 96.

Whose pride and riches be the spores unto all this tumult
where in good studies and letters, gospel and Cyrite shall be neglect-
ed & at last a new darkness & forever fallies with the miserable
mistake of kingdoms now begun & in brewing.
Jeye. The Exposition of Daniel, ch. xi. p. 189.

He going to their stately place
Did fide in every dish
Fet beefe and *brews*, and great store
Of dainty fowle and fish.
Warner. *Albion's England*, book v. ch. 24.

Among whom was one William Maule, a rich mailman, or burr
of Dunstable, who had his two horses trapped with galle following
him, and a pair of gilt spurs in his bonnet.
Steu. *Jane*, 1414. Henry V.

Well; to shut up all, let them of their Bonner's "beef," and
"broth," make what *brews* they please for their credulous gulls.
Hulk. *Postscript to Deceit of Humble Remon*.

As for the rect within Languedoc and the province Narbon, I
am not able to avouch any thing for certainty, such a *brewing*
and sophistication of them they make.
Holland. *Pleur*, i. fol. 414.

And after the molmsey, or some well-spiced draage, and better
breakfasted, than he whose morning appetite would have gladly
fed on green legs between Bethany and Jerusalem; his religious
walks aimed at right, and leaves his kind entertainer in the shop
trading all the day long without his religion.

Milton. *A Speech for the Liberty of Citizens' Printing*.

Whilst black pots walk the round with laughing ale
Surchar'd; or to brew'd in planetary hour,
When March weigh'd night and day in equal scale;
Or in October tun'd, and mellow grown,
With acen revolving suns. J. Philips. *Ceresius*, 1706.

He was covered from the palace of contempt to the dungeon
of horror, and thence led by a *brewer* of his capital through the
aplanes of an hired, frantic, drunken multitude to lose his
head upon a scaffold.

Berk. *Remembrance on the Policy of the Allies*.

I anticipate this day of his [Santerre] arrival. He will make
his public entry into London on one of those pale horses of his
brewery. Id. *On a Hegistic Peace*.

BREWSTERITE, a mineral which has been most
frequently found near Dumbarton in Scotland, and was
for a long time after its discovery supposed to belong
to the species *Montype*.

BRIANCON, an old and strong town of France, in
the department of the Upper Alps, defended by an old
castle, two citadels, and several redoubts built upon
the adjoining heights. Being situated on the principal
road across the Alps from France to Piedmont, it is
considered as a barrier fortress of much importance;
and great pains have been taken to render it impreg-
nable. The two chief forts are constructed with
great skill among the elevated rocks, and completely
command the pass. The junction of the rivers Dure
and Ane is below the town, whence the confluent
stream takes the name of Durance. Population about
3000.

BRIAREUS, from *βρι*, a partiele giving the sense
of intensity, and *αρυ*, strength, a Giant to whom
all the mythologists agree in assigning a century of
hands and arms, and half that number of heads; but
respecting whose occupation there is some dissension.
Hesiod makes him assist Jupiter in the contest against
the Titans, and appoints him, in conjunction with
Cottus and Gyges, to the important office of porter of
Tartarus.

Ἐὼς Γίγνη Κόττωτος καὶ ἑ Βριάρεος μετ' ἄλλοις
Ναϊάδοις, φύλακες πύκτου Διὸς αἰγυχίου.
Ocyg. 734.

Homer (*Iliad*, A. 400) asserts that he was freed from
bondage by Thetis, and brought to the aid of Jupiter
when Juno, Neptune, and Minerva conspired against
him: but the poet omits to mention the cause and
the nature of the confinement to which the Giant had
been subjected. The scholiast on this passage informs
us that he was a son of, and the son of Neptune,
whom in this instance, it is clear, therefore, that he
treated most ungratefully. If we believe these accounts,
Jupiter, as appears from some others, was somewhat
ungrateful. In a passage of Callimachus we find the
unhappy Giant hroiling under Aëta, and convulsing the
mountain whenever he wished to turn his weary side.

Ἄε δ' ἄρ' ἄρ' Αἰγυχίου ἄρουρ' ἐπὶ νηλοφάνει.
Σχίσσεται μυχὸς πέτρης, ἀνταπόδιστος γήρηντος
Εἰς ἑλπίρη Βριάρεος ἐσφυαῖα καταβύσσας.

Virgil seems to have poised himself between the two
legends, and partly to have employed both. He places
centauregenus Briareus in the vestibule of Hell, (*Æn.* vi.
267) and yet he represents the same Giant, as if he
were deserving of punishment, for arming himself
against Jupiter, not in his defence, (*Æn.* x. 565.)
Pindar has assigned the *durum ensile* of Aëta to another
tenant, Typhæus; whom the Latin poet, agreeing

BRIL-
AREUS.
—
URIBE.

with Homer (*Il. II. 781*) has deposited under Inarime in Cilicia, (*Jen. ix. 716*.) There is however a little more comfort to the couch which Plodur has strewn than that of Callimachus,

*Alfira en pelagorhō-
—Anē dēdēra korēfōis
Kai pōr' apōmōnē ēi harō-
—ōōō' āpōn vōtōr pōtēkēlōmōv ēvērēi,
Pyth. l. 54.*

BRIBE, v. The etymology of this word is lost. Bains, n. Menage says that Nicol interprets it by *Bai'ano*, *penis nudatus*. In Spanish a beggar *Bai'esa*, is called *briber*. Cotgrave explains *Bai'ona*, *briber*, to beg his bread; also to ravine, devour, eat greedily. Perhaps the application may have first been to

A gift, a fee, a perquisite; then to such fee increased to satisfy greediness or covetousness; with a condition annexed of favour or partiality.—"A donation to prevent the judgment." *Junius*.

Bribours in the quotation from Chaucer, (*Freres Tale*) Mr. Tyrwhit thinks should perhaps be *briberics*.

And for ther e' is on thes without a lounke,
That helpeh him to waten and to souke
Of that he *bribe* can, or borwe may,
Anon he sent his bed and his array
Unto a comper of his owen sort,
That loved dis, and riot, and disport.

Chaucer. *The Cooks Tale*, v. 4415.

And anon after the Jews were thus punished, many houses of religion within the city and nere ther aboute, were searched for goodies of almyntes and moche found; wherof a parte was brought unto the lordes, but y^e more part was stolen & cryed.

Shakespeare. *Antony*, 1263.

A place where pride, overruns the honest mind,
Where rich men joyne, to rob the shillies wretch;
Where trading mistis, the judges eyes do blinde,
Where parasites, the fattest crummes do catch.

Gautier. *A Remembrance*.

Certain he knew of bribes many mo,
Then possible is to tell in yeres two.

The *Freres Tale*, v. 6949.

The Erie of Rutshire (I cannot saie) either corrupted with *bribes*, or to muche affectionate to this venefitable marriage, concended and agreed to their motion.

Hall. *The twenty-second yere of King Henry VI.*

The statly lord, which wonted was to kepe
A court at home, is now come up to court,
And leaves the country for a common prey,
To pilting, polling, *bribing* and deceit.

Gautier. *The Steel Glass*.

And so befell, that once on a day

This sompnour, waiting ever on his pray,
Rode forth to souper a widowe, an old ribble
Feining a cause, for he wold ha a *bribe*.

Chaucer. *The Freres Tale*, v. 6960.

It was alme to cate with unwashed handes, or so unwashed table, or to muche affectionate to this venefitable marriage, concended and agreed to their motion.

There have been known great personages, who being once permitted to put forth their hands to take *bribes*, and money unjustly, lost all the honour which they had won the rest of their life time.

Holland. *Plutarch*, fol. 10.

Or now by this means there could no man rob nor steal, there was no *bribing* nor corruption by gifts, no man might defraud in contracts and bargains, nor embazell any more.

Id. *ib. fol. 381.*

Such knights and squyers of France as were there, knew not whether to ride their varieties to forage, they durst not

(without they went great routes,) for the *bribes* of the country who watched for them at the passages, and when they were of them.

Frasier. *Congress*, v. ii. C. 19.

It is no small happiness to any state, where their Governors are chosen by worthiness, and such elections are ever from God, whereas the intrusions of *bribery* and unjust favour or violence, as they make the common-wealth miserable, so they come from him which is the author of confusion.

Hall. *Cent. of the Death of Moses*.

P. See, now I keep the secret and not you!

The *bribing* salesman—F. Hold, too high you go.

P. The *brib'd* election—F. There you stop too low.

Pope. *Epilogue to Satires*.

The philosopher proceeds to show how the most vicious men might be devout, so far as victims could make him, but that his offerings were regarded by the Gods as *bribes*, and his petitions as blasphemies.

Spectator, No. 287.

Say, whence this change? less grilling is the chain

Though Walpole, Carteret, or a Pelham reign?

If seates still the poisonous base imbueth,

And every palm grows callous with the bribe.

P. Whitehead. *Memor. a Satyr*.

Four virres, with liberty of changing them at pleasure, together with the person of all his captives, was an irrevocable *bribe* to an Arabian warrior.

Foley. *Evidence*, sec. iii. part II.

The Roman law, though it contained many severe injunctions against *bribery*, as well as for selling a man's vote in the senate or other public assembly, as for the bartering of common justice, yet, by strange indulgence, in one instance, it tacitly encouraged this practice; allowing the magistrate to receive small presents, provided they did not in the whole exceed a hundred crowns in the year.

Blackstone. *Commentaries*, iv. 160.

BRIBARY may perhaps be most conveniently defined to mean, that offence against public justice which consists in giving, offering, or receiving to or by any person in any office or situation of public trust, whether judicial, ministerial, or otherwise, a pecuniary reward for the purpose of influencing his conduct in the discharge of that office. Hawkins and other text-writers have confined the offence of *Bribery* to the act of bribing a judicial officer; but this definition appears too narrow. See R. v. Beale, 1 East, 183. Bribing persons to vote in the elections of Members of Corporations is an offence at common law. 2 Ld. Raym. 1377. Various statutes have however been passed for the prevention of this offence, inflicting additional penalties on its commission. Indeed there are few obvious or important channels of *Bribery*, which the legislature had not thought fit to fence up by some specific penal enactment; and especially, as being the most obvious and most important of all, *Bribery* in the election of Members of Parliament. *Bribery* in a Judge was formerly punishable as high treason; and one Thorpe, a Chief Justice of Edward the Third, was hanged for it. The offence is now punishable by forfeiture of office, fine, and imprisonment; and a fine of thirty thousand pounds was imposed on Lord Chancellor Macclesfield, in the reign of George the First, on being convicted, after an impeachment by the House of Commons, of *Bribery* and corruption, in the sale of the places of Masters in Chancery.

BRICK, v.

BRICK, n.

BRICK-BAT,

BRICK-CLAY,

BRICK-DUST,

BRICK-KILN,

BRICK-LAYER,

BRICK-WALL.

Dutch, *bricke*; Fr. *briquer*, to set or lay bricks, to work, build, or fortify with bricks. Cotgrave. Menage derives the word from the Lat. *imbricare*; i. e. *imbricibus tegere*. *Imbrices* are also called, *ab imbre*, quod accipiunt arcantibus *imbrices*. Vossius.

BRINK.
BRICK.

BRICK. Se that ye greet the people no more straws to make *bricks* wythall, as ye did in tyme passed; lette theym go and gather theym straws theym selnes, and the nombre of *bricks* which they were wont to make in tyme passed, lye unto their charges alow, and mynysha nothyng thereof. *Bible, 1551. Exodus, ch. v.*

Will ye walk out sir,
And if I do not beat thee presently
Into a sound belief, as sense can give thee,
Brick me into that wall there for a chimney piece,
And say I was one o' th' Cæsars, done by a seal-cutter.
Demonst and Fletcher. Rude a Wife and have a Wife, act. iv. sc. 1.

It also made dykes, all along y^e said walle as well wth as without, & with the earth, that they drew out & cut up, they made *bricks*.
Nicoll. Theocritus, fol. 64.

Being entered the port, we found there three small barkes which we rifled and found in one of them 57 wedges of silver, each of these weighing about 20 pound weight, and every of these wedges were of the fashion and bignesse of a *brickbat*.
Hakluyt. Voyages, &c. Sir Francis Drake, v. iii. fol. 735.

Then as if he would have sold
His tongue, he prais'd it, and such wonders told,
That I was fain to say, "If you had liv'd, sir,
Time enough to have been interpreter
To Babe's *bricklayers*, sure the tower had stood."
Dumas. Scire, iv.

The Greeks have a kind of wall which they make of hard pebbles or flint rounded even and laid in order by the line and level, like as we do in *brick-wall*.
Holland. Plinius, li. fol. 593.

Frogs and toads that croak'd the Jews
From Pharaoh and his brick-kiln loose.
Bretter. Hecuba, part iii. can. 2.

The same observation might be made on the retailers of small coal, not to mention broken glass or *brick-dust*.
Spectator, No. 251.

The most unfurnish'd with the means of life,
And they that never pass their brick-wall bound,
To range the fields and treat their lungs with air,
Yet feel the burning instinct. *Cowper. Task, book iv.*

Brick, is a mass of argillaceous earth, sometimes mixed with coal ashes, chalk, and other substances, formed in conical moulds, dried in the sun, and baked into a kind of artificial stone for the use of builders.

The art of bricklaying or building with Bricks is of great antiquity, and appears to be coeval with the earliest buildings as record. Josephus relates that the Children of Seth erected two pillars, one of Brick and the other of stone, on which they engraved the principles of Astronomy. The walls of Babylon, which are attributed by Herodotus to Semiramis, and a pyramid in Egypt, described by the same author, were built with Bricks; which were a common and durable material among all nations of antiquity. Pausanias mentions several temples and other structures built with Bricks, in various parts of Greece; and Rome we know abounds with many large and splendid edifices thus constructed.

The art of making Bricks for building has been variously practised among different nations. The Bricks of the ancients differed from ours, inasmuch as they were dried in the sun instead of being burnt or baked by fire, and were mixed with chopped straw, to give them a tenacity of substance. Brickmaking we are informed in sacred history was one of the laborious indignities by which the Israelites were oppressed during their bondage in Egypt.

The ancient Babylonians often impressed or engraved inscriptions on their Bricks, in a character which has

given rise to much discussion among the learned. Specimens of them may be seen in the Archæological department of the British Museum; in the museum of the East India Company; and in the library of Trinity College Cambridge.

The ancient Greeks chiefly used three kinds of Bricks, the *Διόρυπος*, Bricks of two or three palms in length; *Τετράρυπος*, those of four palms; and the *Πεντάρυπος*, those of five palms.

The Romans, from a comparative deficiency of marble, built more with Bricks than the Greeks, and employed the arch and the vault, to which this useful material so much contributed, more than their predecessors. Their perfection in this art may be dated from the decline of the Republic, and during the splendid times of the Cæsars. The Bricks most in use among the Romans, according to the authority of Pliny, and those discovered in various parts of England, were about seventeen inches long, and eleven broad, (English measure) and scarcely thicker than our paving Bricks. Palladio, Sir Christopher Wren, and other eminent modern architects, have constructed beautiful and well-proportioned edifices in Brick.

Bricks, as manufactured in England, are always burned or baked. Unburnt Bricks after the ancient mode are still in use in Egypt, and many parts of the East. The modes of making Bricks in this country are various: those manufactured in the country differ from those made in the neighbourhood of the metropolis, and are distinguished by their colour: the former being a deep red, and the latter a yellow, stone colour, and grey. The country Bricks, which are baked in a kiln, are made of a stronger earth, and have no internal firing. But the London method is beginning to be adopted near all large towns, both in England and in Ireland, where clinders and coal ashes can be procured, and by far the greatest quantity of Bricks are now made in that manner. The following is a description of the best method of making Bricks, with all the improvements that have been introduced within the last few years.

The earth most proper for making the country or kiln burnt Bricks, which, from containing ferruginous particles, always burn red, is a stiff clay which is tempered alone, formed in moulds, dried in the air and sun, and baked in a kiln like pottery. These sort of Bricks are hard and red, sometimes with dark gray or black ends, which, as often seen in our villages, the country bricklayers dispose in various figures of dates, chequer work, and similar forms. They are unfit for cutting and rubbing for gauged work, which is always performed with a milder sort, called *red-briers*.

The earth selected as the most fit for making common Bricks after the London mode, is a clayey loam; and that for the superior sort, such as those which are used for facing buildings, called *madin stock* Bricks, is a lighter sort of loam, in which marl is found, frequently met with from two to three feet below the clayey loam. By the modern improvement of mixing chalk with the earth, as in the neighbourhood of London, and sea ooze or sludge, as on the coasts of Sussex, Suffolk, and other maritime districts, a sandy loam can be made into good Bricks; but a strong or stiff clay, such as will do for the kiln burnt Brick, is the most improper of any which can be chosen for this purpose.

The earth, of whatever quality it may be, should be

BRICK. dug in the autumn. The workmen are to be employed during the winter in preparing the earth for the ensuing season. This is done by removing the vegetable mould from the surface, which is called *unscotting*, and placing coal ashes in the proportion of two inches in thickness to every foot deep of earth, which is twelve chaldron of coal ashes, or breze as it is called, to every hundred thousand of Bricks, and mixing them together in digging the earth; because the composition is improved in proportion as it is exposed and acted upon by the frost, rain, and wind. The mixture is then generally turned over once after it has been dug, but is seldom suffered to remain in this state of preparation longer than one winter before it is used, as it would be inconvenient to the manufacturer from the space it thus occupies; and it is considered not to improve the earth so much as it deteriorates the combustible qualities of the ashes.

When the prepared soil has thus endured a winter's preparation, it is delivered over about Lady-day to the charge of the brickmaker or *moulder* as he is called; and the first thing to be attended to in the formation of sound Bricks is tempering the earth. This was formerly done by a gang of six persons employed and paid by the moulder, who makes them from the heap till laid on the hack to dry by the thousand; and an active, industrious, skilful man can with these assistants, who are often his wife and children, mould from six to seven thousand in a day, calculated from five o'clock in the morning till eight at night. One of this gang tempered and prepared the earth with a long hoe, by which he pulled it from the heap; a shovel, with which he chopped it backwards and forwards, turning it as often as he found it necessary, incorporating the ashes, sand, and earth thoroughly together; and a wooden scoop, with which he threw water over the mass in preparation, to bring it to a more ductile state. The great difficulty of having this operation, on which so much of the success of the manufacture depends, well performed, has occasioned the introduction into extensive works of machines called *peg-mills*, into which the prepared earth is wheeled after it is mixed with a proper quantity of water. Care should be taken, whether the tempering be done by men or the mill, that too much water be not used, as the more solid the Brick is delivered from the mould, the better it retains its form on the hack where it is set to dry; the less it shrinks in drying; the sooner it dries; and the better and more shapable it turns.

When the mass is sufficiently mixed, by either of the above modes, it is laid in small parcels well kneaded on the moulding table, which is covered with dry sand. The moulder throws it smartly into the mould, presses it down to fill all the cavity, and strikes off the overplus with a stick. He then turns the newly formed Brick from the mould on to a thin board, larger than the Brick, which is removed by a boy to a light latticed wheel-barrow, and is thus conveyed covered slightly with fine dry sand to the hacks to dry. The Bricks are arranged on the hacks with great regularity one above the other, a little diagonally, in order to give a free passage to the air.

When the Bricks are sufficiently dried in the hack, which in fine weather may be in about nine or ten days, they are ready for the fire, which completes the operation. It is of the greatest consequence to the quality

of the Bricks, that they should be thoroughly dry before they are set in the clamp, which can only be ascertained by breaking a few in halves, selected from various parts of the hack. If the operation of drying in the hack be not thoroughly performed, the Bricks will never burn sound; and the moisture which ascends from them in the form of vapour, renders the upper courses in the clamp peculiarly unsound.

The clamps are generally of an oblong form, and contain from one hundred thousand to half a million of Bricks. The cinders by which they are horned, are placed in two or three layers, between single courses of Bricks, on a foundation, formed of three courses of place or half burned Bricks from another kiln, or the driest of those about to be burned. In these lower courses, there are generally three apertures left running across and through the clamp, which contain fagots and coals, for the purpose of setting it on fire.

In about twenty days, or, if properly fueled and constructed, when the fire is all burned out, the Bricks are fit for use. Those in the interior of the clamp should be hard, square, and of a bright good colour. These are the stock Bricks of the London market.

The preparation of the loam, marl, ooze, chalk, &c. with which the beautiful yellow *malm stock* of London, and the pale Bricks of the Ipswich sort are made, requires more attention, and a longer and more careful process. The earth and other ingredients, with which the soil for *malm Bricks* is composed, are wheeled into a mill with a due proportion of water. This composition is then ground in the mill, which is supplied with two sets of knives and harrows, and runs out in a state of thick mud or sludge through wooden spouts, into hacks which are raised near the mill. It is there left, till by the water soaking away, and by absorption it acquires a sufficient consistency or solidity to be kneaded for the moulder. The moulding, drying on the hacks, and burning in the clamps, is performed exactly as before described for common stocks, but with more care and precaution.

As marl is not always to be found, where *malm stock* Bricks are required, the method used by Mr. Lee, of Lewisham, is so good a substitute, that it is worthy the attention of builders, who may wish to manufacture these beautiful Bricks without marl. After many experiments occasioned by the paucity of marl in the London districts, Mr. Lee discovered that chalk, mixed in certain proportions with the loam, and treated in the usual manner, produced an excellent substitute. For this discovery, he took out a patent, which having now expired, this mode of mixing a small quantity of chalk with the Brick earth, is generally adopted round London, for the purpose of giving colour and soundness to the Brick. At Ensworth, in Hampshire, and at Southampton, ooze or sludge from the sea shore, which contains much saline matter is used for a similar purpose; but however sound these Bricks are, they have neither the rich crimson colour of the London *malm stock*, nor the regular stone-coloured creamy hue of the Ipswich Bricks.

Bricks, like most other useful articles in this country, are subject to a duty, and form an important part of the annual revenue of the Government. They are also subject to a regulation as to size. By the 17th Geo. III. cap. 42, all Bricks made for sale, shall, when burned, be not less than eight and a half inches long,

BRICK.
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BRIDE.

four wide, and two and a half thick: and by 43 Geo. III. cap. 69, which consolidated the excise duties, every thousand Bricks made in Great Britain, not exceeding ten inches long, three inches thick, and five inches wide, are liable to a duty of five shillings; and exceeding these dimensions, to ten shillings.

The principal Bricks used in the United Kingdom, are, *stock and place Bricks*, from the *stock Brick clamp*; *main stocks*, *cutters*, *seconds*, and *parers* from the *main clamp*. *Red stocks*, *paring Bricks*, *fire Bricks*, *foot and tea brick files*, from strong clay, and burned in a kiln. Of the *fire Bricks*, the best are from Windsor, Stourbridge, Wales, and some of the iron Counties. The Welch are excellent, and will stand extreme heat; they are made of large sizes for the boilers of sugar houses, brewers' coppers, &c. and are called *Welsh lumps*. Patents have been granted, and descriptions published of Bricks, of various and fantastic shapes, which not having gained general use, are not here noticed.

BRICKLE, Dutch, *broekel*; *broekelick*, from *breken*, to break.

That may be broken, fragile, frail, brittle; (which last is the word now used, and which is also from the same source.)

Suche as dilde their endeavour to break his boodes, and to shak his yoke from them, those he shall spye of their teeth rule with as yron rod, and as a *brickle* earthen pot to pieces all to crush them. *Sir Thomas More. Works*, fol. 1359.

When this blessed kyng Edward had receyved death mooyrion that he should chance this transitory and *brickle* life for y^e life everlastinge, he sykered in the Christenward. *Falgar*, v. l. ch. 214.

Oh! Old will I reade,
whose pleasant will doth please
The rest, as far as sturboare steale
excels the *brickle* gleme.

For this man that of earthly matter maketh *brickle* vessels, and groven images, knoweth himself to offend above all others. *Bible. Modern Version. Wisdom*, ch. xv. v. 13.

BRIDE, v.	{	Mr. Tooke considers <i>bride</i> to
BRIDAL, v.		be the past participle of the A. S.
BRIDAL, adj.		<i>brædan</i> , <i>sovereign</i> , to nourish,
BRIDALTY.		to cherish. The <i>bride</i> then is any
BRIDERO.		one (sc. woman) <i>nourished</i> , <i>cher-</i>
BRIDECAKE.		<i>ished</i> . Somner observes, that
BRIDECAMBER.		Chaucer writes it <i>bræde</i> . <i>Bride-</i>
BRIDEMAN.		<i>groom</i> is the person by whom
BRIDEGROOM.	the <i>nourished</i> , <i>cherished</i> one is at-	
BRIDEMAN.	tended, served, protected.	

Groom, notwithstanding the introduction of the letter R, for which he cannot account, Tooke is persuaded, is the past participle of the A. S. verb, *gryman*, to take care of, to guide, to guard, to attend. In the A. S. we have *bridgum*; Ger. *bratigam*; Dutch, *bræde-gam*; Dan. *brædgum*; Sw. *brædgumne*; all without the R. See Tooke, ii. 202. and also Somner.

Here now of Hardskoute, how he ended his life.
Till a duke of Dances he got his daughter to wife
He *bride* was holden in by manner of Lambeth.

And let sawe how neede was married, meeting as I were
And al by rich reynance, but yett hem on falslyng,
Were layd to put *bride*. *Piers Plowman*, p. 27.

And Venus laugheth upon every wound
And with hire firebrand in hire hand aboute
Danceth before the *bride* and all the rout.

Chaucer. *The Merchant's Tale*, v. 502.

For it chaseth by many, that after the heat of love is once past, their followeth great hate, which thing oft-times maketh woe and talke among the people, when they hear tell, how to great lowers within 3 or 4 daies fall at debate, and begin to disoorer ere the *bride* can be wedd.

First. Instruction of a Christian Woman.

When thou art bidden to *bride*: sitte not at the meate in the first place, lest penitence be worthier than thou be bidden of him. *Wiclyf. Lute*, ch. xiv.

The deuced we some doctor to make a sermo at our masse in our suthen and pence to our praye w^t some fond flatter deused of our same & after masse much feasting ryotous & costly, & finally like mad men, made me meri at our deth, & take our burying for a *bride*.

Sir Thomas More. Works, fol. 335.

The swiftest of the plumes take,
And hence a sudden journey make
To help 'em break their *bride* cake.

Edith. Thomas Randolph, vol. iii. p. 214.

Mase, be a *bride*maid! dost not hear
How honour'd thou and his fair deer
This day prepare their wedding cheer?

Id. Th. vol. iii. p. 214.

He y^e hath the *bride*, is the *bridegroom*. But the friends of the *bridegroom*, whyche standeth by and heareth his *bridegroom* greatly of the *bridegroom*es voyce, Thus my eyes is fulfilled. *Bible*, 1351. *Jake*, ch. iii.

When she will grace the *bride* dignity,
It will be soon to all young monarchs known,
Who then by parting through the world will rise
Who first can at her best present his crown.

Davenant. Goodfellow, book iii. can. 4.

ACC. At *Quindin*, her
Is honour of this *bride*letter,
Hath challeng'd either wide counter.

Ben Jonson. Underwood, fol. 276.

And Jesus said unto them, can the children of the *bride* chamber mourn, as long as the *bridegroom* is with them.

Matthew, ch. ix. v. 13.

Such various flowry wreaths th^e assembly weare,
As shew'd them wisely proud of nature's pride;
Which so adorn'd them, that the consort here
Did seem a group of *bridegroom*, or a *bride*.

Davenant. Goodfellow, book iii. can. 6.

ALPH. Come then, let's in, and end this apostal,
Thou to our coronation with all speed;
My vertuous maid, this day I'll be your *bride*-man.

Reynaud and Fletcher. A Whif for a Month, act v. sc. 1.

Let's sing about, and say, *bride*-troil,
Troll to me the *bride*lull
And divide the bread *bride*-cake
Round about the *bride*-table.

Ben Jonson. Underwood, fol. 278.

How dar'st thou dishonour, when I command?
Mind, mind her not, nor be dishonour'd at tears,
A counterfeited quail of *bride* fowl.

Lexdown. The British Rascals, act i. sc. 2.

Are you awake, sweet William? she said:
Or, sweet William, are you asleep?
God give you joy of your gay *bride*!

Fair Margaret and Sweet William, in *Percey*.

He, only he, can tell, who match'd like me,
(If such another happy man there be)
Has by his own experience tried,
How much the wife is dearer than the *bride*.

Lightfoot. An irregular Ode.

So wept Aurelia, till the dews'd youth
Stepp'd in, with his reviv'd for making smiles,
And blanching smiles into *bride*l's bloom.

Young. The Complaint, Night, v.

BRIDELIA, in *Botany*, a genus of plants, class Polygonia, order Monocotila. Generic character: *hermaphrodite flower*, calyx five-partite; petals five, inserted

BRIDE.
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BRIDELIA.

BRI-
DELIA.
—
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into the calyx; stamina five, monadelphous; styles bifid; berry two-seeded: *mule flower*, calyx five-partite; petals five; tassels: into the calyx; filaments having five antheriferous columns: *female flower*, calyx

and corolla of the male; styles two, bifid; berry two-seeded.

An East Indian genus, containing three species. Roxburgh, *Plants of Coromandel*.

BRI-
DELIA.
—
BRIDGE

BRIDGE.

BRIDGE, *v.* } The origin of this word has not
Barnes, *v.* } been sufficiently accounted for. One
considers the Swe. *byrge*, to be the diminutive of
bro, *poor*; properly denoting *aliquod stratum*, i. e. any
thing strewn, spread, stretched. Spelman,—that *brig*
or *brug* is so called because it is usually constructed
of *tabulae*; *brug* also signifying *tabulatum*. Skinner's con-
jecture, that the final part of the word, *sc. rige* is the
A. S. *rige*, *brig*, a ridge;—appears worthy of notice. It
accounts for the application of the word to the *bridge*
of the nose; and to the *bridge* of a violin. In A. S.
we find *brig*, *brig*; in Swe. *rygge*, *brygga*; in Ger.
ruck, *bruck*; in Dutch, *rugge*, *brugge*; in English,
ridge, *bridge*. The common prefix *be* supplies the only
difference between the two words in each language.

Byeide Euerwyk hys oet egen hym he drow,
In stude, jst me elupede Stanford brugges jo,
And oue me elupet j' Batayle brugges, vor je batayle jst was jo.
R. Gloucester, p. 355.

On je briges were alle jo vancard & jo rere,
Under jst je briges gon falle down in to je riere.
R. Struven, p. 204.

Among his other notable deeds, he made a *bridge* over the
river of Rye, of v. C. pace long, by the cyle of Maynce.
Fabyen, v. l. ch. 156.

Xerxes, the liberie of Greece to yoke,
From Sena his Memnonian palace high
Came to the sea, and over Hellespont
Bringing his way, Europe with Asia join'd.
Milton. Paradise Lost, book x. l. 316.

The former uolun now returns againe,
This isle shall once more kisse the maine
Joyn'd with a *flowry bridge* of loun on which the Graces dance.
Bonmont. An Epithalamium.

Decline the war? Shall a woman forbid
Your easy march? Advance; we'll *bridge* a way,
Safe of access.
J. Philip. Blenheim.

Your greatest conquerors have burnt their ships or broke down
the *bridges* behind them, as being determined either to succeed or
die in the engagement.
Spectator, No. 295.

Stupendous task! In vales stood tow'ring hills
Oppos'd; in vain did ample Iwrell pour
Her tide transverse: he pierc'd the tow'ring hill,
He *bridg'd* the ample tide, and high in air,
And deep through earth, his frighted harp he bore.
Mason. The English Garden, book iii.

Descending now (but cautious, lest too fast)
A sudden step, upon a rustic *bridge*
We pass a gulph, in which the willows dip
Their pendant boughs, stooping as if to drink.
Cropper. Task, book i.

It is needless to investigate ancient authors for a
description of the primitive *Barnes*, as its origin and
elements are to be found in unaltered notions of
modern times. Stepping stones in shallow rivers,
covered with planks from stone to stone, exhibit the
incipient principles of piers and arches, which science
has brought to their present perfection. In deeper

waters a congregation of stones forms a loftier pier;
and where the openings were sufficiently narrow, and
the alabs of stone were sufficiently long, or the art
and strength of the untaught architects were sufficient
to the task, a road-way was formed from pier to pier,
like the Vitruvian architrave of the primitive Tuscan
temple.

As man improved in civilisation, art and science
made progress with him, and the simple mode of con-
structing the early arches, in the great pyramid of
Memphis, as exhibited in figures 1, 2, 3, and 4, of
plate III. of Bridges, afforded an easy and improved
method of constructing Bridges.

One of the most ancient examples of Bridge build-
ing on record, is the Bridge which according to
Herodotus, (1. 186,) Queen Nitocris constructed over
the Euphrates at Babylon. Diodorus Siculus relates,
that this Bridge extended to the extraordinary length
of five furlongs, which is doubted by M. Rallin in his
Ancient History, as the Euphrates at Babylon did not
exceed one furlong in width. This doubt of the
modern critic, should not, however, be permitted to
destroy the credit of the ancient historian; because,
from the situation of this celebrated city and river, the
stream at particular seasons might have been con-
siderably wider, and the Bridge have been continued
as a causeway over the strand, as far as the temporary
floods extended.

The construction of this Bridge is generally supposed,
by the most authentic writers, to have been of the first
or most ancient mode, namely, with lintels or arch-
itraves, extended from pier to pier. Consequently
the piers must have been numerous, and the openings
contracted; yet a large number of the apertures and
piers, forming a raised causeway over a rapid and
changeful river, must have presented a grand and
imposing effect.

With the Greeks, who were more a maritime people,
and more accustomed to navigation than the ancient
Romans, there is no doubt, but that ships and boats
preceded, if not superseded the use of Bridges. In
their brightest days, when their fine style of architec-
ture was complete, when their porticoes were crowded
with paintings, and their streets with statues, the
people of Athens waded or ferried over the Cephissus
for want of a Bridge. The Greeks do not seem to
have valued the construction of the arch sufficiently,
to have excelled in Bridge building, and must yield
the palm of merit in this department of architecture
to their successors.

No people of the ancient world carried the power of Bridges
rearing the stupendous arch, and the magnificent
vault and cupola, to such an extent as the ancient
Romans. After the construction of their great sewers,
their aqueducts, and their cupula over the Pantheon
of M. Agrippa, a Bridge over the Tiber was of easy

Investion
of the arch.
Fig. 1, 2, 3,
and 4,
pl. III.

The Bridge
over the
Euphrates
at Babylon.

Greeks.

Romans.

BRIDGE. execution; and the invention of the architecture of stone Bridges, as practised in its heat and most effectual manner, should be conceded to this great and indefatigable people.

The Romans are generally supposed to have derived their primitive architecture, through the Etruscans, a Dorian colony, from the Greeks. There is enough of resemblance to justify the inference, and the construction of the great sewers of Rome in so early a period of its history, as that of the Elder Tarquin, proves the use of arches to have been well known to the Etruscan architects, who executed them; and carries the knowledge of this important auxiliary to their art to a close connection with the ancient Greeks, in spite of the omission of Pericles to adorn his city with a Bridge, and of the studied contempt of arch-work in the Parthenon, and the Temple of Theseus.

First application of the arch to important uses. The Romans have beyond denial, the honour of being the first to apply the invention of the arch to important works of public use. Such as their Bridges, their aqueducts, their magnificent temples, and their splendid arches of triumph, erected in honour of their greatest heroes.

The most celebrated Bridges of ancient Rome were not distinguished by the extraordinary size of their arches, nor by the peculiar lightness of their piers; but like all the rest of the magnificent works of this city, as far as construction is concerned, they are highly worthy of observation and study from their excellence and durability. The span or chord of their arches seldom exceeded seventy or eighty feet; and the versed sine or height was nearly half of the chord, being mostly semicircular in form, or a segment nearly approaching thereto.

Bridges in ancient Rome. The Bridges at or adjacent to Rome were eight in number: 1. The *Pons Sublicius*, the first ever built over the Tiber, was constructed by Ancus Martius of timber, so framed as to require no iron bolts or ties for its security. It was situated at the foot of the Arctine, serving to unite the valley at the bottom of that hill to the Janiculum; and was the Bridge which Horatius Cocles defended with such courage against Porsenna. Hence it was subsequently called *Pons Horatius*, which has given rise to an assertion that it was built by that warrior. It was rebuilt of stone by *Emilius Lepidus*, and then called *Pons Emilianus*. *Tiberius* afterwards repaired it; finally, having fallen into decay, it was rebuilt of marble by *Antoninus Pius*, whence it was called *Pons Marmoreus*. Portions of its ruins are still visible, near the gardens of Prince Pamphili on the Ripa grande. It was from this Bridge that the body of *Heliodorus* was cast, with a stone about its neck, into the Tiber.

Pons Triumphalis. 2. The *Pons Triumphalis* so called, as being the Bridge over which those to whom the Senate decreed a triumph, passed in their way to the Capitol, was near the *Vatican*; and from its situation derived another name, *Pons Vaticanus*. It led from the Campus Martius to the Vatican Hill. A restoration of it from its ruins, which are near the hospital of the Holy Ghost, and from descriptions by *Durand* and others, is given in fig. 1, plate 1.

Pons Fabricius. 3. The *Pons Fabricius*, named after its founder *Fabricius*, who built it, being *Curator viarum*, during the time of *Catiline's* conspiracy. It led to the *Insula Tiberina*, and thence to the foot of the Janiculum on the opposite bank, by another Bridge, (4.) which was called

Pons Cestius, after *Cestius Gallus*, who erected it in the reign of *Tiberius*; and *Esquilinus* from its situation. The first named portion of this double Bridge, is now known by the name of *Ponte quattro Capi*, from a figure of *Janus quadrifrons* which formerly stood near to it; and the latter by that of *S. Bartolomeo*, from its contiguity to the church of that name. These Bridges were rebuilt during the reigns of *Valentinian* and *Valens*. The length of the chord of the *Cestian* Bridge is seventy-seven feet nine inches, its curve a semicircle, the versed sine of which is thirty-eight feet ten, and its voussours at the vertex, four feet three inches. The arches of the *Fabrician* Bridge are segments of eighty-three feet six inches span, and thirty-four feet high. Its voussours at the vertex, five feet.

Pons Janiculi. 5. The *Pons Janiculi* led from the Campus Martius to the Janiculum, whence it received its first name. It was subsequently called *Pons Aurelius*, and was rebuilt with marble by *Antoninus Pius*. In 1475, it was restored by *Sebastus IV.* (whose name it now bears, being called *Ponte Sisto*.) out of the produce of the estates of the Cardinal *Torrecremata*, whose testamentary disposition he altered for this public purpose, to accommodate the vast multitude which flocked to Rome, to commemorate the jubilee celebrated during the reign of this Pope.

Pons Aelius. 6. *Pons Aelius* received its name from the Emperor *Aelius Hadrianus*, in whose reign it was built, and is situated close to his Mausoleum. This fine Bridge is said to have had originally a roof of bronze supported by forty columns; but it was dilapidated by the *Barbarians*, who despoiled the splendid Mausoleum of its ancient riches, and converted it into a fortress. It was restored by *Clement IX.* after the designs of *Bernini*, who placed on it the ten colossal statues of angels carved in white marble, who bear representations of the various instruments of our Saviour's sufferings: the nails, the cross, the lance, the scourges, the crown of thorns, &c. hence its present name *Ponte Sant' Angelo*.

Pons Milvius. 7. The *Pons Milvius*, built in the time of *Sylla* by *Marcus Emilius Scaurus* while *Censor*, and corruptly called after him *Milvius*, is a little way out of the city, on the road to *Florence*, the ancient *Via Flaminia*. It was on this Bridge that *Cicero* arrested the *Allobrogian* ambassadors, who were the hearers of letters to *Catiline*, and discovered the extent of his conspiracy; and it was also the scene of the celebrated victory of *Constantine* over *Maxentius*, where the former had the miraculous vision of the cross. It was restored by *Nicholas V.* and now bears the name of *Ponte Molle*.

Pons Senatorius. 8. The *Pons Senatorius* or *Palatinus*, is still partly remaining, near the *Palatine Hill*. It was called *Palatinus* from its situation, and *Senatorius* as being the Bridge over which the Senators were accustomed to pass in solemn procession, when the affairs of the Republic led them to the Janiculum Mount, to consult the books of the *Sylla*. It is now called *Ponte S. Maria*, from its contiguity to the church of *S. Maria Egiziaca*; but more commonly *Ponte Rotto*, from two of its arches being entirely destroyed. See fig. 2, plate 1.

The principal Bridges in the neighbourhood of the city of Rome are, the *Ponte Salaria* built over the *Tevere*, about three miles from Rome, which leads to *Tivoli*. It appears by an inscription upon it, to have been rebuilt by *Narsis*, after having been destroyed by *Totila*. The *Pons Lucarius* upon the same

BRIDGE. river, built, it is supposed, by order of the Emperor Claudius during his expedition against the Britons. The *Pons Mamucius* or *Mammula*, built by Alexander Severus upon the Anio near Rome, and named in honour of his mother. The *Pons Nomentanus* over the same river leading from the *Via Nomentana*, and now named *Ponte della Montana*.

We omit the Bridge of boats constructed by Xerxes over the Hellespont, and by Darius over the Thracian Bosphorus. That of Cæsar over the Rhine will be described under the head of *Timber Bridges*. The celebrated military Bridge thrown by Trajan over the Danube, according to the description of Dio Cassius, had twenty piers, which were one hundred and fifty feet high above the foundations, and sixty feet wide; these were united by arches of one hundred and seventy feet span. Paulus Jovius reckons this Bridge to have had thirty-four piers, while the Count de Marsigli only allows it to have had twenty-three.

The site of this Bridge has given rise to many discussions; but Busching, a celebrated geographer, has given some very plausible reasons for affixing it to a spot between Zerngrud, a ruinous castle on the banks of the Danube, and Czernecz, a town inhabited by the Valachii, about two leagues below Orsova, in a place where the river is about a thousand paces wide. This Bridge, the work of Apollodorus, the architect of Trajan's column, and other celebrated monuments of that period, lasted but for a very short period; for Hadrian demolished it, and put its architect to death; asserting that the Bridge facilitated the irruptions of the Barbarians into the Roman territory. The real causes are known to have been jealousy of Apollodorus's character as an architect, which Hadrian attempted to rival, and resentment at sneers made by the artist at the Emperor's designs.

Dio Cassius has been charged with exaggeration in his account of this Bridge, and Montfaucon opposes to it the sculptural delineations on the Trajan column: but it should be remembered, that the sculpture does not attempt to give a correct resemblance of the Bridge, but only a record of its existence.

The Bridge of Alcántara over the Tagus at Lisbon, is one of the most beautiful remains of Roman splendour, being six hundred and seventy feet in length, having six semicircular arches, and piers of twenty-four feet each in width, and twenty-eight in breadth. Its greatest arch is one hundred and one feet in span, and its voussours at their vertex, eight feet five inches. The road-way is two hundred feet from the surface of the water. From an inscription upon it, we learn that it was the work of a Roman governor of the country, in honour of the Emperor Trajan.

Of all the works of this description, however, the most superb is the aqueduct Bridge at Nîmes, an ancient, large, and flourishing town in the department of Gard in the south of France, known by the name of the *Pont du Gard*. This colossal structure is situated about three leagues to the north of Nîmes. It is generally supposed from an inscription, to have been erected by Agrippa, (although the letters A. E. A. may rather imply *Aqueductus Elio Adriani*), in order to convey to Nîmes the waters of the spring of Eure, which rises near Uzès. It is one hundred and sixty feet in height, and consists of three Bridges (if they may be so called) or series of arcades, reared one upon the other so as to unite two craggy mountains. See

plate II. The uppermost of these arcades, which serves for the aqueduct, has thirty-six arches of about fourteen feet wide and eighteen high, formed of huge blocks of stone, admirably wrought and fitted together without cement. The central Bridge or arcade, on which the aqueduct stands, has eleven arches, each sixty feet in width, and nearly seventy feet high; and the lowest, under which runs the Gard, an inconsiderable but rapid river, has six arches of nearly the same dimensions. The chord of the largest arch of this noble structure is eighty feet in length; its versed sine is forty feet, and the length of the voussours at the vertex of the arch, four feet nine inches English. Louis XIV. when he repaired, in 1609, the damages which this stupendous and useful mass of masonry had sustained from time, erected a Bridge by the side of the lower range of arches for the accommodation of travellers; but the inferiority of its mode of construction is peculiarly visible, and there are nearly three times the number of voussours to each arch.

The spans of the arches of the Roman Bridges were small, if compared with those of modern times; yet there are some splendid exceptions, as in the *Ponte del Castel Vecchio* at Verona, consisting of three arches, the largest of which is one hundred and seventy feet in span. The Bridge built by Augustus over the Nar, Bridge of near Narni on the Flaminian way, was a single arch of one hundred and fifty feet in span. Philadelf gives a description of the Bridge of Rimini, built by the Romans also upon the Flaminian way, which has five arches. Temanza, a Venetian architect, who published an account of it, says, that all the voussours and other masonry of that fine work have their beds so exactly jointed, that a hair could not pass between; see fig. 3, plate I.; likewise of that of Vicenza upon the Baciogione, of three arches; and of one upon the Remo also of three arches. Another Bridge near Narni on the road from Rome to Loretto, also built by Augustus, is mentioned by Martinelli as consisting of four arches; the first seventy-five feet in span, and one hundred and two feet high; the spans of the others were one hundred and thirty-five, one hundred, and one hundred and forty-two feet.

The Romans built many Bridges in the provinces, some of which were very magnificent. Such was that of Merida upon the river Guadiana in the province of Estremadura. Don Antonin Ponz, in his *Voyage d'Espagne*, says he found its length thirteen hundred paces; and Vargas reckons sixty-four arches. In the time of Philip the Third, one of the large arches towards the middle was destroyed by an inundation, on which account three or four adjoining were rebuilt in 1610.

An ancient Roman Bridge, rather partaking of the nature of a temporary military work, than of a permanent structure, has recently been discovered between Vatte and Exloo, in a marsh in the district of Diemhe. It was described in the Dutch papers under date of Zwolle, Oct. 29, 1818. This ancient work is four feet under the present surface, which has been uncovered for the length of a league and a half, and the end of which is not yet known. The Bridge runs from the Weerdenger Sout, through the Marsh, past the Haar, and the convent Ter Appel, a distance of above three full leagues; it consists principally of rough firs, of the length of twelve feet, neatly laid together; where the marshy ground is carefully taken up, no interval is

BRIDGE. to be seen between their stems, which are, on an average, three or four inches in diameter. Here and there, instead of stems, are split planks of the above length and various thicknesses: there are no nails, and all is bewn with the axe. It is generally believed that this is the Bridge of Germanicus mentioned by Tacitus, which was laid along this place by forty Roman cohorts, on occasion of a hasty retreat fifteen years after the birth of Christ.

Bridges of modern times.

Among the most celebrated Bridges in modern times, or those built subsequently to the destruction of the Roman Empire, are the splendid works of the Moors in Spain, who imitated and rivalled the best constructions of the Romans. The Bridge of Cordova over the Guadalquivir, is an eminent example of their success. It was built by Isma the son and successor of Abduel Akman, the first of the Moorish Kings of Spain.

Bridges over the Rhone.

The Bridge over the Rhone at Avignon is one of the most ancient Bridges of modern Europe. It was built by a religious society called "the Brethren of the Bridge," which was established upon the decline of the second, and commencement of the third race of Kings, when the state fell into anarchy, and there was little security for travellers, particularly in passing rivers, on which they were subject to the exactions and rapacities of banditti. The object of this meritorious society was to put a stop to these proceedings by dispersing themselves into fraternities, for the purpose of building Bridges, and establishing ferries and caravans on the banks of the most frequently crossed rivers. Their first establishment was upon the Durance at a dangerous place called Maupas; but subsequently Bonpas, from their protection and accommodation. Near this spot, at Briançon, is a fine bridge of semi-circular arches, the chord of which is one hundred and twenty-five feet, and the versed sine sixty-two feet six inches, and the voussours five feet six inches at the vertex. Its architect was Henriana. The Bridge in question, that over the Rhone at Avignon, was, according to Gautier, projected and built by Benezet, who was originally a shepherd, and who received repeated warnings in dreams to quit his flock and undertake this enterprise. After much opposition and contempt on account of his youth, he succeeded by the aid of the brethren, and was canonized at his death in 1187. This Bridge, which was composed of eighteen arches, was commenced in 1176, (the same year in which Peter of Colechurch, probably one of the same fraternity, began London Bridge,) and completed in 1188. The length of the chord of its greatest arch, was one hundred and ten feet nine inches, and its versed sine forty-five feet ten inches. Its curve was the segment of a circle, and the height of its voussours at the vertex two feet three inches.

The same benevolent association, after the death of their pontine saint, accomplished the still greater undertakings of the Bridges of Lyons of twenty arches, and of the St. Esprit over the Rhone of nineteen considerable arches, besides several smaller ones in the suburbs.

Another ancient Bridge of this period, is that over the Allier at Brioude in France, called the *Failla Brioude*, built by Grenier and Estone in 1454. Its principal arch is a segment of a circle of one hundred and eighty-three feet chord, and seventy feet three inches in height. The voussours of this immense

segmental arch, which is the largest stone arch in existence, are five feet three inches at the vertex.

The celebrated Bridge of the Holy Trinity, built over the Arno at Florence in 1569, boasts nearly as great antiquity, and stands unrivalled as a work of art. Its curve is elliptical, although Ware, among other writers, has declared it to be pointed. Its chord is ninety-five feet three inches, versed sine fourteen feet ten, and the height of the vertex between the extrados and the intrados two feet nine inches. A copy of this Bridge has been built over the Cam in the walks of Trinity College Cambridge.

Among other fine Bridges in Italy, are the Rialto, built by Giovanni da Ponte in 1591, over the grand canal at Venice. The chord of its arch is ninety-six feet ten inches, its versed sine twenty feet seven inches, its voussours at their vertex four feet, its height from the water twenty-one feet, and its width sixty-six feet. See plate III. fig. 4.

The peculiar situation of this singular city requires a far greater quantity of Bridges than any other, and their number has been calculated by Gautier at about three hundred and forty.

Of Bridges whose arches are of considerable span, Perronet mentions that an arch of one hundred and sixty feet in span was built at Verona in 1354. In 1611 the Bridge of Claux over the Drac at Greouble was built, with a principal arch of one hundred and fifty feet in span, the curve was a segment of a circle, its versed sine was sixty-two feet three inches, and the height of its voussours at the vertex only three feet one.

France has to boast of many fine Bridges, built during the last two centuries; particularly the Bridge at Orleans, which was built over the Loire by Hupenot. This simple and elegant Bridge consists of nine arches, the middle one of which is a false ellipsis of one hundred and six feet seven inches in span, the versed sine twenty-nine feet nine inches, and the thickness of the voussours at their vertex, six feet ten inches.

The Pont Royal over the Seine is likewise deserving of notice from its scientific construction. It was designed and executed in 1685 by Julius Hardouin Mansard, a celebrated architect of the age of Louis XIV. and consists of five arches; of which the middle one is eighty-two feet in span, and the breadth, including the parapets, sixty feet.

Perronet, the able writer on his art, constructed many large Bridges in France between the years 1750 and 1784, and has given plans, elevations, and other descriptions of some of the principal of them, as well as of sundry others. His famous Bridge of Neully was begun in 1768 and finished in 1774. It consists of five arches of equal width, the chords of which are one hundred and twenty-eight feet, the versed sine thirty-two, their curves, false ellipses, and the thickness of the voussours at the vertex, five feet three inches.

The Bridge over the Seine at Mantes, which possesses a beautiful simplicity of character much resembling that over the Loire at Orleans, was begun in 1757 by Hupenot, and finished by Perronet in 1765. It consists of three elliptical arches, the centre one of which is one hundred and twenty-eight feet chord, thirty-eight feet three inches high, and with voussours six feet three inches thick at the vertex.

In 1774, Perronet began his novel Bridge over the

BRIDGE. Bridge of the Holy Trinity.

The Rialto and other Italian Bridges.

Bridge at Verona.

Bridges. Bridge of Neully.

Bridge at Mantes.

BRIDGE. Oise at St. Maxence which he finished in 1785. The arches are remarkable for their flatness, rising only six feet three inches, while their chords are seventy-six feet eight inches, and the thickness of the voussoirs at the vertex of the arch, four feet eight inches. The piers also affect a similar novelty, being composed of four columns, the two outermost of which are joined together by walls, and the central intercolumniation left open.

Point de la Concorde. Another of Perronet's ingenious works is his Bridge called the *Point de la Concorde*, formerly the *Point de la Revolution*, also built over the Seine at Paris in 1791. The chord of the arches of this Bridge is ninety-three feet nine inches, the versed sine nine feet eight inches, and the curve of which they are composed, segments of circles.

Bridge of the Loire. M. de Voglie erected a Bridge of twelve arches over one of the arms of the Loire at Saumur, which is reckoned one of the finest Bridges in France. The chord of the arches, which are all of equal dimensions, is sixty feet, the versed sine twenty-one feet, and the formation of the curve elliptical. It was begun in 1756, and finished in 1770.

Bridge of Jena. The Bridge of Jena, which was built by La Mande in 1815 over the Seine at Paris, is composed of a series of arches whose curves are segments of circles, sixty-one feet six inches span, ten feet nine inches versed sine, and the thickness of the voussoirs at the vertex, four feet eight inches.

The art of constructing large arches appears now to be practised with a fearless certainty. Wiebeking has recently (1806) constructed a stone Bridge, at Ulm over the Danube, with an arch the chord of whose arc is one hundred and eighty-one feet two inches, the versed sine twenty-two feet three inches, the curve a segment of a circle, and the thickness of the voussoir at the vertex, six feet one inch.

Bridges in Great Britain. The art of building Bridges in Great Britain appears to have been studied with great diligence from our earliest times, and to have equalled our progress in the other branches of architecture, and the other arts and sciences.

Bridge at Croyland. The most ancient Bridge in England is the Gothic triangular Bridge at Croyland in Lincolnshire, which is said to have been built in 860. This singular Bridge has three distinct approaches from as many roads formed by three segments of a circle, which meet in the middle and form pointed arches. The longest Bridge in this country is that over the Trent at Burton in Staffordshire, built in the twelfth century, of squared free-stone. It consists of thirty-four arches, and is fifteen hundred and forty-five feet in length.

London Bridge. The coincidence of dates between the erection of London Bridge in 1176 by Peter of Colchester or Colchester, a priest, and that over the Rhone at Avignon by Benezet and the Brethren of the Bridge, has been before noted. The old Bridge at Newcastle-upon-Tyne was built of stone in 1281; and that over the Medway at Rochester about the same time. London Bridge was composed originally of twenty-two arches, and was incumbered for many years with a street of houses, which was removed between the years 1756 and 1758; and the three centre arches were then converted into one of seventy-two feet in span, under the superintendence of Messrs. Dance and Taylor. This great centre arch is the segment of a circle of seventy-seven feet three inches in diameter, the length of the

chord line seventy feet six inches, versed sine twenty-two feet nine inches, and thickness of the voussoir at the vertex, three feet.

The Bridge built over the Conway at Llanrwst in Denbighshire by Inigo Jones in 1600, may be classed among the best of the English Bridges. It consists of three arches, the largest of which is fifty-eight feet span, its versed sine seventeen feet, and the curve a segment of a circle. The thickness of the voussoir at its vertex, being only one foot six inches, the road and parapet very low, and the approaches very steep; the Bridge has an unusually light and airy appearance.

Another beautiful and singular Bridge in Wales is **Post y Pryd**, also worthy of notice, which if it had been built in **Pryd**, the time of the "Brethren of the Bridge" would have been esteemed a kind of miracle; and its ingenious architect would have been added to the list of our Saints with more claims to the title of a benefactor to mankind than half we find in the Romish calendar. This beautiful Bridge, the **Post y Pryd**, was built over the Taf, near Llantrisant in Glamorganshire in 1746, by William Edwards, an uneducated country mason, who engaged to build a new Bridge at this place, which he executed in a style of design and workmanship seldom witnessed. It consisted of three arches; but being erected over a stream liable to overflow in rapid floods, it was unfortunately carried entirely away after it had been completed about two years, by the masses which the torrent dashed against it. As the builder had given security for the durability of his work for seven years, he was compelled to erect another, which he did with all possible speed. The second Bridge consisted of one arch, for the purpose of admitting freely through it whatever incumbrances the flood might bring down. The chord of this arch was one hundred and forty feet, its versed sine thirty-five feet, and its curve the segment of a circle whose whole diameter was one hundred and seventy-eight feet. The arch was finished, but before the Bridge had received the parapets, the weight pressed in the haunches, raised up the crown, and laid this fine arch in ruins. This occurred in 1751; but Edwards, not to be depressed or daunted by inevitable accidents, with becoming fortitude engaged in his perilous undertaking a third time. He commenced his operations after due consideration, with a resolution to rebuild his arch of the same dimensions, prudently consulting his friend Mr. Smeaton. The chord line and versed sine are the same as before; but he formed in each haunch or spandrel of the arch three cylindrical arches or tubes quite across the Bridge, (see plate III. fig. 6.) The chord line of this fine arch is one hundred and forty feet, its versed sine thirty-five feet, and the thickness of the voussoirs at the vertex only three feet. The largest of the cylinders are nine feet, the middle two six feet, and the upper two three feet in diameter.

The Bridges over the Thames in London are splendid ornaments, as well as essential necessities to the metropolis. The old incumbrance called **London Thames** Bridge has been already described, its proposed substitute is not yet begun; and the next in order, the **Trafalgar** or **Southwark Bridge**, as well as that at **Vauxhall**, will be described among the **Iron Bridges**.

Blackfriars Bridge stands next in rotation. It is Blackfriars both novel and handsome in design, and its elliptical Bridge arches are well suited to its situation; but unfortunately its material is bad and perishing, and the curved

BRIDGE. line of its surface ill agrees with its architectural decoration of Ionic columns, which are obliged to be made of various heights and diameters to accord with it. This handsome Bridge was designed and executed by Robert Milne, an able Scottish architect, who was the first Briton, and perhaps the first Protestant, who ever obtained a medal in the class of the fine arts at Rome, for a grand architectural composition of truly Palladian skill. The works of this Bridge were commenced in 1760, and completed in 1771. It is nine hundred and ninety-five feet in length, and forty-three feet six inches in breadth between the parapets. It is composed of a series of elliptical arches, increasing in width progressively from the shore to the centre, which is one hundred feet in span, its versed sine forty-one feet six inches, and the thickness of its voussoirs at the vertex six feet seven inches.

Waterloo
Bridge.

In following the course of the river the next Bridge is that of Waterloo, which tends from the Strand to the Surrey side of the river. This Bridge is one of the most stupendous architectural monuments of our times. It is the only Bridge over the Thames in which a flat surface is maintained in its whole course. The piers are fronted with coupled Doric columns. Its length is twelve hundred and fifty feet, it consists of nine elliptical arches, each of one hundred and twenty feet span, the versed sine of which are thirty-two feet, and the thickness of the voussoirs at the vertex five feet. It was designed by Ralph Dodd, and executed under the directions of the late Mr. Rennie.

Westminster
Bridge.

Westminster Bridge is one of the handsomest as well as the most scientifically constructed of all the Bridges in Europe, and is also deserving of attention from having formed an era in the Bridge architecture of the country, from the successful methods of laying the foundations in deep water and rapid currents. The excellent reports of its architect, M. Labeyle, in 1751, are an admirable commentary on his work; and with it and his other structures, form a perfect school of this department of the art. It was commenced in 1740, and was finished for public use in 1747; but from the unexpected failure of one of the piers was not completed till 1750. This beautiful Bridge, which is twelve hundred and twenty feet in length, and forty-four between the parapets, has thirteen large, and two small arches, all of these are semicircular, and spring about two feet below high water mark at spring tides. The middle arch is a semicircle of seventy-six feet in span, and the thickness of the voussoirs at the vertex is five feet; the radial lines are carried on in thickening courses till they are lost in the perpendicular lines of the semioctangular piers, and the horizontal lines of the cornice.

It is to be lamented that no opportunity was ever given to our greatest mathematical architect, Sir Christopher Wren, to exert his transcendent talents, where they would have shone most resplendently, namely, in the construction of a Bridge. His researches led his able conditor, Robert Hooke, to the discovery of the mode of forming a catenary curve; and his own communications to the Royal Society on the subject of the construction of arches, are replete with scientific investigation. He, however, made a report on London Bridge, which is a valuable section in the theory of Bridge building.

Single
arched
Bridges.

Of Bridges with single arches, or where the centre arch much exceeds the side arches, the following are

the most remarkable for their beauty of design, ingenuity of construction, or excellence of workmanship. That over the canal in Blenheim park, was designed by Sir John Vanbrugh; the arch is formed of a segment of a circle, whose chord line is one hundred and one foot in length, which is five feet more than the Rialto. Another of still larger span was built over the Bridge Tees, at Winstone in Yorkshire, from a design of Sir Thomas Robinson, the chord line of which is one hundred and eight feet nine inches.

BRIDGE.

Iron Bridges.

In point of science, Bridges of metal come before iron those of timber, although the true practical elements of their construction are but as yet imperfectly understood, and may be considered as in its infancy.

Metal Bridges are the exclusive invention of British artists. The first Bridge of cast iron ever erected, was that over the Severn, about two miles below Colbrook-dale, between the villages of Broseley and Madeley in Shropshire. It is composed of five ribs forming the segment of a circle. Its chord line is one hundred feet in length, and its versed sine forty-five feet, making its curve almost a semicircle. The height of the springing of the arch from low water mark, is about ten feet, which makes the entire height from the water to the vertex of the soffit fifty-five feet. On these arch-shaped ribs the road-way is formed by other pieces of cast iron and plates which carry the road. This parent of the Iron Bridge system was cast at the Colbrookdale foundries by Mr. Abraham Darby, and erected in 1777.

The second Cast Iron Bridge was designed by Sunderland Thomas Paine, the infamous political writer, and was cast under his direction by the Messrs. Walker, at Rotherham in Yorkshire. It was brought to London, and exhibited for some time at a bowling green at Pancras, near the old church. It was originally intended to have been taken to America, but the speculator failing in his payments, the materials were afterwards used in constructing the beautiful Bridge over the river Wear, at Bishop's Wearmouth, near Sunderland in the county of Durham, under the direction of Mr. Thomas Wilson, in 1796. The merit of projecting this Bridge is chiefly due to Rowland Burdon, Esq. M. P. for the county. The curve of this magnificent arch is a segment of a circle, whose whole diameter at its centre would be five hundred and ten feet. The length of the churd at its springing is two hundred and forty feet high, the versed sine thirty feet, and the height of the frame-work of the arch at the vertex, five feet; and the whole height from low water to the highest part of the soffit nearly one hundred feet, which admits of vessels of from two to three hundred tons hurrten to pass under it without striking their top masts. A series of one hundred and five iron blocks or frames form a rib, and six ribs make the width of the Bridge, which is thirty-two feet. The spandrels are fitted in with cast iron circles, touching the outer extremity of the arch, and supporting the road-way, which is supported by a strong frame of timber, planked over and covered with a cement of tar and chalk, and finished with layers of marble, limestone, and gravel. The abutments are formed of masses of solid masonry, twenty-four feet in thickness, forty-two feet in breadth at the bottom, and thirty-seven at the top. In the ante room of the great room

Sunderland
Iron Bridge.

BRIDGE. at the Society of Arts, &c. at the Adelphi, is a beautiful and correct model of this Bridge in a glass case.

Buildwas Iron Bridge. The third Iron Bridge in point of time was that which Mr. Telford erected over the Severn, at Buildwas in Shropshire, and finished in 1796. The curve of which the arch is formed is the segment of a circle, whose whole diameter is one hundred and eighty-four feet. The chord line measures at its base one hundred and thirty feet, the versed sine twenty-seven feet, and the height of the iron frame-work of the arch at the vertex, three feet ten inches, the breadth across the soffit eighteen feet, and the height from ordinary low water mark, thirty-four feet. The Colbrookdale Company performed both the masonry and the iron work in an excellent and efficient manner.

Iron Bridge at Boston. Another excellent Iron Bridge between piers of masonry, was built a few years since by the late Mr. Rennie, over the river Witham, at Boston in Lincolnshire. It is a tasteful and elegant design, as well as a useful and scientific work, see plate IV. Its curve is a small segment of a circle of three hundred and thirty-two feet in diameter, its chord eighty-five feet, its versed sine only five feet six inches, and the frame of the iron work of the arch at the vertex, three feet.

Southwark Iron Bridge. This same able and scientific engineer also erected, what may at present be called the finest Iron Bridge in the world, over the Thames, at the bottom of Queen-street Chenside. This Bridge, which is known by the name of the Southwark or Trafalgar, is constructed of three splendid iron arches, cast by Messrs. Walker and Yates, late of Rotherham in Yorkshire, on piers of granite. The chord of the middle arch is two hundred and forty feet, which is thirty-eight feet longer than the Doric column on Fish-street-hill, commonly called the Monument, is high. Its curve is the segment of a circle of six hundred and twenty-four feet diameter, its versed sine twenty-four feet, and the height of the frame-work of the arch at the vertex, six feet.

Vauxhall Bridge. The new Iron Bridge at Vauxhall does not present such bold features as those which we have just cited. It consists of nine arches of equal span, raised upon stone piers, which were originally intended for stone arches. They are each of about eighty feet span. It was executed by Mr. James Walker the engineer.

Iron Bridge at Bonar. An Iron Bridge has been built by Mr. Telford over an arm of the sea, at Bonar to Sutherlandshire, North Britain, which he erected in 1811. It presents an arch whose chord is one hundred and fifty feet, versed sine twenty feet, diameter of the circle, of which the arch is an abscissa, three hundred and one feet, and the height of the frame-work of the arch at the vertex, three feet.

Iron Bridges at Bristol. At Bristol, Mr. Jessop the engineer built two Iron Bridges over the Avon. The chords of their arches, which are segments of circles, are one hundred feet, their versed sines fifteen, the diameter of the complete circle, of which the arch is a segment, one hundred and eighty-two, and the height of the frame-work of the arch at the vertex, two feet four.

Iron Bridge over the Conway. The Union Bridge, over the river Conway, between Pentre Foelas and Bettws in Denbighshire, is a handsome Iron Bridge of one arch, the curve of which is the segment of a circle, the spandrels are elegantly fitted up with representations in relief, of the rose, thistle, and shamrock; and round the circumference of the arch is inscribed in open letters, forming part of the

construction of the Bridge, "This Bridge was erected in the year that the battle of Waterloo was fought."

BRIDGE. The one arched Iron Bridge, for foot passengers only, over the Liffey, between Carlisle and Essex Bridges, Dublin, is a bold and handsome segment of a circle, whose chord is one hundred and twenty feet.

Iron Bridge over the Seine. The Bridge of Anseritz, over the Seine at Paris, is also a much admired specimen of the science. It is the segment of a circle, whose entire diameter would be, if completed, two hundred and seventy-eight feet. The length of its chord is one hundred and six feet, its versed sine only ten feet six inches, and the height of the frame-work of the arch at the vertex, four feet ten inches. It is the work of M. La Mande.

Two iron arches of much larger dimensions have been proposed, but not executed. The boldest was that which Mr. Telford projected in the place of London Bridge. The length of the chord of this immense arch was six hundred feet, and its versed sine sixty-five feet. The other was by Wiebeking, and its dimensions not more than half of Mr. Telford's, being the segment of a circle of seven hundred and eighty-four feet in diameter, the chord of which measures two hundred and ninety-two feet, its versed sine twenty-nine feet, and the height of the frame of the arch at the vertex, three feet nine inches.

Timber Bridges.

The building of Bridges with timber is the most ready, and perhaps the most ancient method of constructing these useful adjuncts to civilisation.

The earliest Timber Bridge on record is that thrown by Julius Cæsar over the Rhine, and described in the *Commentaries* of that great man. Palladio has given a most ingenious design of this Bridge, founded on Cæsar's own description; as well as designs for others of his own invention, both executed, and theoretical. One of these he built over the Cismona, at the foot of the Alps, between Trento and Bassano in Italy. Its construction is simple and ingenious, the whole being suspended by the framing, which forms the sides. See plate V. Its form is the segment of a circle of two hundred and twenty-six feet in diameter, its chord one hundred and thirteen feet seven inches, its versed sine fifteen feet three inches, and the height of the timber framing of the arch at its vertex, ten feet four inches.

Germany is the school for wooden Bridges, as England is for those of iron. The most celebrated Bridge of this description, is that over the Rhine at Schaffhausen. This extraordinary Bridge, which was supported only by the abutments on the banks of the river, was designed and executed by Ulric Gruenman, a common carpenter of Tüfien, who produced a model for it to the committee who were intrusted with the conduct of the works, and completed his task to the satisfaction of his employers in 1758.

The total length of the Bridge was three hundred and sixty-four feet, and its breadth eighteen feet. This magnificent and ingenious work was destroyed by the French in April 1799.

John, the brother of Ulric Gruenman, constructed a Timber Bridge of the same sort, at Ruichenaw, about the same time with that of Schaffhausen, two hundred and forty feet in length; and some years afterwards, they conjointly erected one over the river Limmat, near Baden, two hundred feet in length.

BRIDGE. These ingenious men also erected another bold and well constructed Bridge at Writtingen, upon the same principles. The curve of this Bridge was the segment of a circle of three hundred and forty-eight feet in diameter, whose chord measured one hundred and ninety-eight feet, its versed sine thirty-one feet, and the height of the timber frame-work of the arch at the vertex, seven feet five inches.

Wiebeking's Timber Bridges. Wiebeking, who is perhaps the most ingenious engineer of our times, has erected several Timber Bridges of great ingenuity and skill; besides designing others which have not been executed. Of these latter, one is the segment of a circle of the following extraordinary dimensions; namely, its chord line measures six hundred and thirty-six feet, its versed sine only twenty-six feet six inches, being the portion of a circle whose whole diameter is so less than three thousand eight hundred and seventy-six feet. The thickness of the framing of this extraordinary machine, is only four feet two inches. Wiebeking's other Bridges are all segments of circles, of proportions similar to the above, and varying in the lengths of their chords, from ninety-four feet to two hundred and eight, which is the span of that over the Regnitz, at Bamberg in Germany; this, which was built in 1809, is the widest span which has been executed on Wiebeking's principle. The principal of the other Timber Bridges of this eminent carpenter, are that over the Wertach at Ellingen, over the Vilantshoven, over the Danube at Neuburg, two over the Isar, at Freysingen in Bavaria, over the Inn at Oettingen, over the Alz at Altemarkt, over the Inn at Rosen, over the Lech near Augshurg, over the Inn at Muhlthorf, and over the Rott. These were all erected in 1807, 1808, and 1809.

The best modern methods of construction, are those which have curved ribs to support the road-way, which appears first to have been applied to Bridges by Price, who published an excellent treatise on carpentry. Since the publication of this excellent elementary work, this method of construction has been brought to considerable perfection in Germany, and other places on the continent, and in America.

Timber Bridge in Picardy. The wooden Bridge called the "Otte" in Picardy, by Coffinette, is the segment of a circle of six hundred and thirty-eight feet diameter, its chord measuring one hundred and twenty-six feet, and its versed sine only six feet three inches.

Timber Bridges in America. America, being a country abounding in timber, is obviously well suited for this method of crossing streams, and they have been accordingly successful in Pennsylvania. The Trenton Bridge over the Delaware, erected by Burr in 1804, is the segment of a circle of three hundred and forty-five feet diameter; its chord measuring two hundred feet, its versed sine thirty-two feet, and the height of the timber framing of the arch at its vertex, no more than two feet eight inches.

Wooden Bridge over the Schuylkill. The Timber Bridge over the Schuylkill in Philadelphia, called the Colossus, is of the extraordinary span of three hundred and forty feet, and is the segment of a circle of one thousand four hundred and sixty-five feet in diameter, its versed sine measuring only twenty feet, and the height of the wooden framing of the arch at the vertex, seven feet. Its architect was Wernwag, who finished it in 1813.

Wooden Bridge over the Piscataqua. That which was built over the Piscataqua near Portsmouth, North America, by Palmer in 1794, is the segment of a circle of six hundred feet diameter,

BRIDGE. whose chord line measures two hundred and fifty feet, its versed sine twenty-seven feet four inches, and the height of the timber frame-work of the arch eighteen feet three inches. This celebrated timber arch is put together with wooden keys, similar to those proposed by Mr. Price, in his *Treatise on Carpentry*; indeed it is his method of construction applied to a larger span, excepting a little difference in the form of the keys. The Bridge was built by Mr. Bladget, and is accurately described by Colonel Sir Howard Douglas, in his work on military Bridges.

The same ingenious mechanic, Palmer, also erected Deers Island and Schuylkill Bridges. two other wooden Bridges in America, one over the Merrimach at Deers Island, near Newbury Port, of one hundred and sixty feet diameter, finished in 1793; and the other over the Schuylkill, whose name it bears at Philadelphia, of one hundred and ninety-four feet chord, and twelve feet versed sine, being the segment of a circle of seven hundred and ninety-six feet diameter, which he finished in 1803.

Bridges of Suspension.

Peedent Bridges, or Bridges of Suspension, although held by some persons to be a modern invention, or derived from the rope Bridges of South America, and the East Indies, were in use in Europe in the time of Scamozzi, as may be seen in his *Del Idea Archi*, 1615; yet the knowledge requisite to determine the properties of this kind of Bridge, had not been published before the time of the Bernoulli. Ware, in his excellent *Treatise on Vaults and Bridges*, which has been consulted for this article, says, that the Peedent Bridges mentioned by Scamozzi, were probably constructed upon false principles, and consequently of short duration, and on that account the invention fell into disrepute.

The invention of Peedent Bridges, is very apparent, and their use of great antiquity in mountainous countries.

Kircher in his *China Illustrata*, and also Ogilby in his *China*, 1669, both mention a Peedent Bridge at Junoon, which they assert was built A. D. 65, by the Emperor Miasug. It was constructed of iron chains, and its chord line measured twenty Chinese perches, or two hundred cubits.

The chain Bridge at Chuka-chazum, constructed over the river Tehiatichieu, about eighteen miles distant from Murihou, in Thibet, according to measurements taken by Lieutenant S. Davis, and descriptions in Turner's *Thibet*, consists of five chains suspended over a very rocky and irregular river. Piers of masonry are erected on the rocks on each side, and a covered building with a sort of timber projecting balcony on one shore. The bottom or road-way of the Bridge, is a series of five chains planked over and suspended from the floor of the building on one side, and to the pier on the other. It forms a catenarian curve, whose chord line measures one hundred and forty feet, and its versed sine six feet. At a height of six feet from the road-way chains, are two more which are suspended, forming a similar curve, which are brought over a series of rollers, and secured to the ground in the manner of Mr. Telford's upper row of chains in the Menai Bridge of Suspension over executing, see plate VI.

Another chain Bridge is in the same neighbourhood it is also described in the same work. It is also over the Mountain.

BRIDGE. river Tehlatchien at a place called Selo-chazum, and is seventy feet in span.

Rope Bridge at Andaquillas. Over n chasin in n mouaint nt Andaquillas, in the South Seas, is an extraordinary Bridge of ropes, which according to an account published in Frezier's *Voyage to the South Sea*, in 1714, 1715, and 1714, measures no less than seven hundred and twenty feet between the points of suspension.

Rope Bridge at Seringagur. Seringagur over the Alucrida or Gaages, is also n Bridge of ropes, the chord of which, according to Daniell, the able painter of views in Hindostan, (No. 23 of the fourth series,) measures two hundred and forty feet.

Rope Bridge at Rampore. At Rampore also, over the J'hoos, is a Bridge of ropes, measuring according to Mr. Frazer, who published a tour to the snowy range of the Himala mountains, and to the sources of the Ganges and the Jumna, three hundred feet between the points of suspension.

Linked Chain Bridges. At Stollingen in Switzerland, over the river Arrair, is a Bridge of Suspension, composed of pieces of wood linked together with iron, and forming a chain. Its chord measures one hundred and twelve varchi, and a varcho is supposed by Ware, in his *Tracts on Fables and Bridges*, to mean a pace.

Bridges of this description are mentioned by Scamozzi in his work, entitled *Deila Archit.* lib. 8. cap. 23. There are many of this species of wooden linked chain Bridges between Trente and Inspruck, as at Lavis, and over the Licsaro, at Cordau, at Leman, and Perseman, besides eight or nine others.

Chain Bridge at Copstan, Nuremberg and Beraun. There is a chain Bridge measuring one hundred and fifty varchi, suspended over the river Enn, at Copstan, and another over the Pegnitz, at Nuremberg in Franconia. There is also one of double chains at Beraun, over the Misa in Bohemia, the chord of which measures one hundred and sixteen English feet.

Bridges of Suspension in America.

Bridges of Suspension in America. In America of late years, the application of suspended Bridges has been much increased, but they are not of such extraordinary dimensions between the points of suspension, as those in Great Britain. That over the Merrimack, at Newbury Port, which was built by Mr. Templeman, at an expense of twenty-five thousand dollars, is a curve, whose chord measures two hundred and forty-four feet.

Chain Bridge at Newbury Port. There are two other chain Bridges, of one inch and a quarter iron bars, both measuring one hundred and thirty-five feet between their points of suspension. The one, called Cumberland Bridge, is at Maryland, and the other at Federal city; they are both described by Pope in his *Bridge Architecture*, published at New York in 1811.

Chain Bridge over the river Brandywine at Wilmington. The chain Bridge over the river Brandywine at Wilmington, is constructed of iron bars, measuring one inch and three eighths, and its chord one hundred and forty-five feet. That at Brownsville, in Fayette County, over the Monongahelin, is of iron and quarter bars, measuring one hundred and twenty feet between the points of suspension; and another in its vicinity, of the same thickness of metal, forms an inverted suspended arch, with a chord of one hundred and twelve feet between the rebutsments.

Chain Bridge over the Schuylkill. That over the Schuylkill at Philadelphie, consists of chains formed of iron bars one inch and a half square, being a estenary of one hundred and forty feet between the points of suspension.

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Bridges of Suspension in Great Britain.

The great national Bridge of Suspension now in progress, under the direction of Mr. Telford, which has been already described under the head of Beannmaris, is composed of half inch iron rods bound together, and forming a cable. Its suspended weight is calculated to be nearly four hundred and ninety tons, its connecting rods weighing one hundred and seventeen pounds avoirdupois per yard. Its chord measures five hundred and sixty feet, its versed sine thirty-seven feet, and its thickness twelve inches square in section. (See article BEANMARIS, and the *Third Report of Menai Bridge*, ordered to be printed by the House of Commons, 8th February and 29th April 1815.) See plate VI.

The suspended Bridge at Berwick, called the Union, which was built over the Tweed by Captain Brown, measures four hundred and thirty-two feet between the abutments, and five hundred and ninety feet from the points of junction of the suspending chains. The weight of the platform, chains, &c. is one hundred and sixty tons, and it cost the sum of five thousand pounds.

The suspended Bridge at Dryburgh also built over the Tweed, is constructed of chains, and measures two hundred and sixty-one feet between the points of suspension.

That over the Tees at Middleton, in the county of Durham, is also of chains, and measures seventy feet between the points of suspension.

The distance between the points of suspension of the proposed Bridge at Huncorn, is one thousand feet; the angle of the cantenary, with a horizontal line, 11° 15', consequently the deflection would be one hundred feet; which, added to the seventy feet above high-water mark, will make the piers one hundred and seventy feet above high water mark.

There is also another Bridge of Suspension over the Conway, now in progress under the direction of Mr. Telford, upon the same principles as that over the Straits of Menai, and to which the same observations will apply.

Theoretical principles of Bridges.

The principles of construction as applied to Bridge building, resolve themselves into various theories according to the materials of which they are built, and the method of construction used:—such as of arches, listals, and suspended chains or ropes.

The mathematical principles of stone Bridges, and the taste required in properly decorating them as works of art, render the power of designing and executing a magnificent structure of this nature, one of the sublimest and most difficult in the science of architecture. The theoretical principles of this branch of the art, which some have largely overrated, while others have with equal prejudice decried them, contain the mathematical demonstrations of the properties of arches, the thickness of the piers, the force of the water against them, and other abstruse, but necessary calculations. The theoretical calculations for the architecture of stone Bridges, are in general too fanciful for practice. The theorists seldom allow for the cohesion, adhesion, and vis inertiae of the materials, and drawing their conclusions from mystified sources.

The theorists of the present day may be divided into two factions, the Huttonians, and the followers of Mr. Atwood; the latter approaching nearer to the truth

BRIDGE.

Bridges of Suspension in Great Britain. at Beannmaris Ferry.

Chain Bridge over the Tweed.

Suspended Bridge at Dryburgh.

Suspended Bridge at Middleton on the Tees.

Proposed Bridge at Huncorn.

Proposed Bridge at Conway.

Theoretical principles of Bridges.

Of stone Bridges.

Theory of arches.

BRIDGE.

Dr. Hutton's theory.

Mr. Atwood's theory.

of practice than the former. The Huttonians, after their celebrated master, consider the arch as a series of lines or bars connected at their angles, on which they are allowed to revolve as if hinged, and on this principle is founded as a corollary, (see plate VII. fig. 1.) that if one of the weights and the positions be given, all the other weights may be found.

Mr. Atwood on the contrary, with more practical propriety, applies the principles of the wedge; regarding the voussoirs as a series of wedges, acting on each other by their weights and angles. By considering the subject on this ground, says Mr. Atwood, (*A Dissertation on the Construction and Properties of Arches*, by G. Atwood, Esq., F. R. S., 1801,) it appears, that the theory of arches may be inferred from geometrical construction, depending only on the known properties of the wedge, and other elementary laws of mechanics, without having recourse to the more abstruse branches of geometry in explaining this practical subject, to which a more direct and obvious method of inference seems better adapted. According to this method of construction, each part of the arch will partake of the necessary properties of equilibration, contributing additional strength and security to the whole structure. Mr. Atwood's theory is explained in plate VII. fig. 2, where KCGA, DPGA, DBFE, represent three of the sections or wedges which form an arch; the lower curve of which passes through the points C, A, B, E, &c. The wedges, voussoirs, or arch stones, are also, for brevity, denoted by the letters B, A, and C, respectively. The highest wedge of the arch is GADH, which (being here considered isosceles,) is terminated on each side by the lines DB, GA, inclined to each other at the angle BOA, which is termed, for the sake of distinction, the angle of the wedge or section. The termination of this wedge on the lower side, is the line HA; the extremities of which coincide with the curve of the arch, and on the upper part, by the horizontal line DG, parallel to BA. If therefore DG is bisected in the point V, a line VO, joining the points V and O, will be perpendicular to the horizon. In like manner, the inclination of the sides KC, GA, forms the angle of the wedge C, and the inclination of the two sides DB, FE, is the angle of the wedge B. In the construction of arches, the angles of the sections are commonly made equal to each other; but in a general investigation of the subject, it will be expedient to consider the angles of the sections of any magnitude, in general, either as quantities given for forming the equilibrium of the arch, by the adjustment of their weights, or as quantities to be inferred, from having the weights of their sections given.

The wedge A, when unimpeded, endeavour by its gravity to descend in the direction of the line VO, but is prevented from falling by the pressure of the wedges on each side of it, acting in the direction of the lines PQ, KI, perpendicular to the surfaces DB, GA, respectively.

By the principles of statics, it is known, that if the force PQ, or its equal KI, should be to half the weight of the wedge, in the same proportion which the line OD bears to VD, that is in the proportion of the radius to the sine of half the angle of the wedge VOD, the weight of the wedge will be exactly counterpoised by these forces; and conversely, if any wedge is sustained in equilibrio, by forces applied

perpendicularly to the sides, there forces must be to the weight of the wedge in the proportion which has been stated.

It is to be observed, that all pressures are estimated in a direction perpendicular to the surfaces impressed; for if the direction of the pressure be oblique, it may be resolved into a force perpendicular to the surface, and some other force, which neither increases or diminishes the pressure.

These theorems of Dr. Hutton and Mr. Atwood establish their first propositions upon such simple principles, that there can be no doubt of the correctness of the results, nor of their practical utility in the construction of arches.

Dr. Hutton's theory does not however pay any attention to the circumstance of thickness in the arch, or the extrados of the voussoirs, but considers it rather in the relation of an iron rod, than of the nature of a stone or brick arch. Mr. Atwood, on the contrary, considers the subject as in relation, practically, to stone and brick arches, and theoretically as to arches in the abstract.

Another very useful practical theorem to find the pressure of an arch, is laid down by Rieu, in his short principles for the architecture of stone Bridges, which seems to have prepared the way for Mr. Atwood's more philosophical method. See plate VII. fig. 5.

If we consider the arch YAZ, having a number of equal voussoirs, these voussoirs are cut in such a manner that their joints prolonged unite in the centre of the semicircle; so that the voussoirs being wider at their convex parts than at their concave, must be looked upon as wedges which support one another, and mutually resist the efforts of their weights which dispose them to fall.

Now, let OADF, mark the centres of gravity of these several voussoirs, and beginning at the key-stone draw through the points A and O, a line AV, perpendicular upon the face C, and through the points A and D, draw another perpendicular AP. Upon the side B, draw likewise another, DQ upon the face E; and suppose perpendiculars drawn upon the face of every voussoir. This stated, consider the key-stone as supported by the two adjoining voussoirs, as by two inclined planes; it acts in the same manner as a wedge, which being introduced into a body tends to separate it in two, by an effort which is made according to the directions AB and AC, perpendiculars to the two inclined planes BI and CI. For one may here take the weight of the wedge for the power which acts upon it. Thus the two powers which sustain the sides BI and CI, in equilibrium, against the force of the wedge, will act according to the directions of AP and AV, which are perpendiculars to the faces of the same; and as these directions unite at the centre of gravity A, where it is supposed that the whole weight or power of the wedge is collected, it may then be asserted, that these sustaining powers require no much the more force, as the angles PAI and VAI will be more open, or, which is just the same, as the faces BI and CI are less inclined from the vertical AI; for if the sides of the key-stone were infinitely little inclined, or were almost perpendicular to the horizon, the direction of the powers P and V, being in this case in one right line directly opposite to each, it would require an extreme degree of force to support the weight of A, taken for that of the key-

BRIDGE.

Estimate of Dr. Hutton and Mr. Atwood's theory.

Rieu's theorem.

BRIDGE stone; whereas the more the angles are acute, formed by P A and V A, upon the line A I, the less power will be requisite, since their directions not being then so opposite one to the other in a right line, they will net the more forcibly to support the weight at A.

What has been here shewn for the key-stone, may also be considered for the voussours D and O. Let us take the voussour D, for example, which having by construction the figure of a wedge, will likewise endeavour to drive off the adjoining faces, but not so forcibly as E, as A acts upon B; because the plane E I being more inclined than the plane B I from the vertical A I, the angle Q D K, formed by the Q D and D K, is more acute than P A I. In the same manner the voussour F will make still less effort against the face G, than the foregoing one D, against the face E; because the angle R F L is more acute than the angle Q D K. Now, as all the sustaining powers from the key-stone to that which is laid horizontally upon the pier, will always take effect according to such directions as will make the angles more acute upon the perpendiculars, let fall from the centres of gravity of the voussours, their efforts will go on in diminishing; and as these powers have been supposed equivalent to the efforts of the voussours, it then follows, that the voussours act with less power according to their several declinations from the key-stone to the pier.

It must however be observed, that the voussour which is above another, has more power to push than under one, than this has to drive it off; and as the voussours from the key-stone to the springing of the arch, act gradually with a less degree of force upon those which are immediately under them, the uppermost always diminishes its power, as the planes E I and G I are more inclined to the horizon; because these planes support a greater weight, consequently that which tends to fall takes less effect against the resisting power; so that the efforts of all the voussours, in descending from the key-stone to the impost, diminish in the same proportion as they increase in ascending from the impost to the key-stone.

As there must be upon the base of the pier a point wherein terminate all the efforts of the half arch, it must be remarked, that this point coincides with the prop S, and must be looked upon as the fulcrum or point of a lever, which, indeed, is not sensible to the eye, but is not less so in reality, as will appear by what follows.

If the shoot or drift of an arch was not divided along each quarter of the circle A Y and A Z, but was all fixed to the two points, as Y and Z, this would produce on both sides such a bended lever as Y S H, whose powers would be applied to the extremity Y, of the arm S Y; and the weight which is equivalent to the strength or resistance of the pier at the extremity H, of the arm S H. But as there is as many powers as there are voussours, excepting the two Y and Z, which have no shoot because of their horizontal situation upon the impost; therefore every power must have its own particular lever, and its lever may be expressed by a line placed in its stead. Now, as these lines can be no other than the perpendiculars S P, S Q, S R, drawn so upon the lines of direction of the sustaining powers P D, Q F, R G, from the fulcrum S, it is easily perceived to what all this mechanism is reduced; so that to proportion the thickness

of a pier to the shoot of an arch, the effort of each voussour must be known, with respect to its own absolute weight, and the perpendiculars S P, S Q, S R, &c.

Three consequences may be drawn from this able practical theorem, namely:

1. That in an arch whose voussours are not connected by any cement, the narrower they are at their heads or convex parts, the greater drift the arch will have; for the more their faces approach to the vertical A I, the longer will be the perpendiculars S P, S Q, and S R, which are taken as the several arms of the levers, and this will accordingly increase the drift of the arch.

2. That the thicker the arch is at the vertex, the greater will be the drift of the arch; for this increases the weight of the voussours nearest to the vertical A I, and consequently they will make a greater effort to fall.

3. That the higher the piers are from their bases to their imposts, they must be made wider, the better to resist the shoot of the arches, which is increased by the levers S P, S Q, S R being made longer from every additional height of the pier.

The mode of describing the extrados and the intrados of a semicircular arch is also well given by the same author, as follows: see plate VII. fig. 4. From the centre A set off A B, equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ a, the breadth of the archivolt, or thickness of the key-stone at the vertex; let the joint B serve for the centre of an eccentric circle to describe the heads, or convex sides of the voussours, with the interval $\frac{1}{2}$ B. Those each voussour declining from $\frac{1}{2}$ a towards C d, and lower, requiring a due additional weight, will also gain the desired property. This mode was skillfully adopted by Labeyrie, and practised by him at Westminster Bridge.

These theorems agree so well, and there is such perfect harmony between them in their results, although Dr. Hutton no where alludes to the thickness of the voussours in his theorem, that they may be safely recommended as sure guides in the practical construction of stone Bridges. The next consideration will be the component parts of a stone or brick Bridge.

Of the parts of a Stone Bridge.

A Bridge of brick or stone, or of similar materials, Of the is composed of the following parts; namely, two parts of a abutments; one or more apertures, for the passage of the stone waters, covered over for a road-way, sometimes by lintols or architraves, and sometimes by arches; two or more piers to sustain the lintols, architraves or arches; and a road-way, with or without raised foot-paths; and a parapet. These are all the necessary component parts of a Bridge, but are all essentially different in different sorts of Bridges; with respect to the materials, the situation of places, to the more or less abutments they may require, to the weight of bodies, and to the good or bad foundations that they will require according to circumstances.

Other parts of a Stone Bridge are more ornamental Ornaments than necessary to its safety as a structure: such are the archivolts with which the voussours of some are decorated; the moulded imposts from which the arches spring; the balusters, cornices, columns, entablatures, masks to key-stones, &c. &c.

The buttments or abutments of a Bridge are the Abutments

BRIDGE.
Consequences of the preceding theorem.

Method of finding the extrados of a semicircular arch.

Essentials.

BRIDGE. extremities by which it is joined to the main land or sides of a river, and are sometimes natural, and sometimes artificial. Natural abutments are rocks sufficiently high on the banks of the river; or solid earth, &c. capable of resisting the drift or shoot of the arch or arches, according to the disposition of the place, and the wants of the Bridge. These must be made secure, immovable, and rather more than sufficient to resist the drift of the adjoining arch; for if ever the motto "A little stronger than strong enough" be requisite, it is in the selection or construction of the abutments of a Bridge; for if these and the foundations should happen to dance, it will mar, as Sir Henry Wotton quaintly observes, all the mirth of the house. If the situation does not afford natural or sufficient abutments, they must be constructed with proper walls of brickwork or masonry, with wings, returns, &c.

The thickness of abutments barely sufficient to resist the shoot or drift of the arch, are to be calculated according to Dr. Hutton's tenth proposition; as that of a pier as follows. See plate VII. fig. 5. Let IKD A be the half arch, and IHG L the pier to support it, moveable about the point G , and bisected by the perpendicular EF .

Through the centre of gravity of the arch $AIKD$, draw MN perpendicular to AQ the semispan, and meeting DN drawn parallel to AQ in N , and continue AQ to meet GI in B .

Put $a = DK$, $b = DQ = MN$, $e = AM$, $A =$ the area or section $AIKD$ of the arch, $dAL = BG$, $e = FB$, and $x = AB = GL$ the required breadth of the pier.

The Doctor then adds a few examples, one of which will serve for quotation. His calculation is in numbers, and shews the manner, and points out the easiest method of calculation.

Supposing the arch, in the figure to the proposition, to be a semicircle, whose versed sine is forty-five feet, and consequently its chord ninety feet; also suppose the thickness DK at top to be six feet, and the height LA in the springing eighteen feet; and let it be required to find the thickness GL of the pier, necessary to resist the drift of the arch.

This will be immediately found by his first corollary,

in which AQ is = 45, $AL = 18$, and $n = \frac{r}{a} = \frac{45}{6} = 7\frac{1}{2}$.

Then the first expression $AQ \times \sqrt{\left(\frac{AL}{21} \times \frac{21 + 2n}{AQ + (AQ + AL)n}\right)}$ will become

$\frac{540}{\sqrt{2415}} = 10.988$ or nearly eleven feet, for the thickness of the pier when dry.

And the latter expression $AQ \times \sqrt{\left(\frac{AL}{21} \times \frac{21 + 2n}{-AQ + (AQ + AL)n}\right)}$ will give

$\frac{540}{\sqrt{2163}} = 11.61$ feet for the thickness when eighteen feet under water.

As this method gives but the bare thickness of the pier sufficient to carry the arch, it must always be made of somewhat larger dimensions.

Gautier, in his *Traité des Ponts*, gives the following problem for determining the thickness to be given

to the abutments, but calculated only for a Bridge of a single arch; because should the Bridge contain many others it is never but the efforts of the two extreme arches which are considered; for all the intervening arches should mutually maintain an equilibrium in their drift one against another. See plate VII. fig. 6. Prolong the diameter MA indefinitely to C , raise the perpendicular AD indefinitely at A .

Draw AE to the middle of the arch, and with the aperture AE , from the fixed point A describe the quadrant DEB , this will cut AM in B , and AD in D . Now A, B, A, E , and A, D are equal from construction, being radii of the same circle; make AC equal to AB . Then draw BD to cut the hypothenuse in I ; from I let fall the perpendicular IL upon AD , this will be the half of A, B . From the point E draw EG indefinitely, to cut AD in H , and carry IL from H to G for the thickness of the abutment, which is described by the figure $GVHA$.

The demonstration of Gautier's problem is as follows. Demonstrate It will appear, upon examining this figure, that C, B being on a level, and AB being considered as a beam, it cannot remain in that situation if there is not opposed to it, from A to C , an equal power on the other side of A , taken as its fulcrum; but AC is equal to AB in power, weight, or length, &c. then A, C keeps A, B in equilibrium. Now, let us suppose A, C of a power equal to ninety degrees. Then, imagine A, B raised perpendicularly upon itself at A , as A, D , so that inclining neither to one side or the other, it neither shoots towards B or C , therefore it requires no power to sustain it. But as it lay horizontally at first, from A to B , its power is supposed to be expressed by ninety degrees.

But let it be raised to AE , between A, D of no degrees, and A, B of ninety degrees, it will in this case have its power expressed by the mean portion of the power A, D of no degrees, and of A, B of ninety degrees, which is forty-five degrees; so that the power of A, E is forty-five degrees, and therefore the half of A, B , which is A, N , is sufficient to counterpoise the beam A, B at this elevation of AE . Now A, N, I, L , or I, L, G are equal by construction, so that A, B being to A, D as I, L to L, D , the drift A, E of the arch A, E, M will be I, G , as that of the beam A, B , in an horizontal position was A, C .

The abutments of the lower arches are determined by a similar construction.

Practical principles of Bridges.

Of the Apertures for the passage of the Water, and Of the their Coverings. The openings formed by the piers, and left for the passage of the waters are sometimes covered by lintols or architraves; but in modern and more scientific modes, by arches of various denominations.

The openings of a Bridge should be as few in number, and as wide in dimensions as the height and situation will allow; for the purpose of leaving a larger and more free passage for the water and navigation, and also to save expense in materials and labour, and there will be fewer centres and piers, and less cubical dimensions of materials.

After the abutments, the piers are the next objects in construction and concern.

The piers of a Bridge are the walls, built for the support of the arches, and from which they spring as

BRIDGE. their basis. The constituent parts of a pier are, its foundation, its base, its shaft or body, and its impost or capital. The constructions of piers are the most important portions of the architecture of stone Bridges, and require the most consideration in designing and apportioning their proper dimensions and situations, and the utmost skill in their execution.

Situation of piers. Before the situation of the piers is determined, the following important considerations require the architect's deepest attention.

Plan. 1. *The Plan*, which should embrace a correct map of the situation intended for the Bridge, and should express very correctly the extent of the water, at ebb and flood, if a tide river, neap and spring high water marks, and extraordinary floods as near as can be obtained. It should also point out the lines of variation of the soil, the banks, channel, and bed of the river, the river itself for some distance above and below the intended site, and the roads or streets which form the access to the Bridge at either end, and their immediate connections. Besides having the soundings, borings, a section of the main road and river, shewing the banks and other essential remarks correctly figured thereon.

This plan being made, and the situation determined upon, best adapted to the local circumstances and necessities of the spot; as if in a town or city by its streets, and in the country by the adjacent roads, the architect has to form his design thereon.

Site. The site or place for the Bridge being determined on, should then be staked out with poles, hoops, and other marks, at distances not exceeding six feet apart; and an accurate section of the bed of the river, and borings of the soil should also be taken.

Oblique Bridges. The Bridge should at all times, where possible, be placed at right angles, or in a direction perpendicular with the stream in a direct line, to give free passage to the water, and also because thereby the piers present the smallest obstacle to the current. Some writers have, however, recommended that Bridges should be built not in a straight line, but convex to the stream, as better calculated to resist floods, &c. "and some arch," says Dr. Hutton, "have been built." In other cases it may however be expedient to imitate the Bridge at Rimini, where the piers are parallel with the stream, although the Bridge is not at right angles thereto. Such Bridges are now not uncommon where roads cross rivers or canals at oblique angles, and are called oblique Bridges.

Boring the bed of the river. The soundings of the depths or present bed of the river being taken, the next operation will be to take soundings or borings of the bed, to ascertain its capability of supporting the piers. These soundings or borings are taken with iron rods, headed with four barbs, which will bring up specimens of the soil as it descends. The soil and its capabilities having been ascertained, the architect may now safely proceed with the designs and specifications for his foundations.

Materials. The quality, quantity, and localities of the several materials fitting for use to be had in the vicinity must next be determined, and their expense of purchase, working, and carriage ascertained. The quality of the lime, sand, and other materials for the cements should be most carefully investigated, and the best selected.

These important preliminary steps having been adjusted, the next proceeding will be to lay the founda-

tations of the piers. The most obvious and simple method of laying the foundations of a Bridge, and raising the piers up to the high water mark, is to turn the river out of its course above the place of the bridge, into a new channel, cut for it near the place where it makes an elbow or turn; then the piers are built on dry ground, in the usual manner, and the water returned to its original channel when they are finished.

Scamozzi thinks that Apollodorus must of necessity have had recourse to this method in building Trajan's Bridge over the Danube, and that he selected a bend of the river where it made a peninsula, and cut a canal through the isthmus, laying his foundations dry.

This method is undoubtedly the best and safest, as it will allow time for the work to proceed leisurely, and always on a dry bottom, but there are many cases in which it cannot.

The next method apparently to that of turning the course of the channel, is to lay the place appointed for a pier as dry as possible till it be built, by surrounding the spot with piles and planks driven down into the bed of the river so closely together as to exclude the water from coming in. The water is then to be pumped out of the enclosed place, the pier built in it, and lastly the piles and planking drawn. These enclosures for the foundations of piers are called coffer-dams.

Coffer-dams are made in various manners, either by a single enclosure or by a double one, with puddling of clay, chalk, or other cement rammed in between the two, to prevent the water from coming in between them. Coffer-dams are also constructed either with piles only, driven close to each other; or with piles of whole timber, at least twelve inches square, called grouting piles, at the distance of about two feet from each other and five feet from the intended platform. They are driven to a sufficient depth into the bed of the river to obtain solidity, and grooved to receive the pile planks, which are driven grooved to each other, while the centre one is made wedge-wise, simultaneously and the centre one driven home, tightens the whole. The method of building in coffer-dams cannot well be used where the river is either very deep or rapid. It also requires a very good natural bottom of solid earth or clay; for although the sides be made water tight, if the bottom or bed of the river be of a loose consistence, the water will ooze up through it in too great abundance to be evacuated by the engines.

A great improvement is effected in coffer-dams by means of that miracle of modern science the steam engine.

Reports or journals of proceedings in executing difficult works, such as piers, moles, foundations of Bridges, &c. are always to be considered as valuable additions to practical science. The following account of the rebuilding of Essex Bridge, Dublin, may be taken as an excellent practical illustration of the science of Bridge building.

Samuel, who built this handsome and substantial Bridge over the Liffey, published a valuable and ingenious journal of his proceedings, difficulties, and confessions of his want of knowledge. But he succeeded in building one of the handsomest structures of the kind in Europe. It is in design a mere copy of

BRIDGE. Foundations of the piers. Various methods. Turning the channel.

Coffer-dams.

Foundations of Essex Bridge, Dublin.

BRIDGE. Labeyle's Westminster Bridge, which Sempie imitated so closely as to avoid the imputation of plagiarism, by confessing that in his opinion a young man will gain a greater reputation by being a humble copier of an ingenious artist, than to pretend to excel every one by the fertility of his own imagination. His success after many appalling difficulties, was so great that a knowledge of them will render similar operations comparatively easy task. Sempie was, however, a man of genius; and although he copied his elevation from Labeyle, the construction of Essex Bridge by coffer-dams, and a continued foundation, while that of Westminster, then just finished, was by caissons, proves him to have possessed great practical skill, and a mind fertile in resources, and a steady patience, most requisite to the architectural engineer.

Continued
foundations.

He took Alberti for his master, and followed his observation, that the best architects used to make a continued foundation of the whole length of the Bridge, and not only under each pier; and this they did, not by shutting out the whole pier at once by one single enclosure, but by first making one part, then another, and so joining the whole together by degrees; for it would be impossible to withstand and repulse the whole force of the water at once.

In the year 1751, Mr. Sempie being employed on a temporary repair of Essex Bridge, was encouraged by several members of the Corporation of Dublin to engage in rebuilding it, which somewhat alarmed him, as he was much engaged in his profession as an architect, and was probably aware of those deficiencies of his knowledge, which he afterwards so ingenuously confesses and feelingly laments. He was endowed by nature with the best qualities for an architectural engineer; perseverance, a contempt for mere gain, a strong desire to gain knowledge in difficult matters of arts and science, and an unconquerable feeling that the greater the difficulty the greater the conquest. To complete his preparatory studies for his great work he visited London, bought all the best books on the science which he could procure, saw the new Bridge at Westminster, then a phenomenon of the art, and returned to Dublin to commence his work. He commenced his operations by taking a plan of the old Bridge as it was in 1751, when he commenced his temporary repairs, with some of the borings or soundings into the bed of the river, as also the soundings above and below it.

He took these soundings in the following manner. He had a ship's hawser strained very tight from quay to quay, to which he moored his boat, and over that, at a proper height, he had a tight rope marked in ten feet divisions and numbered. He had also a sounding rod, made of a piece of timber twenty-six feet long, four inches by two at the lower end, and two inches and a half by one inch and a half at the upper end. The butt-end was firmly fixed into a circular piece of wrought stone, twenty inches in diameter, and four inches thick. The rod was conspicuously marked with paint into feet and inches. Near the bottom of the rod was a hole, through which a long piece of sash cord was hove, by which the men hove the rod along, noting the depth at every division; and notwithstanding the rapidity of the tide, the site being within a short distance of the sea, they procured the soundings and profile of the bed of the river with sufficient correctness.

He bored the bed of the river in the following method. The male a series of boring rods of three pieces each, of inch square bar iron, exactly nine feet long, which, screwed together, formed a borer twenty-seven feet in length. Into the lower joint he screwed the chisel or piercer, which was well steeled, and formed with a drill-shaped point. He then affixed to it a handle like that of an auger, which slipped up and down the rod, and fastened with a screw wherever required. Practice soon taught him the inefficiency of this mode in the rapid tide of the Liffey, and he found it necessary to conduct his boring apparatus through wooden tubes of six inches outer diameter, of different lengths, with iron ferrules at the lower end to drive into the bed of the river, and an iron hoop at the head to keep it from splitting. He also erected several boards of plank, twelve or fourteen inches broad, marked conspicuously with the soundings in feet and inches, some upwards and some downwards from the low water mark.

He frequently kept several pipes driven down to one time of different lengths to answer the heights of the tide, always observing to minute down the exact spot or site of each of them in the plan, and they were all numbered so that he could not mistake. During these operations he found the necessity, when boring through sharp or quick sands, not to let his rods have any respite; for when he did the sand set so fast upon his augers that the men could not move them, and were obliged to unscrew the upper joint, and leave the piercer and the lower joint in the ground. In his interesting particulars of the rebuilding of Essex Bridge in Dublin, he marks all his soundings and borings on the plan, and gives detailed tables and a journal of his proceedings, with judicious remarks on the cause of the failure of the old Bridge.

From these borings he ascertained the state of the bed of the river, its component parts, and substrata, and its capacity of sustaining the Bridge which he had to construct. The results were, that a neglect of such important precautions had occasioned the downfall of the old Bridge, which had been lately erected by Sir Humphrey Jervis in 1676; and the destruction of all hopes of building a substantial Bridge in that situation, without removing all the loose fluctuating substances, as coarse sand, gravel, mud, &c. of which the bed of the river was composed.

Would architects always use such foresight as this, they would not have cause to complain with Blondel, that whatever precautions an architect may take for the security of foundations of any fabric, yet herein he works with great uncertainty, and merely by conjecture; nor conclude with Gautier, that it is next to an impossibility to answer for the foundations of an edifice.

Mr. Sempie divided the breadth of the river into twenty-eight borings, and pierced in every one down to the solid rock, which he found extended quite across the river. The loose fluctuating bed of the river before mentioned, was from twelve to nearly twenty feet in thickness, before his piercers touched the rock; to which he found it necessary to go, to form a solid foundation for a Bridge, which he enthusiastically says he intended and declared to build, that should last as long as the neighboring sugar-loaf mountain. But how or by what means to get that object accomplished in such a rapid river, particularly on the north side,

BRIDGE. where he found the rock in some places upwards of twenty-seven feet under high water, was a circumstance which quite confounded him, and threatened to frustrate his noble intentions.

To conquer these apparently insurmountable difficulties, and to accomplish the object of his ambition, engrossed his whole attention. Schemes and projects crowded across his mind, and made deep impressions on his imagination. He stood almost alone, Bridge building was not then much in practice, and he could call on no consultation of fellow practitioners. In this distressed situation he had recourse to the books which he brought from London. They told him only to make an enclosure, which he thought equivalent to telling a man who wished to measure time to make a clock, who had never seen any kind of machine for that purpose; and when the apprehensions of the danger to the workmen, should his self-designed, self-taught schemes of an enclosure not withstand the tide, occurred to him, his self-gratulations vanished, and left him like a vessel without a rudder.

However in forming his architectural design for the Bridge, he acknowledges that he found himself plentifully stored with precedents; yet after all he dedicated in justice to Mr. Labeleye, that in his mind Westminster Bridge deserved the preference; therefore, except in a few trifling particulars, he took it for his precedent.

His next step was to form a plan shewing the piers of the old Bridge, and those of the new laid down together, not only to inform himself of the exact parts of the bed of the river as they then were, but as they were to be occupied by their respective piers; and also to consider and compare them together, with regard to their solids and voids. See plate VII. fig. 8.

The arches of the old Bridge, seven in number, occupied a space of one hundred and seventy feet six inches, and the six piers sixty-five feet; while the five arches of the new Bridge occupy a space of two hundred feet, and the solids of the four piers only thirty-four feet, making an increase in water-way of nearly thirty feet. His plan and elevation so nearly resemble those of Westminster Bridge, that it is unnecessary to describe or delineate them.

After these deliberations Mr. Sempie preferred the method of laying his foundations in coffer-dams, as practised by the best architectural engineers in France, in their greatest works, namely, the Bridges of Orleans and Neuilly, to that of caissons, which had then been practised with a mixed success, by Labeleye at Westminster: and if we may judge of success by results, Essex Bridge speaks decisively in favour of its ingenious constructor.

Having decided upon coffer-dams, Sempie being driven by the resources of his own fertile mind, commenced his general plan of operation in laying the foundations, by forming a coffer-dam in the following manner. See plate VII. fig. 9. A is the enclosure or coffer-dam formed round the north abutment, and the first and second piers, reckoning from the north. He contrived it so that the part A served for both the north and south dams. B is the pit which he sunk to commence operations at the north end. C the pool for the pumps to drain the dam. D the waste trunk.

In designing Essex Bridge, Mr. Sempie conceived that it was absolutely necessary to depart from one of Alberti's rules; "that the Bridge should be as broad

as the street which leads to it," because the street at the southern end of the Bridge, now called Capel-street, was but twenty-seven feet broad, and considering the great increase of the city, he thought it should not be made less than fifty-one from out to West. Westminster Bridge is but forty-four; but the *Pont Royal* at Paris is fifty-two feet broad, which led him to think of forming a plan to get a street opened in a direct line of fifty-one feet broad from the Bridge to the castle, answerable to the breadth of the Bridge, which would then be in conformity with Alberti's rule, which he was afraid of breaking. Anxious to procure his information from the best sources, he again visited London, for the purpose of discovering the methods which were at that time in agitation for opening new streets in London and Westminster; as well as to consult competent persons, and to procure advice concerning his intended enclosure for laying the foundations, and other business connected with the works.

He soon procured the acts of Parliament, and other documents concerning widening of streets, but was disappointed concerning his proposed enclosure for laying his foundations dry; for after all his most zealous endeavours, his friends gave him no sort of encouragement, and having laid his plans, soundings, and borings before Mr. Labeleye, that able engineer freely told him that he did not by any means approve of that method of laying foundations in coffer, as he called Sempie's enclosure, and assured him that it would not answer his purpose. Not to be baffled or turned from his purpose by trivial opposition or objections without reasons, he hastened to Ransgate to his more intimate friends Messrs. Eldridge and Parsons, who were then carrying on the pier at that port, being desirous of obtaining their opinions, particularly those of the former, who had been not long before sent to Ireland to design a Bridge for Calcutta, and had also been employed by the corporation of Dublin to report on the ruins of Essex Bridge. Sempie, therefore, was justly convinced that there was no other person in England that could be so good a judge of what he now ventured to call, after Mr. Labeleye, his coffer-dams. Neither of these skilful engineers gave him any encouragement; but told him that as neither of them had seen that method practised, they could not sanction it for want of precedents, advised caution, and not to spare timber.

On his return to Dublin he immediately proceeded to sum up and reconsider all the knowledge which he had acquired concerning coffer-dams; the result of which was that he found himself exactly at the point whence he had started. His inventive talents had projected a coffer-dam of such power and originality, as puzzled the precedent mongers, and alarmed himself. Fortunately at this juncture he obtained, through a friend in Paris, Belidor's fourth volume of *Hydraulique Architecture*, then just published, together with the other three volumes of that useful work, and a perspective view of the men at work in a coffer-dam of the great Bridge then building at Orleans. The language he was a stranger to, but his motto being, "The greater the difficulty, the greater the conquest," he turned over the plates, and received confidence on his plans from his quick perception of Belidor's construction of coffer-dams. He then immediately commenced his undertaking with vigour, and completed it with success.

BRIDGE. The scientific men of England were at this time divided about the question of enissons and coffer-dams. Labeley, who was building the new Bridge at Westminster, headed the Caisson faction, and asserted that it was impossible to make a dam sufficiently staunch for the work. Semple, however, persevered in his enclosure or battre-deau, having acquired great confidence in his scheme, and firmly believing that of all the methods that had been invented, none were so secure, nor so pleasant to execute, as that of building and laying foundations of Bridges on terra firma. He therefore began in January, 1733, to stop up and demolish the old Bridge, and to remove the equestrian statue of George I. which had been erected in 1722: previously making an estimate of the expense, which he had calculated at twenty thousand pounds, and promised that he would not exceed twenty thousand five hundred pounds; and made a declaration to the Commissioners of the Bridge, the Lords Justices, the Committee of the Irish House of Commons, and to the public, through the newspapers; that he would build them a Bridge that should stand as long as the sugar-loaf mountain, which is so conspicuous from the beautiful bay of Dublin; that the expense should not exceed twenty thousand five hundred pounds; that he would have a road over it for carriages opened within two years from the day of stopping up the old Bridge.

In February of the same year he drove the first pile of his much discussed coffer-dam, and having passed the Rubicon of enissons and battre-deaux, he continued his operations and finished his dam. He was proceeding very successfully, till on the 28th of April a violent land-flood came down from the mountain streams which run into the Liffey, which drove the men from their work; and while he was on the top of the dam he felt the whole rise, and it was immediately torn up and scattered all over the river.

Not to be disheartened, he recommenced and completed in a secure manner his coffer-dam across half the river, by the 4th of June, and built the foundations of the Bridge and the piers within it in the following manner. He first constructed frames of oak timber of ten inch scantling, the exact shape of the pier, with rough two inch oak planks dove-tailed across it, in every three or four feet, and planed to the frame; and on these planks he stretched other planks lengthways, but not so thick. These frames so made, he had dragged to their proper situations, and let them rest upon the natural bed of the river.

He next proceeded to the north abutment, which was an operation which he justly feared would be attended with very great danger, because he had a great depth to sink, and very little room to sink upon, without depriving the public of the carriage-way upon the north quay. His method of combating the difficulties, and keeping up the breast of the bank or quay, will be best understood from the engraving. See plate VII. fig. 10. A is the line of pavement on the quay. B high water mark, nine feet four inches below the pavement. C low water mark, ten feet lower. D bottom of the pit or excavation for the foundations, eleven feet more, making a total depth of thirty-one feet four inches. E is the projection of the breast work, which is ten feet, which he divided into four equal parts of two feet six inches to each stage. He then strained a line crossing the site of the proposed Bridge at right angles, and ten feet from the back of the abutment,

sinking about three feet, and driving in a row of piles close to the bank, which he pured so as just to admit the sheeting between the bank and the piles; and when they had sunk eight feet in this manner, he made his first offset, and so proceeded downwards as shewn in the plate. He then proceeded with his masonry for the continued foundation through the whole length of the Bridge; and after many experiments found his coffer-dam to answer all his expectations. He excavated all the loose fluctuating subsoil down to the solid soil on the rock, which stretched all across the river on an inclination of about eighteen feet on the southern side to zero on the other, as shewn in the sectional elevation, plate VII. fig. 7. After the foundation had been continued through, as far as his coffer-dam admitted, he proceeded with the north abutment pier, as shewn in plate VII. fig. 11, wherein F shows the upper surface of the rock, G the stratum of fine sandy loam, three feet six inches thick upon the rock, and upon which he began the rough stone work. If the last course of rough stone work, which is laid with very large stones carefully heided and wrought close on the join a, to guard the continued foundation between the piers, from ever being displaced, or torn up by the water, which is about four feet deep at low water. ii are the ends of three four inch planks which were stretched quite across the foundation, and on which the sills of the centres rested. Fig. 12, is the plan of the coffer-dam with the sheeting nailed to the piles, just ready to receive the clay; fig. 13 represents the section of it in the middle of the Bridge; A low, and B high water marks, and it is in this place seventeen feet broad, but that breadth diminishes to twelve feet up, and fourteen feet down the river, as may be observed in fig. 9 of the same plate; and also that the extreme ends of it are let into the quay walls, so as the clay of the dam and the earth of the banks may be united together.

The braces C are only to be used occasionally, for all the stays ought to be kept clear, and in case any part of the bed of the river should prove softer than another, and the dam incline to one side more than to the other, drive down the pile e, into the bed of the river D, and then by the help of a rope and a boat hook, guide the point of the shoe of the brace-pile f, into a kind of matrice, or a hole made for it in the pile e, at the surface of the bed of the river; and if the pressure is great, then spike on the slash or plank g, and if necessary spike it to the dam at h, and all this might be done on the outside of the dam also. Fig. 1 and 2 of plate VIII. shews the plan and elevation of the foundation of the west end of the north pier, with the rough masonry wrought up about the piles, and enclosed with a row of six inch dove-tailed piles, as shewn in fig. 6, which were cut off at the surface of the continued foundation, as shewn in fig. 2, at C to guard it. The other two rows of piles and their sheeting held the clay, which together make the inner coffer or pit. Fig. 2 shews a sectional elevation of the same, wherein A is the rock, B the bottom of the rough masonry, C low water mark, eleven feet above B. Fig. 3, of the same plate, shews the bond of the wrought masonry, in the lowest or first chained course of the pier, covered over with large thick stones home to the dove-tailed piles, the surface of which is four feet six inches beneath low water mark. Figs. 4 and 5 exhibit the manner of

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BRIDGE. laying the bond of the wrought masonry in the other two chain courses. The chain of the first course was nearly three inches square, and the chains of the other two about two inches square, and all sunk their full depth, and run with lead. Fig. 6 is the manner in which Sempie constructed his dove-tailed piles round the piers in the manner which Belidor used, and figs. 7 and 8, two different modes of making grooved and dove-tailed piles. Fig. 9, of the same plate, exhibits the northernmost pier of the centre arch standing on the continued foundation; fig. 10, the centre arch, two sides, and foundation, of which A is the rock, B the natural bed of the river, C the continued foundation, D five rows of oak piles, driven down to the rock with a grating of timber over them worked into the masonry, E the grating under the southernmost pier, F low, and G high water mark. Fig. 11 the plan of the roadway, parapets, recesses, &c.

He thus proceeded carefully and judiciously, till he opened the Bridge to the public in general, on the 10th of April 1755, two years and eighty days since they were deprived of the use of the old Bridge.

Having said thus much upon the theory and practice of building the foundations of Bridges by cofferdams, and given an abstract of the proceedings in building those of Essex Bridge, Dublin, the next method of constructing them which we shall notice is that by caissons.

Caissons.

Building in caissons, which has been practised so successfully by Labeyrie in the construction of Westminster Bridge, and by Milne in that at Blackfriars, seems to be but an improvement on various methods practised of old by illiterate country masons, who have built good rough stone Bridges over shallow waters, and some of them in rivers that may be reckoned deep. This rough mode of building has been, and is still practised in Ireland, which is much intersected by rivers of fluctuating depths. Alberti gives directions for such clumsy contrivances for rivers subject to mountain floods. A few of these methods may be cited as useful and practicable in shallow fresh water rivers, whose streams are low in autumn. The first is *Kerk-work*, which is a large kind of baskets called keshes, made of the boughs and branches of trees, about the size of four or five feet square. These are sunk in rows, by filling them with stones till they ground, and then filling them till the water is about knee deep; whereon they lay timber across, and so begin to build their piers, banking the keshes all round with other stones, and hard materials thrown in, in like manner. Second, *Keve-work*, which is by constructing large vessels of yellow deal boards, hooped with iron and strong oak hoops, which they fill and sink in like manner, filling the vacancies between the circles, and banking them round with the like rude stones, &c. Third, *Chest-work*, which is making large chests of five or six feet square of yellow deal plank, dove-tailed and clasped with iron at the angles; and these they also fill and bank up in like manner, which is generally esteemed by such workmen a good method, because they lie so very close to each other, and are very durable. Fourth, *Cae-work*, which is of the same nature as the last, only conducted upon a larger scale, some of them being from twelve to fifteen feet square, filled, sunk, and banked up in the same manner. These may be considered as the infant state of building foundations in caissons, which are a kind of

BRIDGE. chests, cuses, or flat-bottomed boats of a size sufficiently large to contain an entire pier, which is built therein, and the caisson so loaded sunk to the bed of the river, and the sides loosened and taken from the bottom, which is left as a foundation for the pier.

The mode of laying foundations in deep water by means of caissons, was first practised in England by Labeyrie at Westminster Bridge, and since that by Mr. Milne in that of Blackfriars. The caisson for the first large pier at Westminster Bridge, wherein the Earl of Pembroke laid the first foundation stone, was reckoned by Labeyrie to contain above one hundred and fifty load of timber, and exceeded in tonnage or cubical capacity a forty gun ship of war. The method of laying foundations in caissons requires a good bottom, very smooth and level. It was practised by the Emperor Claudius in forming the port of Ostia, and by Draguet Reij at Constantinople, for the foundations of the fine mosque which he built in the sea.

Having proceeded in the science of Bridge building as far as laying the foundations, the other parts are more mechanical and easy of execution. The foundations of the piers being complete either on their own bases, on piles, planks, gratings, on continued foundations, or on inverted arches, the erection of the piers is the next consideration.

The Piers.

Piers are masses of masonry or brickwork built on the foundations before stated, and are erected to carry the lintols, architraves, beams, arches or other apparatus to cover the apertures and form the road-way.

They should be constructed of large blocks of stone, solid throughout, and secured together by cramps and indurated cement, so as to make it as entire and as like to one solid block as possible. The height of the piers must be determined by that of the water, by that of the vessels required to pass between them, and of the road-way which is to pass over them. The method of calculating their size is given in page 812. Their shape should be suited to the site and nature of the river, but their ends should be provided with salient angles to net as cutwaters. Some architects recommend that the shape of these cutwaters should be triangular, and that they should differ in the size; and others, where heavy craft are navigated, consider semicircular cutwaters as best calculated to resist the effects of concussion; but that of a Gothic pointed arch diminishing to its apex, is perhaps the best fitted for the division of the stream, and at the same time best resists the impulse of heavy boats.

Piers have hitherto been built of too great a width, yet they ought to be such as will make them of weight or strength sufficient to support their adjacent arch independently of any other arches. Their better shape is of a broad base, and diminishing by a gently curved line every way to the springing.

The Arches.

In the most magnificent, most elegant, and most durable of Bridges, arches have always been used to Arches. cover the apertures in preference to lintols, architraves, or other contrivances.

Arches are circular, elliptical, cycloidal, parabolical, *Disomial* hyperbolical, catenarian, pointed, &c. &c. according to the figure of them. There are also semicircular, semieliptical, segmental, and compound arches of various denominations. The chief properties of the *tion of arches.*

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Arch of
equilibration.

most considerable arches, with regard to the extrados or thickness of the voussoirs, may be acquired from the proposition of Rieu, in page 611, plate VII. fig. 4.

The arch of equilibration is one of the best in theory, which is constructed according to Dr. Hutton's method as follows. The extrados being given to find the intrados. That is, having given the nature or form of a line bonding the top of a wall above an arch; to find the figure of the arch, so that by the pressure of the superincumbent wall, the whole may remain in equilibrium. See plate VII. fig. 14. Put $a = DK$ the thickness of the arch at top, $x = DP$ the absciss of the intrados DC , $z = KR$ the absciss of the given extrados KI , and $y = PC = RI$ their equal ordinates.

Then CI is $\frac{y}{x} \frac{y}{x} \frac{x}{y} \times Q$; but CI is also evidently equal to $a + x - z$; therefore $a + x - z$ is $\frac{y}{x} \frac{y}{x} \frac{x}{y} \times Q = \frac{Q}{y} \times$ the fluxion of $\frac{x}{y}$;

where Q is a constant quantity, the value of which will be determined by taking the expression for the given perpendicular DK at the vertex of the curve.

By this solution may be found the methods of equilibrating other arches, but an allowance being made for difference of material, size of arch stones, adhesion, cohesion, or the other adventitious circumstances of practice, it can never be set against the knowledge and experience of the practical Bridge builder.

Dr. Hutton's arch of equilibration, which admits of a horizontal line at the top, according to his example in proposition 5, see plate VII. fig. 14, is of a graceful and convenient form, as it may be made higher or lower at pleasure with the same opening; that it, but no other, (in theory) with a horizontal top, can be equally strong in all its parts.

Elliptical
arches.

Of the other description of arches, the elliptical arch seems to be the fittest to be substituted for the equilibrium with any degree of certainty. It is also in general the best form for most Bridges, as it can be made of any height to the same span, or of any span to the same height; while at the same time its haunches are sufficiently elevated above the water, even when it is rather flat at the top, which is a property of which the other curves are not possessed in the same degree; and this property is the more valuable, because it is well known to practical men, that after an arch is built, and the centring struck, it settles more about the haunches than the other parts, by which other curves are reduced near to a straight line at the top. Elliptical arches also look bolder, are really stronger, and require less materials and labour than the others.

Cycloidal
arches.
Circular
arches.
Parabolic,
&c.

Of the other arches, the cycloidal is perhaps the next in quality to the elliptical for all the above qualities; and lastly, the circle. As to the others, the parabola, the hyperbola, and the catenaria, they are not of much use in Bridges of a series of arches, but may be applicable to very large Bridges of a single arch, particularly the catenaria.

The Cat-
enary.

Mr. Ware, in his recent *Treatise on Vaults and Bridges*, has recommended and discussed the theory of the catenary with great ability, and particularly where it is in reference to pendent Bridges, which are in themselves real catenaries. Dr. David Gregory, in

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his celebrated essay on the Catenaria, printed in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1697, fig. 23, thinks so highly of this curve, as to assert that "none but the catenaria is the figure of a true form or legitimate arch, or furnis. And when an arch of any other figure is supported, it is because in its thickness some catenaria is included. Dr. Hutton, on the contrary, thinks all those arguments fallacious which assert, that because the catenarian curve supports itself equally in all its parts, it will therefore best support any additional weight laid upon it: for the additional building made to raise the Bridge to a horizontal line or nearly such, by pressing more on one part than another, must force those parts down, and the whole must fall. Whereas other curves, says the Doctor, will not support themselves at all, without some additional parts built over them, to balance them or to reduce their parts to an equilibrium.

A practical instance of the equilibrium of the catenary occurred recently within the knowledge of the writer of this article. A scientific gentleman of Birmingham having occasion for a close factory for the manufacture of the article called Roman vitriol, set out a piece of ground to be covered by a brick arch of considerable length, the chord of which from memory was eighteen or twenty feet, and its versed sine about twelve. He suspended a chain against a wall, the points of suspension being equal to the chord of his intended arch, and its depth equal to its versed sine. From a line traced from the chain, his carpenters made a centre, over which the bricklayers turned a single arch of nine inches only in thickness, without spandrels or other external support, its extrados being a curve parallel to its intrados at a distance of only nine inches. It is a perfectly round and beautiful piece of construction. During an absence from home, he desired another to be built like it; the self sufficient workmen varied the curve to give it more room in its haunches, or a more graceful curve, and on striking the centre it fell.

Arches cannot be turned without certain timber Centres, frames called centres, which are erected in the apertures of the Bridges to carry the voussoirs or arch stones till the key-stone forms the complete arch, and the centring is removed. Of the importance of skillfully constructed centring, and of the superiority of those designed by English artists over those of France, we may instance that on striking the centres of the Bridge at Neolly, Permett admits that the arch of one hundred and twenty French feet span sank twenty-three inches; and at Blentz of the same aperture, the sinking was twenty inches and a half. In Britain no such imperfections have been known. Westminster, Blackfriars, and Waterloo are instances to the contrary, although the centrings of the two latter are far from models of perfection. In the largest arches constructed of wrought stone under the directions of experienced men, the sinking has been scarcely discernible. In the Bridges of Dunkirk of ninety feet span, of Tonguehead of one hundred and eighteen, and of Aberdeen of one hundred and thirty feet, all by Mr. Telford, the sinking has never exceeded three inches. The superiority also of the English method of lowering the

* "Et si catenaria sola catenaria sunt formatae, nec arces legittimas: et ceterosque aliterque figuratos arces tales constructos, quod in illius crassitie quondam catenaria inclusa sit."

BRIDGE. centres by wedges over that of the French, as more fully described hereafter, is as apparent as their construction.

Qualities of a good centre. A good and efficient centre for an arch requires great skill in its formation. It must be constructed of the exact figure of the arch, convex as the arch is concave, to receive it as on a mould. It should also be constructed of a strength more than barely sufficient to bear the weight of the arch, and capable of resisting all change of form during the building of the arch. It should be capable of being easily and safely removed, and designed so that its timbers may be rendered as serviceable as possible after having performed its occupation. As examples to the student we shall give engravings and descriptions of some of the most celebrated centres.

Centre of Coldstream Bridge. The centre designed by Smeaton for the Coldstream Bridge is on the best principles; see plate IX. fig. 1. the scantlings are contrived to suit the general scantlings of timber, as was always his practice, with the view of saving labour, and of leaving the timber in as useful a state as possible when it was done with. His own description of this centre is the best illustration of the engraving. "What I had therefore in view," says this able engineer, "was to distribute the supporters equally under the bardeo, preserving at the same time such a geometrical connection throughout the whole, that if any one pile, or row of piles should settle, the incumbent weight would be supported by the rest. With respect to the scantlings, I did not so much contrive how to do with the least quantity of timber, as how to cut it with the least waste; for, as I took it for granted the centre would be constructed of east country fir, I have set down the scantlings, such as they usually are, in whole balks or cut in two lengthways." (See his Reports, vol. iii. p. 236.) The arch which it carried was of stone, its chord sixty feet eight inches, versed sine eighteen feet, and width across the vertex twenty-five feet. The ceiling consisted of five frames or ribs constructed as shears in the plate.

Centre by Mr. Telford. Fig. 2, of the same plate, represents that of Cowan Bridge designed by Mr. Telford. It is a good example of the same kind of construction. The chord is sixty-five feet, and versed sine twenty-one feet eight inches.

Centres by Perronet and Rennie. Figs. 3 and 4 are the ceilings of the Bridge of Neuilly by Perronet, compared with those of Waterloo by Rennie. The former is eminently defective, for if it was loaded at A and B, it must rise at C. The sinking of the arch is another proof. Perronet's other centres are all equally defective in constructive principle.

Centre of Waterloo Bridge. That of Waterloo, fig. 4, is a copy of those used at Blackfriars, which were found less defective than Perronet's, and of a judicious combination; but it is overloaded with timber and iron, is a very expensive construction, and does not contain a principle to resist change of force when partially loaded, as it must be when the arch is building; for a load at A must rise at C, as was found in both Blackfriars and Waterloo, where the defect was assisted by loading the crown at the centre, previous to building the haunch of the arch, which is but a clumsy and unscientific way of combating the difficulty, as the centre still undergoes a continual change of form during its progressive loading. The arch under such circumstances, of course, participates in this change of form, and its stability is thereby impaired.

Fig. 5, is a design for a centre upon very scientific principles by Mr. Tredgold, and published in his excellent *Treatise on the Elementary Principles of Carpentry*.

"Let the built beams," says Mr. Tredgold, "E F, F' F', and F' E', fig. 5, be each trussed, and abut against each other at F and F'; then it is obvious, that when the loads press equally at D', D', they will have no tendency to raise the beam F' E' in the middle, unless it be not sufficiently strong to resist the pressure in the direction of its length; and, as it is easy to give it any degree of strength that may be required, a centre of this form may, with very little variation in the trusses, be applied with advantage to any span which will admit of a stone Bridge.

Fig. 6, is a design for a centre by Mr. Elmes, in a centre by Mr. Elmes, which he has endeavoured to combine the economical mode of applying timber by Smeaton, with the other necessary requisites for the centre of a stone Bridge.

A A A represents beam built the length of the span of the arch notched down on B B B, tie-beams, running through the width of the centre, under which is inserted a series of screw wedges a a a, upon the heads of intermediate supporters, for the purpose of lowering the centre in an easy and regular manner, without that shaking and jarring to its superincumbent weight, which is occasioned by the striking of centres on the present principle; C C C are ties encastrated across, and notched upon the framings, which perform a similar office to a trussed roof, and secures them from lateral motion.

The Spandrels.

Having reached the point of turning the arches The over the apertures of a Bridge, the next thing to be Spandrels done is to construct the spandrels in a proper and scientific way. The spandrels of a Bridge are the spaces between the haunches of an arch and its vertex at the extrados, or the road-way. They are filled up variously. The French architects fill up their behind the fair masonry with stone rubble, and many of the old Bridges are found filled up with earth or gravel. Both these methods add an unnecessary weight to the arch. Others have filled up the spandrels with apertures quite through and kept open, as in the Pont y Pryd. An excellent and scientific way is to turn counter arches or tunnels on and between the main arches, and concealing them by external fair masonry.

The Parapets.

The parapets of a Bridge are the breast walls on the upper surface of the Bridge longitudinally, for the purpose of preventing passengers from falling over. The continental architects keep theirs in general low and solid; the English high and perforated. It is a matter of taste, and the true artist will make them accord in symmetry with the rest of his design.

The Road-way.

The road-way of a Bridge, if in a city, is generally The paved like the streets with raised footpaths on each Road-way side; and in the country, with gravel, &c. like their roads.

The archivolts, rustics, sculptured key-stones, balustrades, cornices, columns, and other ornamental parts, are matters of taste, and should be adapted to the general principle and design of the particular Bridge.

BRIDGE. A centre by Mr. Tredgold.

- BRIDGE. The best books for the study of this subject, and those which have been consulted for this article, are the Treatises of Leoni Battista Alberti, published in 1481; Palladio, Serlio, and Scamozzi; Ferrari, on Arches; Blondel, *Cours d'architecture*; Gautier, *Traité des Ponts*, 1728; Perronet; Ragemotte's *Account of a Bridge of thirteen large arches, built by him on the Allier at Moulma*; Cessart's *Travaux hydrauliques*; Belidor's 4th volume of his *Architecture hydraulique*; The scientific Treatises of Pareut, De la Hire and Bossut; also *Scelta di Archi*, dal Ruggieri, edit. Bouchard, 1755.; *La Verona illustrata*, 1771; Forestiere illuminando intorno le cose più rare, e curiose, antiche e moderne, della città di Venezia, 1750; *Les magnificences et les délices de Rome ancienne et moderne*, 1713; *Principi di Architetti civili*, Bassano, 1785; *Dizionario delle belle arti del disegno da Francesco Milizia*, Bassano, 1797; *Le Fabb. e. i. diug. di Palladio Scamozzi*, 1778; *Mem. degli Archi*. F. Milizia, 1761; *Le Antichità Romane*, Piranesi, 1756; Tomo 14 della Società Italiana delle Scienze del Ponte S. Trinità di Firenze, Ferroni; *L'Antiquité expliquée par Montfaucon*, 1719; *Descrip. des proj. et de la const. des Ponts*, Perronet, 1788; *Antiquités de la France*, Clerisseau, 1805; *Plans, coupes, &c. de l'Art de la Charpente*, Kraft, 1805; *Traité de la construction des Ponts*, Gauthey, 1809; *Traité Theo. et Prat. de l'Art de Bâtir*, Rondelet, 1812; *Plans, &c.* by James Paine, 1767; Abelle, *Mém. Acad. Par.* i. 159; Sebastian, *Mém. Acad. Par.* i. 163; De la Hire, *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1702, 1712; Seoes, *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1719. 363; Couplet, *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1729, 1730; Chardon, *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1731; Bouguer, *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1734; Bossut, *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1731, 534; 1776, 587; Coulomb, *Mém. des Savans étrangers*, 1773, 343; Giral, sur les constructions des Ponts, 4to; Trenabley, in *Rozier's Observations*, vol. xxxii. p. 132; Montrelet, in *Rozier's Observations*, vol. xxxii. p. 430; Epinus, in the *Mém. Acad. Berl.* 1755, p. 586; Labelye, on Westminster Bridge; Goldman and Hawkmoor's *Treatises*; Sir C. Wren, Dr. Robert Hook, and Dr. David Gregory, on Arches in the *Phil. Trans.*; *The Vitruvian Britannicus* by Campbell; *The Vitruvian Scoticus*, by W. Adam; *Short principles for the Architecture of Stone Bridges*, by S. Riou, Lond. 1770; *A Treatise on building in Water*, by Geo. Semple, Dublin 1776; Wiebeking's *Allgemeine theortische, praktische, Wasserbaukunst*, 1812; *Elementary Principles of Carpentry*, by Thomas Tredgold, Lond. 1830; *Treatise on the Foundations and Bridges*, by Samuel Ware, Lond. 1822; Dr. Hutton's *Principles of Bridges*, Lond. 1801; *Essay on Bridge building*, by James Savage, published in the *Essays of the London Architectural Society*, Lond. 1808; *Essay on Foundations*, by James Elmes, M.R.I.A. published in the same volume; *A Dissertation on the construction and properties of Arches*, by G. Atwood, F. R. S. Lond. 1801; *A Supplement to the same by the same*, Lond. 1804; Dr. Young's *Natural Philosophy*; Pope, on Bridge Architecture, New York, 1811; Various Reports of the House of Commons and the Common Council of London, on improving the Port of London; The Highland Roads, &c. &c. &c.

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